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MOHAMED KHIDER UNIVERSITY – BISKRA
FACULTY OF LETTERS AND LANGUAGES
DEPARTEMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

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Integrating the Pragmatic Dimension in English as a Foreign Language Classroom to Improve Learners' Polite Requests Production

The Case of Third-Year Students of English at Biskra University

Supervised by: Dr Ahmed Chaouki HOADJLI

Board of Examiners:

Head of the jury	Pr.	Saliha CHELLI	Mohamed Khider University of Biskra
Supervisor	Dr.	Ahmed Chaouki HOADJLI	Mohamed Khider University of Biskra
Examiner	Dr.	Ramdhan MEHIRI	Mohamed Khider University of Biskra
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Dedication

Words can never explain how grateful I am to my family for their love and support during my academic career, thus

I dedicate this work to my parents, my adorable husband, and children for their love, support, and patience while this doctoral dissertation prevented me from being the kind of daughter, wife, and mother I always wanted to be. I dedicate it also

To my brother and sisters and their families

To dear Sihem who is always there despite the distance ,and

To Rahma 's soul

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Abstract

Teaching pragmatics is vital in our globalized world since it enables mutual comprehension and reduces the challenges of misunderstanding and miscommunication in international situations. Foreign language teaching , for instance, is one field where it may prove usefulness. The purpose of this research, then, is to boost learners' pragmatic development in the request speech act. The first stage was to discover the causes of learners' pragmatic failure to conduct polite requests. This was done by observing a grammar session on modal verbs to examine the presence of the pragmatic feature given to learners via language form. The lecture was recorded, transcribed, and analysed using the Sinclair Coulthard (1975) discourse analysis model. The data corroborated the researcher's assumption that learners failure was due to the absence of the pragmatic dimension during language form learning where learners' classroom engagement was relatively limited during the lesson. Thus, a pedagogical intervention is required to increase learners' generation of appropriate requests and develop teachers' and learners' awareness of the sensitive importance of combining the pragmatic aspect of the language with grammatical rules in language teaching and learning. Following Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (1993, 1995, and 2001) and Collaborative Dialogues approach, the researcher examined the efficacy of pragmatic instruction in raising learners' awareness and sensitivity to pragmatic components of the target language in English as a foreign language contexts. 15 of second year English learners from Biskra University were subjected to 08 sessions of explicit pragmatic teaching via video-driven prompts. The Written Discourse Completion Task was used to assess the learners' performance of the target speech act in a pre-and post-intervention design. The exploratory phase's data were analysed qualitatively, whereas the interventional phase's data were analysed statistically. The Sinclair Coulthard discourse analysis model was utilised for the former while linguistic and statistical quantitative methodologies were applied to the latter. Following the interventional phase, participants greatly improved the ability to generate polite requests. The findings indicated a considerable increase in the diversity and appropriate use of internal and external changes,and a noticeable decrease in the learners' direct request strategies in post-intervention performances was also observed. Additionally, they highlighted the crucial role of explicit pragmatic training in learners' positive acquisition of request-making phrases, forms, and strategies.

Keywords: Politeness, polite request, pragmatic dimension, requests

List of Abbreviations

L1 :	**N**ative **L**anguage of the Learner(s)
NSs :	**N**ative **S**peakers of a **L**anguage
NNSs :	**N**on-**N**ative **S**peakers of a **L**anguage
WDCT :	**W**ritten **D**iscourse **C**ompletion **T**ask
EFL :	**E**nglish as a **F**oreign **L**anguage
ESL :	**E**nglish as a **S**econd **L**anguage
IL :	**I**nterlanguage
ILP :	**I**nterlanguage **P**ragmatics
L2 :	**S**econd/**F**oreign **L**anguage
CC :	**C**ommunicative **C**ompetence
PC :	**P**ragmatic **C**ompetence
SLA :	**S**econd **L**anguage **A**cquisition
TOEFL :	**Test** of **E**nglish as a **F**oreign **L**anguage
SD :	**S**ocial **D**istance
SI :	**S**ize of **I**mposition
P :	**P**ower
MMR :	**M**ixed **M**ethods **R**esearch

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General Introduction

1 Study Background

The primary aim of language instruction is the development of communicative competence in the learner of the language. Henceforth, being competent entails the control of knowledge or skill that goes beyond the correct use of the grammar and pronunciation rules of the learnt language. Furthermore, it includes understanding how language is used in a different context to produce different results. It is the pragmatic ability that enables learners to go beyond the literal meaning of what is said, to be able to interpret the intended meaning and to use appropriate language to avoid misunderstandings and then be considered as impolite or rude.

Politeness, however, is a necessary component of interpersonal relationships in daily life. It gives members of given community boundaries, rules of conduct and grounds to stand on. After this, politeness involves considering the feelings of others and making them feel comfortable. It is a universal phenomenon, yet expressed differently in different cultures. According to Brown and Levinson's (1978) politeness theory, people tend to choose indirect forms over direct ones to show politeness, since being direct is face-threatening (p.78), more indirect illocutions are used to increase the degree of politeness, added Leech (1983).

In the same line of thought, direct speech acts can be considered impolite or rude. On that account, to mitigate or soften the effect of speech acts, speakers should choose to state their utterances indirectly; higher levels of indirectness are believed to result in higher levels of politeness. Ignorance of politeness strategies in a given language will eventually lead to misunderstanding and communication breakdown, for the simple reason that what is considered polite or impolite in one culture can be different in another. The inability to use indirect speech acts, when necessary, by third-year students at Biskra University, although considered of advanced level, is beheld as a pragmatic failure. The latter includes no errors in diction yet mistakes failing to fulfil communication because of incompatible expressions and improper habits.

Pragmatic failure is an area of cross-cultural communication breakdown, which received very little attention from the teacher, more precisely, the teachers of grammar, the habit made of them mere suppliers of language rules rather than functions, targeting language accuracy rather than language proficiency.

2 Statement of the Problem

Because of the increase in international investments, the expansion of multinational corporations, the rise in the number of Algerians seeking higher education studies abroad and a variety of potentially lucrative academic and professional opportunities, effective communication in English is becoming increasingly important. Improved learners' ability to meet their learning objectives, such as becoming proficient users and communicators of the target language (TL), should thus be emphasised, and instruction should be geared toward these communicative goals. They expect they would communicate effectively in the TL to compete successfully in the global job market and access substantial academic and professional opportunities. Being fluent in the target language requires the knowledge of both the grammar and the pragmatic aspects of the target language (TL). Thus, foreign language instructions should guide learners to use language appropriately. However, teachers frequently emphasise linguistic knowledge, but pragmatic knowledge is rarely regarded as an integral aspect of language forms and rules. Interlanguage pragmatics research has established that second and foreign language learners and even more advanced learners are prone to make significant communication mistakes, failing to communicate and comprehend the intended value of utterances (Kasper, 1990; Thomas, 1983).

On his part, Yu (2005) claims that, in addition to structure and discourse norms, foreign language speakers should pay attention to the target language's sociolinguistic and pragmatic rules when conversing with native speakers. Both pragmatic and sociolinguistic abilities are distinct from the linguistic component of communicative competence; they provide context information. He states that a speaker's lack of awareness of sociolinguistic circumstances results in inappropriate or incomplete communication, leading to cross-cultural misunderstanding and offence; or pragmatic failure.

The request speech act, defined as an attempt by the speaker to get the hearer to do something (Scarle.1979), has received more attention in pragmatics studies than any other speech act (Blum—Kulka and Olshtain, 1984; Barron, 2003; Ueda, 2006; Solar &Jorda, 2007; Jalilifar, 2009; Ogeirmann, 2009). It is critical due to the impositive nature that makes it difficult for foreign language learners to use. This type of speech act affects the individual's autonomy and freedom of choice, which is why it should be phrased with caution. English, as a foreign language in Algeria, is used in a restricted environment, namely, the classroom, where learners do not have sufficient exposure to real-life situations in the target language. Focus is generally on the mastery of the target language form and structure, which generates an inappropriate use of the acquired linguistic knowledge in intercommunication. The identical phenomenon has been noticed at the English Department at Biskra University level among the third-year students who fail to use requests properly. (See Appendix1)

Although students had already been taught in grammar how to formulate, structure, and carry out requests using modal verbs, it is seen that they mostly employ the direct form of requesting with their interlocutors, who might be a peer, a lecturer, or the head of the department. Additionally, despite instruction on the formal and informal usage of modal verbs, most students avoid using them when required. Maybe, the habit made them unaware of the needfulness for being polite, wherein considerations of crucial factors in cross-cultural communication as such the social distance, the degree of imposition, and relative power of the interlocutor are requisites.

Suffice it to say that the core reasons for the problem lay in the learners' ignorance of the many cultural norms and pragmatic principles that govern linguistic behaviours across cultures which may be learnt through authentic English language videos. Like Yoon (1991) and Gabriel et al. (2017), numerous experts have demonstrated that the latter is beneficial in developing pragmatic competence or sensitivity to the meanings communicated through tone and voice. Teachers confirmed that learners learn language form and structure during grammar lessons, yet they do not sufficiently practice the learned form. Some reasons are a lack of sufficient time for practice or unawareness of the significance of matching form to relevant real-life situations. (See Appendix 2)

3 Related Review of the Literature

Undoubtedly, it is time to integrate the pragmatic dimension in EFL classroom instruction. Many studies like (Bardovi-Harling, 2001), Kasper and Rose (2002), Martinez-flor, Uso-Juan, and Fernandez –Guerra (2003), Rose (2005) and Kasper (2005) have shown that instruction facilitates the development of the EFL learners' ability to produce speech acts. Not only that but also instructional intervention is more beneficial than no instruction on pragmatics Felix-Bradsefer (2008); Kasper and Rose (2002); Koike and Pearson (2005).

Instruction proved to facilitate the development of EFL pragmatic competence, which is the ability to use language appropriately in a social context. This latter includes the pragma linguistic, as well as the sociopragmatic ability. To make learners pragmatically competent, they need to have a set of linguistic forms at their disposal to perform language functions. Simultaneously, they need to understand socio-cultural norms and rules that govern the usage of these forms. This can be pretty possible through an explicit instruction of pragmatics, i.e., providing direct instruction on how specific forms should be used in real-life situations to accomplish pragmatic goals. Without which, it has been proved that learners do not make associations between target forms and how to perform specific speech acts with those forms (Felix-Bras defer 2008; Fernandez- Guerra and Martinez-Flor 2006, Takahashi 2001). Among the findings in EFL pragmatic studies is that high levels of grammatical competence do not guarantee high levels of pragmatic competence. However, higher proficiency happens when learners draw inferences using speech act strategies and comprehend illocutionary force (Koike, 1996).

Researchers have discussed significant and controversial relationships between FL pragmatics and FL grammar development patterns. Some, like Schmidt (1983), believed in a severe dissociation between grammar and pragmatics, stating that pragmatics precedes grammar as a conclusion of a longitudinal study (1983) through which the participant made good progress in pragmatics, but more minor in grammar. As Takahashi and Beebe (1987) imply, supporters of this divide, that grammar can precede the pragmatic competence concerning the results of their study, which proved that high grammar knowledge brings about the negative pragmatic transfer.

The fundamental purpose of this study is to show that an integrated model of pragmatic acquisition, which considers grammar and pragmatic skill in tandem, is compelling. advanced learners at Biskra Universit, English department, will be exposed to knowledge regarding the grammar component (modal verbs) and pragmatic aspect information from real-life situations by native speakers. It is what Bosetal (2004, p.102) considers as the pragmatic- grammar interface. One fundamental reason for this interactional grammar- pragmatics view comes from the 'Modular' approach to language acquisition. Modularity in the psycholinguistic approach means that language users should have grammar and a pragmatic system at their disposal (Bos et al., 2004, p.101).

The instruction in the Socle Commun 2nd year – grammar objective is unequivocal: make learners use language appropriately in various discourse situations without any specified practical technique to assist instructors in guiding their learners towards situational fluency. Therefore, the researcher proposes that real English language videos cultivate and boost learners’ pragmatic knowledge of the speech act of request while also presenting modal verbs as a grammar lesson for second-year students.

Videos proved to be adequate to make learners more sensitive to the meaning expressed by the tone and word choice. Derakhshan and Arab Mofrad (2018) state that video-driven prompts might be advantageous as it enables learners to learn about the sociopragmatic and pragmatic features of the target language. In the same line of thought, Derakhshan et al (2014) believe that "The use of video-driven prompts holds a great promise to bring real life to the classroom and to be able to raise learners' sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic awareness" (p. 1653)

A request is a speech act that has been extensively examined in Interlanguage pragmatics research because of its frequent occurrence in the target language and the need for foreign learners to use function effectively in the target language community (Achiba, 2003). Among the studies that investigated the effect of instruction on the development of the pragmatic competence of L2 learners of English in making requests, Tateyama's study (2009), Safont (2003), and Campillo et al. (2009).

Tateyama's study investigated the effect of instruction on the pragmatic competence of learners of Japanese as a foreign culture on request production. Twenty-four students received expanded pragmatics instruction, and 22 others received regular instruction. The first group was engaged in additional consciousness-raising activities, oral communicative practices with native speakers of Japanese and video feedback sessions. Telephone message (TM) and role-play were used to measure the effect of instruction. The results revealed an essential instructional impact in raising their awareness about pragmalinguistic forms of politeness.

In line with this view, Safont (2003) focused on the effect of instruction on English request modifications. The study participants were divided into beginning and intermediate levels groups through a proficiency test. The DCT was administered as a pre-test and post-test, and the instruction was about awareness-raising tasks and oral role-play practice. Participants proved to use various modification devices in the post-test and increased use of "please".

The subsequent study to be reviewed is the one conducted by Campillo (2003), who wanted to confirm the positive effect of instruction on English request strategies. The study consisted of three sessions. The first was the pre-test, the third for the post-test. The second, however, was for the instructional intervention. The DCT and politeness task results confirmed the learners' increase in the use of various request strategies. However, he claimed further research would be conducted on the impact of long-term instructional treatment.

All the studies mentioned earlier agree on the positive effect instruction has on the pragmatic development of FL requests. Major studies in the Algerian context focus on developing pragmatic competence as a whole entity. Request studies, however, are few, and if any, they concentrated more on the request strategies used by Algerian learners of English. Awareness of politeness strategies and the development of the pragmatic knowledge of requesting were not given prominence. Through the present study, the researcher's target is to help boost the learners' pragmatic ability, notably, politeness in requesting a face-threatening act that needs to be carefully uttered.

4 The Research Questions

This investigation seeks to answer the following research questions:

- **RQ1:** What factors contribute to third-year students' failure to make polite requests?
- **RQ2:** To what extent may explicit pragmatic instruction through authentic videos may assist learners in improving their pragmatic competence in the speech act of request?

5 The Research Hypotheses

The researcher presents the following study hypotheses in response to the research questions mentioned above:

- **RH1:** Learners' failure to request appropriately may result from the grammar classes' lack of a pragmatic feature.
- **RH2:** Integrating the pragmatic feature through video-driven prompts would enhance learners' proficiency in request production.

6 The Variables in this Study

The main variables that will be under study are:

- The independent variable: Integrating pragmatics through video-driven prompts
- The dependent variable: Politeness strategies in request production

7 The Research Aims

The overarching goal of this study is to investigate the impact of incorporating the pragmatic dimension explicitly into the learning process through the use of video-driven prompts on the development of learners' pragmatic proficiency. Furthermore, the followings are other objectives being pursued by this investigation:

- To explore the modal verbs lesson to understand the factors contributing to the learners' pragmatic failure.
- To raise grammar instructors' awareness about the usefulness of blending pragmatic knowledge with grammatical components in their lessons.
- -Raising learners' understanding of the significance of gaining pragmatic information combined with linguistic information to attain language appropriacy.

8 Rationale and Study Description

The target of foreign learners in the era of globalisation is communicating effectively and efficiently with the interlocutors of the outer world. In order not be judged as rude or impolite, the learner has to learn what constitutes appropriate linguistic behaviour in various social situations in the target language, i.e., how to communicate actions. Politeness was not given prominence previously in the Algerian studies in which the main concern was the pragmatic competence as a whole entity. The present study explores the grammar lesson of modal verbs to depict the roots of the learners' failure. Subsequently, it examines the effect of the instructional treatment. The treatment lies in using authentic material such as video-driven prompts to integrate pragmatic knowledge needed in grammar teaching to better use the speech act of request and consider politeness as fundamental in social interaction, mainly when the interlocutor is not an Algerian.

Therefore, this research is composed of the following phases:

8.1 The Exploratory Phase

It consists of classroom observation. This procedure is used to diagnose and investigate, in particular, the existence of a pragmatic dimension throughout the lesson and the structure of classroom interaction. The transcription of the observed and recorded session is transcribed and analysed afterwards. The findings of the exploratory phase serve as the foundation for deciding how to intervene with pedagogical therapy. This intervention is a type of explicit instruction of the speech act of request, with videos serving as teaching materials featuring requests commonly encountered in natives' everyday lives.

8.2 The Interventional Phase

The pedagogical treatment consists of 08 sessions that follow a similar format. Each of them begins with a warm-up task designed to assist learners in activating their schemata. An awareness-raising component follows a warm-up to help learners notice the linguistic feature and the pragmatic behaviour taught from the video. Students will be directed to represent the social and environmental clues that influence their choice of a particular linguistic characteristic through class discussion. In practice, learners are provided with scenarios, dialogues, and other exercises to be discussed collaboratively by learners who try to give appropriate responses.

- **Session One**: a pre-test is designed "at the beginning of a course to establish a subject knowledge baseline for the target sample" (Berry, 2008).
- **Session Two**: -Modal verbs used to form a request are instructed one by one with different functions.

- **Session Three**: The distinction between direct and indirect requests is highlighted. Explanations of the degrees of indirectness of tactics used in requests are provided (direct, conventionally indirect, and non-conventionally indirect)
- **Session Four**: Social variables affecting the choice of the strategy are discussed with a comparison with those of L1 (power, distance and ranking of imposition) and other forms of politeness structures without modals.
- **Session Five:** Internal modifiers
- **Session six:** Supporting moves (external modifiers)
- **Session seven:** "Disguised requests."
- **Session Eight:** Post-test is conducted to collect data on the outcome measure after the intervention.

9 The Research Methodology for this Study

Among the research methodologies that will be used better to understand the causes for the learner's pragmatic failure and to assist the learner in overcoming this failure are the following:

9.1 Research Approach

It is a mixed-methods approach that is said to be "a means for exploring differences; a forum for dialogue; or an opportunity for better understanding different ways of seeing, knowing and valuing" (Greene & Caracelli,1997). It involves collecting, analysing and integrating quantitative and qualitative research.

Mixed methods research (henceforth MMR) is also called split or multiple methods approach. It is a combination of methods. It "involves collecting, analysing, and integrating qualitative and quantitative data in a single or multiphase study" (Hanson et al., 2005, p.224). This study suggests a treatment to help raise learners' awareness about the underlying cultural differences between L1 and the learned language. The treatment was conducted sequentially with the qualitative component first and the quantitative second. The exploratory phase's findings provided the investigator with explanations that motivated her to initiate the second phase. Combining quantitative and qualitative data increases the value of mixed methods research (Bryman, 2006; Plano Clark & Creswell, 2011). Numerous benefits may be derived from merging the two types of data. Qualitative data can be used to substantiate quantitative conclusions. Quantitative data can also be utilised to assist in the generation of the qualitative sample or to explain qualitative data findings. Qualitative inquiry can be used to guide the creation or refining of quantitative instruments or treatments, or it can be used to create hypotheses for quantitative testing (O'Cathain, Murphy, and Nicholl 2010). Although data integration has several potential benefits, the extent to which mixed methods research integrate data remains restricted (Bryman 2006; Lewin, Glenton, & Oxman 2009).

9.2 Research Design

In this study, the researcher will opt for three designs:

9.2.1 Case study. Case studies provide a unique example of real people in real situations, allowing readers to comprehend concepts more clearly than they would otherwise be able to do if the ideas were merely presented in the form of abstract theories or general principles. The current study is concerned with the case of third-year English students at Biskra University who cannot produce appropriate requests in the classroom due to a lack of pragmatic ability. Regarding education, case studies are critical since they may influence decision-making by policymakers, practitioners, and theorists. According to Bassey (1999) and Cohen (2018), case studies study an intriguing feature of educational activity, programme, institution, or system, emphasising the natural setting in which it takes place.

9.2.2 Cross-sectional Design. The cross-sectional approach was used for this study because it gives a glimpse of a population of second-year students. The researcher began by examining one group of second-year students for whom modals are designed in grammar. This same group was then subjected to a pedagogical treatment to assist those students in employing more indirect strategies and becoming more aware of the importance of mitigating requests through various modifiers that were observed missing during the lesson. Cross-sectional data analysis is used to provide assessments of the nature and pace of change in sample students' request output.

9.2.3 Quasi-experimental design. Educational research usually lacks true experiments, such as randomising people into control or experimental groups. These are quasi-experiments used in non-laboratory field research only who and to whom of measurement may be controlled, but neither the when nor the to whom of exposure can be (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2013)

This second phase is defined as a pre-test-post-test quasi-experimental design since it integrates the pragmatic element into the grammatical lesson of requests. To measure the independent variable, the integration of pragmatic component in request grammar, the treatment, which consists of eight one-hour sessions, targets just one set of 20 students from a total population of second-year students. So, after the intervention, the researcher calculated the influence of the independent variable (pragmatic instruction) on the dependent variable (the learners' production of polite requests).

9.3 Data Collection and Analysis Tools

Two sorts of data gathering methods will be used: qualitative and quantitative data collection methods.

9.3.1 Classroom Observation. It is a data-collecting tool for researchers who observe a specific research field. Ethnographic observation often studies a single classroom or a single phenomenon in a small number of classrooms. Rather than looking for data, as Tsui (1995) explains, that will fit into predetermined categories, classroom observations use an open-ended approach where the classes if there are any, are derived from the data. This method is considered to be empirical, naturalistic and holistic. Regarding the previously stated reasons, this method is used in the present study to check, diagnose and explore the type of speech act teachers use and the structure of classroom interaction. However, the grammar teacher is chosen randomly to present the lesson on modal verbs, as modals are the essential elements of a polite request. The lesson was recorded as audio recordings, and those recordings will be transcribed and analysed using the Sinclair Coulthard (1975) discourse analysis model.

9.3.2 The discourse completion test. It is used as a pre-test and a post-test to check the effectiveness of the treatment. Discourse completion task (henceforth DCT) is used to elicit speech acts. The DCT scenarios vary, as explained by Nguyen (2019), in contextual parameters of power, social distance and degree of imposition, allowing researchers to investigate the speech acts in a range of situations. DCT is formed out of a set of described situations followed by a gap for the participants to respond. Every situation contains details about the interlocutor, the social distance between them and contextual information needed to help elicit the appropriate response.

10 Limitations of the Study

As with most research, the current study's design has limitations. Firstly, pragmatic concerns are under-researched in the Algerian setting; studies in this field are few compared to those on writing, speaking, reading and so forth. As a result, there is limited access to research on Interlanguage pragmatics undertaken in a comparable environment, specifically Biskra University. Concerning the intervention, the protocol set by the University of Biskra in response to the pandemic contributed to the intervention's delay. Each level included a 15-day study period with intense programme hours for students participating in the intervention. When a solution was discovered, it was challenging to arrange further sessions, and not all of the students attended.

Additionally, the researcher's intervention is explicitly pragmatic in nature, focusing on the request speech act. In terms of data gathering tools, DCT, however, using it to collect data rather than other instruments such as role-plays, interviews, or digitally improved elicitation tools may have limits. In light of the previously described research on DCT as a data collection technique, it cannot be compared to natural speech (Beebe & Cummings, 1996). Nonetheless, it is commonly thought to collect enormous volumes of data, with the simplicity of administration and design, in addition to the ease with which the coding taxonomy may be applied to it. A caveat to this methodological issue is that this study validated the DCT findings using a well-established coding manual, CCSARP (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989).

Additionally, the scenarios used in the DCT were quite comparable to those encountered by learners in daily life, allowing learners to establish real-world contexts to which they may connect to develop genuine language. Another disadvantage associated with the DCT was the small number of circumstances, which may not indicate all conceivable situations in a real-world environment. This constraint was taken into account and mitigated in the design of the DCT, which included a variety of settings that mixed and matched the TL social elements. For example, formal and informal settings with a range of D, P, and R values were provided. Thus, formal settings included (high R, low P, low SD), (low R, high P, low D), (low R, low P, high D), (low R, low P, low D), and (low R, low P, low D), whereas informal situations included (high R, high P, high D). Additionally, the exhaustion and boredom of the learners were considered and accommodated by limiting the number of instances to instructive but not burdensome.

11 Significance of the Study

The findings of this study will benefit all Algerian foreign language learners, given the critical role of politeness in cross-cultural communication and the necessity of increasing students' understanding of proper linguistic usage as a crucial component of preventing future cultural conflicts. Additionally, because the pragmatic element of classroom communication is undervalued in the Algerian context, particularly at Biskra University, there is a growing demand for more effective life-changing teaching approaches.

Teachers who use the recommended strategy of employing video-based prompts will undoubtedly raise their students' pragmatic awareness of the cultural differences that exist across languages of the need of both pragmatic and sociopragmatic considerations while attempting to speak more fluently. The more natural material learners encounter, the more native-like command of the language they achieve. Henceforth, the study adds to the finding of a significant area of EFL research that has been missed by many researchers of that country and gives a chance to contribute to and overcome the Algerian learners' pragmatic failure at least in one area. In a few words, this research contributed by examining the Algerian setting through the lens of individuals whose first language is Arabic. This area has received little research attention and led future research to illuminate numerous other covered zones in pragmatics.

12 Organisation of the Thesis

This thesis includes six chapters:

The first chapter covers basic pragmatic concepts, emphasising Interlanguage pragmatics' most important issues. A focus on pragmatic competence and the core abilities required for a pragmatically competent learner is also highlighted. A definition of politeness and theoretical principles are then emphasised with the different politeness strategies.

The second chapter examines the primary pragmatics instruction relevant concepts, reasons for pragmatic failure and theories proposed to help enhance EFL learners' pragmatic development. The current study treatment is theoretically based on the Schmidt noticing hypothesis, and collaborative dialogues approach, thoroughly discussed in chapter 2.

The third chapter describes the investigation's techniques. First, it discusses the methodology of the research, the research paradigm, and the study designs. Additionally, it presents the sampling and data gathering procedures.

Data analysis methodologies, including quantitative and qualitative ones, are also explained. The following three chapters**, Chapter 4, Chapter 5, and Chapter 6,** summarise the analysis and interpretation process results. **The fourth chapter** analyses and interprets the qualitative data (transcription, analysis, and discussion of the findings). However, **chapter five** provides statistical and quantitative methods for analysing and interpreting quantitative data (pre-and post-intervention DCT). Finally, **the sixth chapter** summarises the investigation, including vital conclusions and ramifications.

13 Demystifying Terminology/Glossary

Interlanguage pragmatics is the study of how learners develop the ability to understand and produce speech acts in a second language. Examples of these acts are refusing an offer for food, asking a professor to write a letter of recommendation, complaining about an unfair grade on the final exam and others.

Pragmatic competence is defined by Koike (1989, p. 279) as "the speaker's knowledge and use of rules of appropriateness and politeness, which dictate the way the speaker will understand and formulate speech acts." PC encompasses two aspects: pragmalinguistic competence and sociopragmatic competence

Pragmatic failure is defined as the "inability to perceive or produce utterances that represent a speaker intended illocutionary force" Thomas (1983, p.91).

Linguistic Politeness: Brown and Levinson initially proposed a universal model of linguistic politeness and claimed that politeness is realised **linguistically** through various strategies (positive and negative) across cultures. According to Brown and Levinson, the face is something that can be lost and must be constantly tended to in interaction. Politeness in this study is to mean the linguistic politeness

A request is a directive speech act whose illocutionary purpose is to get the hearer to do something in circumstances where it is not evident that he or she will act in the normal course of events (Searle 1969). Thus, the speaker believes that the hearer can perform an action by initiating a request.

Polite requests are face threatening to both the requester and the hearer and have the potential to be intrusive and demanding. Therefore, there is a need for the requester to minimise the imposition; hence, the speaker has to use indirect strategies and supportive moves rather than direct ones. Direct requests are considered to be impolite.

Face-threatening acts (FTAs): Brown and Levinson (1987, p.65) describe FTAs as "the acts which run contrary to the addressee's self-image". Directives to which a request belongs are face-threatening acts.

Chapter One: Pragmatics and Speech Act Theory

Introduction

The first chapter will go through basic pragmatic ideas, emphasising some of the most critical topics in Interlanguage pragmatics. It highlights the many components of communicative competence, focusing on the pragmatic competence construct and the fundamental abilities necessary for a learner to be pragmatically competent. The emphasis then switches to a definition of politeness and theoretical notions.

1.1 Pragmatics

According to philosopher Charles Morris' work, the importance of dealing with language usage and exploring meaning in real-world situations dates back to the 1930s. The latter advocated for a three-tiered division of semiotics, the science of signs (Huang, 2007a). To begin, he saw syntax as a subfield of mathematics concerned with the formal relationships between signs. Semantics is the study of signals and their denotative meanings, whereas pragmatics studies signs and their relation between users and interpreters. Carnap categorised the three domains of study in 1942 (as cited in Huang, 2007) and categorised them according to their degree of abstraction; therefore, syntax, the most abstract of the three, may offer data to semantics, which in turn can provide input to pragmatics, the least abstract of the three.

Later, Austin's Speech Act theory and Grice's Conversational Implicature theory developed a systematic and logically justified pragmatic theory of language usage. Another aspect that aided in the development of language pragmatics, or the study of language, as a distinct linguistic discipline was Levinson's 1983 publication of pragmatics, which was a response to generative semanticists' concept of "the wastebasket" (Huang, 2006a).

Cristal (1985) defines this new topic as "the study of language from the point of view of users, especially the choices they make, the constraints they face while using language in social interaction, and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication"(p.240). Similarly, Yule sees pragmatics as "the study of meaning as conveyed by the speaker and perceived by the listener" (Yule, 1996, p.3). Thus, when used, it emphasises the speaker's meaning rather than the words' meanings.

Additionally, before delivering a message, the speaker must consider several critical variables such as where, when, to whom he is speaking, and under what conditions or context. However, context properly defines what is intended, as individuals in real-world settings frequently mean more than what they say, as they rarely express their intentions directly. In turn, the hearer attempts to infer meaning from what is said to arrive at the speaker's intended meaning. The latter is central to pragmatics, as stated by (Huang, 2006b) that pragmatics is the study of how more gets communicated than is said.

In the same token, Levinson (2008) notes that pragmatics is the study of the relationships between language and context necessary for an account of understanding. Thus, a proper interpretation entails more than simply recognising the meanings of the words that comprise the statement and their grammatical relationships. It involves drawing inferences from what is uttered in relation to what is anticipated or intended. Thus, the goal of pragmatics is to account for inferences (Thomas, 1995). Contextual language forms such as presupposition, implicature, illocutionary force, and other pragmatic implications are used to derive those inferences.

To put it briefly, Thomas (1995) states: "Meaning is not inherent in the words alone, nor is it produced by the speaker alone, nor by the hearer alone. Making meaning is a dynamic process involving the negotiation of meaning between the speaker and the hearer, the physical, social, and linguistic environment of the utterance, and the meaning potential of the utterance." (p.22) Thomas defines pragmatics as the study of meaning in interaction, which may be wangled through three processes: meaning negotiation between speaker and hearer, the physical, the social, or linguistic environment of the utterance, and the meaning potential of an utterance (Martnez-Flor & Usó-Juan, 2010). Her formulation reflects a shift away from a purely linguistic account of pragmatics toward a more comprehensive view of pragmatics that attributes context, social acts, and agency to language usage. Bardovi-Harlig's (2010) statement encompasses much of what has been said, pragmatics bridges the divide between the system and usage sides of language.

1.2 Branches of pragmatics

Being interested in meaning in the social context, Pragmatics has been branched off into many subfields, namely cross-cultural, intercultural, and Interlanguage pragmatics. In what follows, we insert a brief survey of these distinct yet complementary areas of study.

1.2.3 Cross-cultural pragmatics. Cross-cultural pragmatics evolved as a branch of research concerned with comparing various cultures via examining specific characteristics of language usage, such as language behaviour, behaviour from patterns, and speech acts. It reaches the linguistic acts produced by speakers of various languages and cultural backgrounds (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993). Languages and cultures are researched independently to aid in analysing the similarities and differences between the various entities to deduce the language-specific pattern of pragmatic behaviour that reflects the underlying values, conventions, and beliefs held by members of a particular society (Huang, 2016).

Similarly, Wierzbicka’s 1991 study (as cited in Huang, 2016) reports that "people speak differently in different societies and communities; these differences in ways of speaking are profound and systematic, reflecting different cultural values, or at the very least different hierarchies of values; different ways of speaking, different communicative styles, can be explained and made sense of in terms of independently established different cultural values and cultural priorities"(p. 69-70). This is why comparative studies of two or more language groups are essential in cross-cultural pragmatics. Data can be acquired independently from various groups. The well-known Cross-Cultural Speech Act Project (henceforth CCSARP) is a seminal large-scale cross-cultural study conducted in 1980 by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain to examine the requests and apologies strategies used in seven languages using the discourse completion test (henceforth DCT), a written questionnaire. After categorising requests and apologies using the same coding scheme, samples of requests and apologies were collected. The acquired data reveals how many various sorts of expressions exist in a single language, how they may be direct or indirect, how they fluctuate depending on the context, and most crucially, how they vary between languages. However, our study does not come under this kind of research since our objective is not to compare learners' productions of requests but to assist learners in developing their capacity to generate appropriate requests in the classroom. However, cross-cultural studies may aid in determining the reasons for their pragmatic failure when analysing the distinctions between Arabic as a first language (L1) and English as a second foreign language (FL) and the effect L1 has on L2 or FL acquisition.

1.2.4 Intercultural pragmatics. This study area is mainly interested in how speakers of diverse languages and cultures communicate via a common language. Without a doubt, as described by Kecskes (2004), it is an investigation of how language systems are used in social interactions between human beings that speak various first languages, communicate in a common language, and typically represent diverse cultures. The disparate norms of speakers from diverse cultures can result in significant misunderstanding, resulting in cultural stereotyping and prejudice. On the other hand, international communication requires mutual understanding of the cultural differences and misunderstandings in the modern era. Moreover, Kecskes (2004) emphasises the concept of intersubjectivity in intercultural communication, stating that interlocutors negotiate various modes of interaction, varying standards of politeness and even indirectness, and disparate communication styles and cultural conventions when interacting. Following that, participants make assumptions about their interlocutors' cultures and work to find new communication standards that can be acceptable to all speakers to avoid communication breakdown. This research area is not relevant to the current study, as it focuses on learners who share the same L1 and L1 culture; also, they have a common goal of building target language competence, which is English, for all of them.

1.2.5 Interlanguage pragmatics. Interlanguage refers to the growing system of the learners' target language. It encompasses aspects unique to L2 and others unique to L1 and characteristics that are neither unique to L2 nor unique to L1, all of which pertain to linguistic knowledge (Schauher, 2019). Interlanguage pragmatics (Henceforth ILP), which this research falls under, is an interdisciplinary field examined from various theoretical, analytical, and methodological viewpoints. It explores how L2 learners' ability to comprehend and perform pragmatic functions, namely speech acts, evolves with time.

Similarly, Kasper and Dahl (1991) describe Interlanguage pragmatics as the discipline of language research that examines "non-native speakers' comprehension, production, and how their L2 related speech act knowledge is acquired" (p.216). This construal has recently been expanded to encompass a broader range of pragmatic elements and pave the way for a more holistic understanding of pragmatic competence. The illocutionary power and politeness elements of speech act performance are central. The following notions define the fundamentals of ILP. ILP, on the other hand, places a far higher premium on exploring the English language as a second and foreign language.

1.2.5.1 Pragmatic comprehension. It has to do with the comprehension of oral language, i.e. the pragmatic meaning. English language learners need to be able to comprehend meaning pragmatically more precisely:

- Assimilate the speaker's intentions
- Interpret a speaker's feelings and attitudes.
- Differentiate speech act meaning, such as the difference between a directive and a commissive.
- Be able to evaluate the intensity of a speaker's meaning to differentiate between a warning and a suggestion.
- Have the ability to respond appropriately.

Interlanguage pragmatics places a premium on pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic issues. They are opposites. On the one hand, pragmalinguistic indignation probes into learners' comprehension and interpretation of non-literal utterances in propositional context and illocutionary force. On the other side, they appraise the politeness value of utterances' conventions. In contrast, sociopragmatic indignation is concerned with how learners perceive elements in their social context and the language act itself (Fried et al., 2010). ILP investigations demonstrated that while foreign language learners can utilise conversational implicature and so comprehend indirectness, they cannot fully use their inferencing capacity due to their reliance on verbal rather than contextual cues (Kasper, 2010). Additionally, the implicature affects understanding and the learners' cultural and linguistic backgrounds, which can be successfully transferred and interpreted by advanced learners but not by less competent learners (Kasper, 2010 as cited in Fried& Ostman, 2010).

Furthermore, to what has been stated, ILP research has demonstrated that the influence of various factors on learners' politeness assessment, transfer from L1, and social characteristics of interlocutors such as age and gender, and even speakers' involvement in L2 social norms tends to increase with the quantity and quality of exposure to the target community. Concerning learners' evaluation discrepancies, it has been established that variances in L1 and L1 culture cause them (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993). For instance, when native English speakers learn Hebrew, they have a more considerable urge to apologise for forum offences. However, Russian students of Hebrew believe that the nature of the offence necessitates an apology. On the other hand, German language learners rated the severity of offences warranting apologies higher than native English speakers. It is undeniable how learners might acquire knowledge of the structure and its function, but most of the time, they cannot overcome the mother tongue's seeming impediment somehow.

1.2.5.2 Production of linguistic action. The bulk of the study examines how learners create various l2 speech acts such as apologies, compliments, refusals, requests, suggestions, expressions of gratitude, invitations, rejections, and statements of disagreement. What is crucial is that language learners' performance of those acts is unsatisfactory. At the same time, they may possess implicit knowledge of speech act realisation procedures, yet they cannot apply that information in real-world interactions. Perhaps this is due to their inadequate linguistic skill, negative pragmatic transfer from L1, stereotyped notions about pragmatically appropriate in target language circumstances, or cultural resistance, as demonstrated by Kasper (2010). These same elements can affect EFL learners' choices and preferences about employing direct and indirect speech actions, compounding their inability to perfectly regulate the various pragmalinguistic functions.

Additionally, several studies indicate that learners employ more direct strategies to express pragmatic intent than native speakers, most notably when making and rejecting requests (Tanaka, 1988; Fukushima, 1990), offering and rejecting suggestions (Hartford, 1990), and when utilising refusals (Robinson, 1992). Learners internalise new norms, patterns, and even a set of routines daily. To be pragmatically competent, learners must match those forms to their pragmalinguistic functions and sociopragmatic context constraints, which all learners, including more competent non-native speakers, are incapable of accomplishing.

1.2.5.3 The pragmatic transfer. It is the effect that a learner's pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than their second language has on their comprehension, production, and acquisition of second language pragmatic information (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993). The effect of any language or culture other than the target language is referred to as pragmatic transfer. This impact is shown in learners' performance and cannot be predicted by comparing L1 and L2 pragmatics (Kasper, 2010). It might be either positive or negative.

A transfer might be positive "when learners’ production of a pragmatic feature is the same (structurally, functionally, and distributionally) as a feature used by target language speakers in the same context and when this feature is paralleled by a feature in learners’

L1" (Kasper, 1998. p.194). Negative transfer, on the other hand, can occur "where a pragmatic feature in the Interlanguage is structurally, functionally, or distributionally the same as to that in L1 but different from that in L2" (Kasper, 1998. p.194).

1.2.6 Communicative and pragmatic competencies. A complete grasp of how language characteristics are learned varies from how they are used in real communication. Adequate and appropriate interaction is inextricably linked to pragmatic ability, which is undoubtedly reflected in performance alongside grammatical competence because every learner must acquire knowledge of the various linguistic forms, their functions, and the social rules governing their use to perform and interpret messages properly in a particular language (Salgado, 2011). These constitute what is referred to as pragmatic competence. Thus, pragmatic competence is defined as a working grasp of linguistic forms, their functions, and the social conventions that enable speakers to comprehend and perform a message in a particular language (Kasper, 1992).

To be explicit, while modern linguistics aims to examine language as its speakers use it, Chomsky's (1965) concept of linguistic competence focused only on tacit knowledge of language structure. It distinguishes between competence, abstract language knowledge, and the sociocultural elements that influence performance or actualisation of this knowledge competence is described as the speaker's unconscious knowledge of language structure that permits him or her to construct and comprehend previously unproduced or unheard sentences (Flores-Salgado, 2011). This concept has been criticised for focusing exclusively on the ideal knowledge that exists in the minds of language users rather than on actual language usage.

Given that language is a tool of communication, linguists must investigate it to assist learners in achieving their objectives and communicating effectively. That is why Hymes (1972) argues that communicative competence should substitute Chomsky's concept of linguistic competence to consider the language's social and referential components. The new term encompasses both grammatical proficiency and understanding of relevant sociocultural use rules. Unlike Chomsky's concept, Hymes' notion concerns knowledge and the capacity to talk appropriately in various social contexts while adhering to grammatical norms. Hymes and Habermas believed that Chomsky's theory could not account for real-life communication. However, Habermas' proposal idealised the speech situation (Rickheit & Strohner, 2008), demonstrating that communicative competence should be associated with a set of rules that generates an ideal speech situation, not with linguistic codes that connect language and universal pragmatics to actual role systems.

In contrast to Chomsky and Habermas, who idealised the speech event and the speaker-listener to the point of impossibility, Dell Hymes successfully validated his concept of communicative competence through theoretical and practical needs, claiming that theoretical and practical problems converge (Salgado, 2011).

Hymes (1972) adds that every researcher in SLA seeks to alleviate and resolve practical issues that arise in real-life communication in general and EFL classes in particular because one can not discuss the ideal speaker, hearer, or speech event. Communication competence is necessary for various contexts, including social interaction, intercultural interactions, and organisational and public levels. Individual and societal difficulties develop due to linguistic incompetence, hurting academic and professional achievement, and psychological health and well-being.

The speaker must deliver an effective and appropriate message to communicate, achieve goals, and transfer intentions successfully. Fluency is concerned with the speaker's ability to achieve or infer his or her message. Cupach (1989, as cited in Rickheit & Strohner, 2008) noted that "effectiveness derives from control and is defined as a successful goal, achievement or task accomplishment"(p.7). However, appropriateness refers to the speaker's capacity to be deemed appropriate in light of the social conditions present in a given setting. Cupach (1989) defined appropriateness succinctly as "appropriateness reflects tact or politeness and is defined as the avoidance of violating social or interpersonal norms, rules, or expectations" (p.7). By conversing naturally and appropriately, the language user accomplishes desired objectives, which is the goal of each language user. Thus, the goal of language research cannot be to obtain insight into the speaker's mental properties but rather to view language as a valid societal instrument.

In a similar vein to Hymes, Searle (1985, as cited in Kaburise, 2011) remarks, "The purpose of language is communication in much the same sense that the purpose of the heart is to pump blood. In both cases, it is possible to study the structure independently of function, but it is pointless and perverse to do so since structure and function so obviously interact"(p.36). Richard & Rodgers (1986) conclude that "Such a view of linguistic theory was sterile. That linguistic theory needed to be seen as part of a more general theory incorporating communication and culture" (p.70). They also emphasise that the notion of "communicative competence" is more inclusive since it is a synthesis of linguistic, action, and cultural theories. Following Hymes, Van Dijk (1977a, p.167) says that ". Nonetheless, as with any other conventional system, this mental system is shaped by the necessities of effective social behaviour on the one hand and is used and changed on the other" (p.167).

Chomsky argues that language structure and acquisition are not "context-independent," as Hymes asserted (Jorda, Solar, 2008). To conclude, learners should be introduced to any feature of the language form in a contextually appropriate manner. Otherwise, a great deal of knowledge will be lost. In the current study, learners proved to receive grammatical aspects of the English language as separate entities and out of context, making them appear incompetent users despite their advanced level. Additional explanations will be presented throughout the exploration phase. Without a doubt, the postulate of communicative competence served as the foundation for the communicative approach that dominated language education for many years. That is why several researchers have attempted to define and characterise it by identifying its constituents.

Canale and Swain's (1980), Bachman's (1990) and Celce-Murcia et al. (1990)’s are the most influential (1995). Canale and Swain re-defined communicative competence as the underlying systems and skills necessary for communication (Salgado, 2011); consequently, they proposed a four-part theoretical model comprised of grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence, and discourse competence. Grammatical competence is the ability to denote ungrammaticality via lexis, morphological rules, sentence structure, semantics, and phonology. Sociolinguistic competence is concerned with usage and discourse norms. It refers to the speakers' capacity to comprehend and evaluate the social meaning of an utterance in light of the situational and contextual circumstances affecting language use.

However, strategic competence is about mastering communication strategies (verbal and non-verbal). It is the ability to handle any social encounter, compensating for and maintaining communication through breakdowns in real-world communication, increasing communication's overall efficacy. Finally, discourse competence refers to combining language forms to produce and understand coherent oral or written texts. It encompasses both formal and semantic coherence; nevertheless, sociolinguistic competence is solely concerned with sociocultural norms. While this model considers the many abilities required for second language learning, it fails to demonstrate the existent link between its constituents.

In keeping with Hymes, Canale and Swain, Bachman (1990) introduce her model, which incorporates the intriguing concept of pragmatic competence. Bachman emphasised that communicative language ability requires knowledge of the structure and capacity to apply that knowledge in appropriate social circumstances (Salgado, 2011). Bachman's model, which Bachman and Palmer refined later in (1996), is composed of language competence and strategic competence. The former is further subdivided into pragmatic and organisational competence. Organizational competence entails knowledge of the principles governing word and phrase structure (grammatical competence); and the ability to write cohesive and coherent documents (textual competence).

In contrast, pragmatic competence is subdivided into two components: illocutionary and sociolinguistic competencies. The former is concerned with knowledge of both speech acts and language functions, and Kasper's communicative action has recently supplanted it (1997). Thus, this competence refers to understanding the pragmatic conventions necessary for performing proper language functions (Salgado, 2011).

On the other hand, sociolinguistic competence focuses on deploying language functions appropriately within a given situation. As indicated previously, the competencies are compared to Thomas' distinction between pragmalinguistic and Sociopragmatic, which will be defined in the following lines. The other element of Bachman's model is strategic competence which is identified as” more than the ability to repair a communicative problem. It has the function of conveying meaning and establishing or re-establishing relationships between interlocutors when there is a lack of competence. It provides the individual with access to rules and norms necessary to interact effectively in a given language” (Salgado, 2011). Finally, the psycho-physiological mechanisms that have a bearing on the different neuromuscular skills as such comprising channel, which has relevance for the visual and auditory, and node, bore about the productive and receptive aspects requisite for utterances performance.

Henceforth, Bachman's model spotlights the knowledge of the language systems and skills paramount for an appropriate and effective spoken or written text having to cope with social context. Pragmatic competence, the target of the present study, is identified through Bachman’s model. It is reckoned to be among the main components of communicative competence that is pertained to cognitive ability and social experience (Kasper& Schmidt, 1996). Bachman, indeed, extols the virtues of this construct as having a prominent role in language learning. This competence encloses vocabulary, cohesion, textual organisation and sociolinguistic competence into the register, nativeness, and cultural references. Particularly, pragmatic competence slanted towards the relation between signs and referents and between language users and the context of communication (Salgado, 2011).

Language is not used uniformly, yet it differs and varies in terms of performance depending on the language, the situation in which communication occurs, the receiver, or the hearer (Schneider& Barron, 2014). That is why it is of the utmost importance for any learner to interact effectively and appropriately in a particular situation to know "the linguistic forms, the functions of these forms, and the social rules that allow him /her to interpret and perform a message in a specific language.

In the same token, Kasper and Roever (1993; as cited in Alcon-Martinez, 2008) suggest that being pragmatically competent entails developing sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic abilities. It is the growing capacity for comprehending and producing sociopragmatic meaning in accordance with pragmalinguistic conventions. That is why the construct of pragmatic competence was introduced to demonstrate that communicative competence cannot be achieved solely by increasing a learner's grammatical knowledge but rather through the development of pragmatic competence, which includes what Thomas referred to as pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence. The former is concerned with using pragmatic strategies (such as directness and indirectness), routines, language resources (such as syntactic or lexical mitigators), and communicative acts that convey relational or interpersonal meanings. This term refers to the speaker's choice of linguistic means for communicating a message. On the other hand, sociopragmatic competence impacts the speaker's ability to assimilate sociocultural information during interactions and engage in culturally appropriate practices such as complementing, apologising, or simply employing silence. Moreover, it digs into speakers' social knowledge to produce and interpret language within a specific speech community (Leech, 1983).

Over and above, sociopragmatic competence implies knowing what to say, when to say, to whom to say it in a specific circumstance. It embroils the knowingness of the degree of imposition, cost/benefit, social distance and the relative rights and obligations immersed in peculiar communicative acts. One of our targets in this study is to determine whether EFL learners are sensitive to the contextual demarcations of power, distance and degree of imposition as long as requests are concerned. What follows is a recap of what learners need to know to be pragmatically competent.

1.2.6.1 Performing speech acts. To put it another way, Fraiser (1983) defines pragmatic ability as the capacity to understand how an addressee assesses what a speaker is saying and recognises the intended illocutionary force transmitted through nuanced attitudes in the speaker's utterance. The CCARP research, which compares native speakers' performance on speech acts with that of language learners, is one of the most well-known studies on speech acts. Even though the speech act typology is universal, the conceptualization and verbalization of speech acts might differ significantly among cultures and languages, according to the latter study's findings Fraser and his colleagues (Rentoul & Fraser, 1979). However, even though foreign language learners have access to the same variety of speech acts and realisation strategies as native speakers (Henceforth NSs), they may pick non-identical speech act tactics despite this. L2 students must therefore be aware of the sociocultural limitations placed on their speech actions in L2. Indirect criticisms, for example, are often used by Americans as a kind of solidarity. On the other hand, Japanese learners avoid this speaking act since it is viewed as a face-threatening behaviour in their L1 (Boxer, 1993).

Another thing to keep in mind when learning a new language is the importance of conveying sincerity. When it comes to making pragmatic decisions, Arabic speakers, for example, often turn to proverbs for guidance. Americans should employ language that is less formulaic to communicate their sincerity. The Arabic language leans heavily on proverbs and ritualised words (Wolfson, 1981). Pragmatic strategies need an understanding of the contrasts between L1 and L2 language forms. When it comes to English modal words like "can" and "could," it has been shown that Czech speakers do not understand that they are expressing a request, while Japanese people do not understand the imperative power of the conditional form "would." For a good speech act performance, Kasper (1984, p.3) advocated a "top-down processing way." There are off-linguistic and cultural limitations on NS's choice of speech act, and learners must know how to utter this speech act in line with L2 sociocultural norms in order to decide this.

1.2.6.2 Conveying and interpreting meaning. Grice's (1975) explanation of the distinction between sentence and speaker meaning was self-evident. While the former relates to the propositional meaning of the utterance, the latter to the communicated meaning transmitted through the utterance's surface-level linguistic forms. Being pragmatically competent means bridging the divide between sentence and speaker meaning, tying the proper interpretations together. Inferencing is the process through which the hearer interprets the utterance. A process of talk exchange between interlocutors is governed by a set of universal laws and mechanisms known as the Cooperative Principle, in which cooperation is of considerable importance. That is, interlocutors should cooperate and communicate well in order to be understood throughout a discussion. Grice's Cooperative Principle mechanism and its maxims (Quantity, Quality, Relation, and Manner) are crucial to generating meaning beyond the semantic content of the statements said. While many scholars believe that maxims are universal, they are not universally applied across cultures.

It is worth mentioning here Bouton's (1994) observation that foreign learners may grasp the identical maxims as native speakers but reach radically different inferences due to their contrasting cultural backgrounds. Cultural differences result in divergent value systems and practices. In a similar vein, Carrel (1984) demonstrated that while some inferences are problematic for learners to comprehend in conversation, learners can quickly draw inferences from semantically positive predicates than from prepositions, which is why the ability to infer and comprehend non-literal meaning is a facet of pragmatic competence.

1.2.6.3 Performing politeness functions. The choice of linguistic directness, for example, regarding L2 norms is crucially significant for pragmatic competence because politeness, through Brown and Levinson (1992), takes as gospel that politeness principles are universal, flow from social rationale. It is worth noting that indirectness in conversation reduces the hearer's imposition as it affords more optionality and negotiability (Leech, 1983). Howbeit, this might differ continuously germane to culture and language. By illustration, indirectness in Greek social norms is highly appreciated in interaction than in the American one, which influences the speech acts produced by Greek's learners of English (Blum-Kulka, 1982, 1987). However, more directness in politeness is sought after by German speakers than Americans when requesting (House & Kasper, 1981). Other social features intervene to make differences in perceiving and then interpreting polite behaviour in different cultures; power, social distance, and status, all affect the level of directness in the production of many face-threatening acts as appeared in many studies as such (Blum-Kulka,1985; Ervin -Trip,1976) and (Harlow,1990). Those concepts will be explained in detail in the coming section.

1.2.6.4 Performing discourse functions. One of the crucial abilities of a foreign language learner is to produce comprehensive and coherent discourse in real-life situations. Blum-Kulka (1997) points toward "a full pragmatic account would need to consider the various linguistic and paralinguistic signals by which both participants encode and interpret each other's utterances" (p.49). In that, it is most behooveful for learners to be aware of discourse differences between the target language and the mother tongue and use a line-up of utterances to communicate their intentions properly.

One of these abilities is to know how to enter into and end a discourse in the target language, for instance, without being influenced by L1 as conversation closing is effectuated generally in conventional ways. Those conventions vary across cultures and are essential for pragmatic failure (Hung, 2002). Advanced American learners of Kiswahili in Tanzania, although they can engage successfully in conversation openings and closings still, cannot reopen a closing after goodbyes as in their L1 culture; goodbyes are terminal exchanges (Omar, 1992, 1993). In a study conducted by Jaworski (1994), Polish English learners fail to perceive greetings' formulaic nature, interpreted as requests for information. Identically, German English learners fail to interpret those questions about current situations as preparatory moves for inviting.

One important aspect of discourse pragmatics is using discourse markers appropriately. The Spanish learners of English, for instance, would usually use fillers like "you know" and "Uhm" more than NSs do to maintain their speaking turn as in the Spanish language L1. In a nutshell, foreign language learners need to have the ability to use L2 everyday routines on habitual rather than on conscious-processing level (Wildner-Bassett, 1994) as they are bearers of cultural meanings and have to be used culturally appropriate.

1.2.7 Speech Acts. By the early twentieth century, several philosophers, including G.E. Moor and Bertrand Russell, were much more interested in the relationship between language and philosophy. Moor favoured what he refers to as "common sense language." On the other hand, Russell considered that "everyday language is somehow deficient or defective, a somewhat debased vehicle full of ambiguities and imprecision and contradictions" (Thomas, 1995, p.29). As a result, their goal was to eliminate flaws and illogicalities to produce an ideal language with intelligible phrases that could be empirically analysed and tested.

On the other hand, Austin said that rather than attempting to perfect the language in use, it is preferable to study it in its current state and learn how its users interact with it. It is a reality that language users communicate efficiently and effectively in their daily lives. He expresses his support for ordinary language philosophy through this position. Calculating the amount of language used is not always informative; most utterances result in unintended consequences. Austin felt that when language users utilise language, they verbally and physically act and do activities. His Oxford student, the American philosopher Searle, has corrected, clarified, and straightened out his beliefs.

Indeed, Austin desired to convey the idea that "uttering a sentence involves, or is a component of, the action inside the context of social institutions and customs." "Saying is doing," or "words are deeds," as a slogan states (Huang, 2015a, p. 93). These notions ran counter to the prevalent descriptive fallacy, which conceded that language's only perceptively relevant role is to make true or false statements. The latter was a prevalent school of thought that held that "unless a sentence can be verified (i.e., examined for its truth or untruth) in principle, it is strictly meaningless." (Levinson, 1983; as cited in Huang 2015, p. 94). This is because Austin demonstrated that specific everyday English sentences are not utilised to form statements and thus cannot be regarded as accurate or incorrect, as in the following example:

a. Good morning.
b. Could you kindly park the car in the garage?

Additionally, he adds to what has already been said; some declarative phrases resist truth-conditional analysis in ordinary language. The purpose of these utterances is not so much to say as it is to do. He demonstrated in his lecture "how to do things with words" how the majority of utterances in real-world settings do not have truth conditions, as truth-conditional semantics asserts; they are actions. These utterances combine descriptive and persuasive elements, and when used appropriately, they are not descriptors but rather presentations of an act (Austin, 1946, as cited in Sbisa, 2009). To put it succinctly, speech is not merely a tool for describing the world around us for Austin; it is also a mode of action. Communication is not simply the exchange of information between individuals but rather the meaningful and cooperative behaviour of participants.

Austin (1946) thus distinguishes between what he refers to as constatives, which are classical statements that are used to describe an event, process, or state of affairs and can be analysed as true or false; and performatives, which can be analysed in terms of the act uttered in a given context and have no truth conditions, but do not imply that they are meaningless. As Austin defined them, performatives are "a type of utterance that appears to be a statement and, grammatically, would be classified as a statement that is not nonsensical but is neither true nor false." (Austin, 1976, p.235). For him, truth-value does not appear to play a significant role. However, making an utterance entails doing an action, as illustrated in the following examples:

a. I assure you that I will return tomorrow.
b. Please accept my apologies.
c. I am willing to wager $10 that it will not rain in San Diego tomorrow. (Norrit & Bubliz, 2011)
d. I guarantee that I will meet you at the airport" (Brown, 2006, p.193).

Performatives are the minor communication units or acts, such as making comments, inquiring, issuing commands, or describing (Searle & Kiefer, 1980). Agents make utterances to influence the hearer's beliefs and intentions. They are declarative phrases that, when used appropriately, are not reports or descriptions of an act but rather performances of an act (Austin, 1946, as cited in Sbisa, 2009, p.230). To be acceptable and successful, the performative and later the speech act, which Searle (1969) characterised as "the fundamental or smallest units of linguistic communication" (p.16), must be provided in an appropriate situation. Levinson (1997, as cited in Mey, 1993, 2004, p.95) affirmed that "All speech is situated speech; a speech act is never just an act of speech we utter, are entirely dependent on the context of the situation in which such acts are produced." As such, the speaker must fulfil the circumstances necessary for its execution; otherwise, the utterance is "unhappy, void, or infelicitous" (Austin 1974, p.14 as cited in Mey, 2004). These are referred to as "Felicity Conditions." These circumstances can be explained using the following straightforward example from Austin (1974, as referenced in Mey, 2004, p.96):

I hereby pronounce this person dead.

This speech act cannot be acceptable or appropriate unless the speaker is a doctor pronouncing the death of a person after a traffic accident officially, for instance, or a child playing, perhaps, and pronouncing his opponent in the game dead.

Austin (1962 p.14-15 as cited in Thomas, 1995 p.37) specified his felicity conditions this way

A.1. There must be a conventional procedure having a conventional effect,

2. The circumstances and persons must be appropriate.

B. The procedure must be executed (i) correctly (ii) completely.

C. Often:

1. The persons must have the requisite thoughts, feelings and intentions.
2. If consequent conduct is specified, then the relevant parties must do it.

It is worth noting here that speech acts are utterances that do not only have sense but also have force or illocutionary force, due to this, Austin came with the following distinction:

A. Locution is the actual words uttered.
B. Illocution is the force or intention behind the words.
C. Per locution is the effect of the illocution on the hearer. (Thomas, 1995, p.49)

According to the utterances' functions, Austin (1962, as cited in Schauer, 2019, p.18) brought in five categories that utterances could be assigned:

1. Verdictives:

- Typified by the giving of a verdict.
- Examples: estimating, appraising.

2. Executives:

- Exercising of powers, rights, or influence.
- Examples: advising, ordering, warning.

3. Commissives:

Typified by promising or otherwise undertaking, they commit you to do something—examples: promises, declaring an intention.

4. Behabitives:

- A miscellaneous group […] have [ing] to do with attitudes and social behaviour •
- Examples apologizing, congratulating, cursing

5. Expositives:

- Difficult to define – they make plain how our utterances fit into the course of argument or a conversation, how we are using words.
- Examples: “I argue”, “I assume”, “I illustrate” (p.18)

Though Austin’s tripart distinction of speech acts and the categorization framework Searle’s “framework has been the most influential” (Holtgrave, 2002 as cited in Schauer, 2019, p.18):

Searle (1999, pp. 148–149) also distinguishes five speech act categories:

1. Assertives: - Commit the hearer to the truth of the proposition.
   - Examples: statements, descriptions, classifications
2. Directives: -Try to get the hearer to behave in such a way as to make his behaviour match the propositional content of the directive
   - Examples: commands, requests, orders 3.
3. Commissives: - Commitment by the speaker to undertake the course of action represented in the propositional content
   - Examples: promises, vows, contracts
4. Expressives: - Express the sincerity condition of the speech act
   - Examples: apologies, thanks,
5. Declarations (declaratives) - Bring about a change in the world by representing it as having been changed

- Examples: making someone redundant, excommunicating, and nominating a candidate.

1.2.7.1 Directive speech acts. They are speech acts that impose some kind of action on the hearer; directives can be orders, requests, commands, warning, or advice, as maintained by Ellis (1992). These are utterances regarded as attempts on the speaker's part to get the hearer to perform some kind of action or cessation of action. A directive is formed out of a verb, an object, and a requested task performed by the speaker and the hearer, as Flor and Juan (2010) explained. This act displays a relationship between the speaker and the hearer wherein the speaker intends to make his interlocutor do something. Directives are primarily used in classrooms by teachers compared to declaratives and expressives; among them, requests attracted the attention of many researchers.

1.2.7.1.1 Requests. A request is the speech act through which the speaker asks the hearer to do something as attested by Jorda (2008) "request speech acts are formed by the speaker to engage the hearer or reader in some future course of action that coincides with the speakers' goal. This implies that the speaker directs the hearer when producing requests. Requests are constantly used more than any other speech act in daily life interaction, and they are significant for foreign learners. They are used in various contexts (To use to ask for information, for goods...). Additionally, "Requests involve a high number of different desired actions, as also varying degrees of illocutionary force" (Schauher, 2009, p.17)

In the same line of thought, Trosborg (1995) considers a request as an illocutionary act whereby a speaker (a requester) conveys to a hearer (requestee) that he or she wants the requestee to perform an act which is for the benefit of the speaker" (p.186). Therefore, a request can be a modest attempt on the speaker's part to invite someone to do something, and it can also be a fierce attempt to insist on someone to do it (Searl, 1972, as cited in Jorda Pillar, 2005). This makes the hearer feel a threat and may consider it an intrusion into his territory as it holds an impositive nature. For that reason, there is an excellent need for indirect requests as requesting is a face-threatening act, and it threatens the speaker's negative face. The face is defined by Brown &Levinson (1987) as "the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself. "

The following is an example introduced by Grice (1975) to explain how important to use indirect strategies or conventionally indirect formulations when making requests.

a. Can you close the door?

"a" is an utterance that entails two meanings, one "literal" that is about the question of whether the hearer is able to close the door, and"the implicated meaning", which is about the speaker's request to the hearer to close the door. Those two meanings give the hearer the freedom of choice as it implies the question about the hearer's ability to close the door and respond to their request. So, the hearer is not obliged to perform the requested action because his negative face is preserved. This is the aim behind using indirect strategies rather than more direct ones that enunciate an imposing force. Not only that, Searle (1975) insisted on the fact that indirect speech acts have more than one meaning or illocutionary force.

Dascal (1983) went on to say that indirect speech acts are "costly and risky and require more processing time by both speaker and listener, it presupposes the mastery, by both, of a rather complex set of devices and the sharing of mini specific assumptions, and so consequently it increases the risk of misunderstanding" (p.158). Though it is risky and costly, indirect acts are best liked when there is no alternative for the speaker to express it or when the speaker needs to say something yet abjuring responsibility for what is said. In addition to some cases, it is favoured when the surrounding circumstances inhibit the speaker from saying something directly. He recourses to indirectness, which is face-saving most times (Salgado, 2015).

1.2.7.1.2 Indirectness. Indirectness is any communicative meaning that is not isomorphic with sentence meaning (Holtgrave, 1997p.626), or it is "a mismatch between expressive meaning and implied meaning as (Thomas, 1983 p.119) the concept of indirectness is traced back to

Austin’s work (1962), Searle’s speech acts (1975) and Grice’s conversational implicature (1975), they all wanted to highlight the importance of considering utterances as functional entities. From this standard pragmatic view, in indirect speech, “the speaker communicates the hearer more than he/she actually says, by way of relying on their mutually shared background information (Searle, 1975, p. 60). Brown and Levinson considered indirectness as any communicative behaviour that conveys something more than or different from what it literally means (1987, p. 134). They considered that the indirect meaning is an alternative one, not necessarily an additional one. The indirect meaning is not an additional meaning added to the literal one but rather an alternative one.

A recent review of Pink (2007) confirmed what has been stated above. He considered directness as “the phenomenon in which speakers say something they do not literally mean, knowing that the hearer will interpret it as intended.” (2007, p.437). Therefore, literal meaning exists, but the indirect meaning lies in the speaker's intentions. Those intentions are determined previously by judgments of the shared knowledge between both sides of the conversation, speaker and hearer. Meaning has to be conventional so that the speaker and the hearer can know what is intended. To put it concisely, indirectness means utilising phrases and sentences with indubitable contextual meanings different from conventional ones (Brown &Levinson, 1978, 1987). For all intents and purposes, indirectness helps the speaker say what they mean but politely.

Indirectness within politeness and pragmatic research is usually dealt with relevance to requests and designated as “the conventional means with English that enable speakers to request something whilst allowing the hearer to refuse the request politely” (Pink, 2007p.39). Within the speech act of requesting indirectness is a politeness strategy. Like in, would you? Could you? Which are considered conventional indirect strategies?

Indirectness is possible and favoured in suggestions, tentative promises, and contradicting opinions. However, there is more focus on requests in cross-cultural studies as a manifestation of indirectness. Some studies are worth noting, like that of Ogiermann (2009), where a comparison between indirect requests in English and German was the focus. Sifianou (1993,2008) investigated Greek off record requests and the comparison requests and the CCSARP study, a cross-cultural study that cross-examined apologies and only requests in terms of indirectness in five languages; English, Russian, Hebrew, Danish, Angel.

Since being polite involves usually being indirect, which is always motivated by the desire to be polite, there are many viewpoints concerning the relation between the two concepts. Brown and Levinson considered indirectness as a part of politeness. However, Blum-Kulka (1987) believed that the two concepts are connected but in parallel dimensions. Leech (1983) argued that since “indirect illocutions tend to be more polite, indirectness consistently related to politeness” (p.108). So, he suggested that increasing the degree of politeness can be achieved only by using more indirect illocutions.

1.2.7.1.3 Types of requests. As suggested by Brown and Levinson (1987 p.68-17). There are three types of requests for doing a face-threatening act.

1. On record without redress. (Direct request.) E.g., open the window.
2. On record with the redress (conventionally indirect requests. E.g., would you mind opening the window, please?
3. Off record, e.g. it’s hot in here.

   As for the on record, it is used; the speaker has only one explicitly identifiable intention. However, when the speaker has more than one explicitly identifiable intention, he/she goes off record. This means that the direct request or utterance has one literal meaning while; the indirect request has a literal meaning and implied meaning; the latter is commensurate with the intended meaning and the implied meaning, as in Give me an aspirin.

When the speaker requests for an aspirin, oppositely, conventionally indirect requests have the literal meaning and the implied meaning. In an example like, “can you give me an aspirin" It is pretty clear that the speaker is no more asking to know about the ability of the hearer to provide him/her with aspirin but rather a request to get an aspirin. Such conventions link specific linguistic items with specific, pragmatic functions (Fukushima (2003, p.70). The hearer is left with certain freedom with two meanings, free from imposition. In some cases, the speaker supplies the hearer with some information to get the hearer to react depending on the inferred meaning, which is tightly related to the mutual knowledge between the speaker and the hearer. That is why indirectness is risky; indirect utterances have an open-ended interpretation.

Blum Kulka et al. (1987, p. 42, a cited in Fukushima, 2003) try to make the distinction of conventional from non-conventional indirectness "for conventional indirectness, conventions of propositional content, meaning and linguistic form combined to signal requestive form, non-conventional indirectness, on the other hand, is in principle open-ended in terms of propositional content and linguistic form, as well as pragmatic force. Non-conventional indirectness is associated mainly with ambiguity. The speaker's meaning level displays a multiplicity of meanings and tends to be non-specific. Furthermore, Fukushima (2003) presented the ins and outs of the off-record request, saying that the speaker indeed does not produce explicit actions with no explicit reference to the hearer or specific description of the action to people format. So, the literal meaning does not match the implied meaning, and it is up to the hearer to infer to reach the intended meaning, which can be one or more. In that case, the hearer's face is not threatened as well as the face of the speaker whatever the interpretation of the hearer.

For the present study, we agree with Fukushima that payoff for direct requests, conventionally and non-conventionally indirect requests are as follows:

- Direct requests: efficacy -explicitness.
- Conventional indirect requests: paying respect to the hearer without leaving him or her impeded.

- Off-record or hints: removing the speaker from the potential to be imposing

1.3 A Glimpse on Politeness

While it is evident that learning a new language requires more than only memorising grammar rules in order to generate grammatically correct sentences in a class, it is equally vital to produce socially acceptable and error-free utterances. Students of a foreign language or culture should become well-versed in the norms that regulate how they think and communicate. Language learners need to be aware of cultural conventions that regulate social interactions in communicative contexts and know how to put those standards into practice when speaking the language, they have acquired.

Educators and students of the English language must be aware of the English language's social and cultural conventions, values, and usage to avoid misunderstandings. Politeness is something that both teachers and students should consider throughout the teaching-learning process because of the conservative nature of the English people, mainly the British. This section contains extra content on politeness as it pertains to verbal communication. It then changes attention to numerous theoretical perspectives on this perplexing subject to familiarise oneself with many points of view on this cryptic idea. Brown and Levinson's varied strategies will be highlighted in this section, as they are crucial to the current investigation.

1.3.1 Some Definitions. As a critical concept in interpersonal Communication, politeness has been researched concerning politeness, resulting in confusion and misconceptions. The following is a bunch of definitions of this concept. In a broader sense, "politeness is a form of communicative behaviour found very general in human languages and among human cultures"(Leech, 2014a). Likewise, Brown and Levinson (1987) consider politeness a universal phenomenon of human society and a fundamental aspect of social interaction, very influential in constructing and preserving social relationships (Goffman, 1967 as cited in Huang, 2017). Politeness means speaking politely or behaving in a manner that values the other person and not oneself (Leech, 2004). In the same token, Gu (1990, as cited in Leech, 2014), speaking about politeness, views this concept as humbling oneself and showing respect to others. Researchers in the definitions mentioned above agreed that being polite means valuing others and showing them respect in interpersonal interaction.

In other cases, politeness is an observable behaviour where certain behaviours are desirable and supported in certain situations (Brown and Levinson, 1978 as cited in Song, 2012). It varies from one society to another; as stated in Leech's example, ' bowing' and 'clapping' vary from one society to another. The latter referred to a qualified musician and addressed "you are great". Reciprocally, the musician lowers himself to mean that s/he accepts the audience applause (Leech, 2014a). From another perspective, Lakoff (1990, as cited in Leech, 2014a) saw politeness as "A system of interpersonal relations designed to facilitate interaction by minimising the potential for conflict and confrontation inherent in all human interchange "(p.34).

In a similar view, Kasper et al. (1990, as cited in Savic, 2014), explained politeness, notating: "Communication is seen as a fundamentally dangerous and antagonistic endeavour, while politeness is viewed as a set of strategies necessary in order to prevent conflict in society, i.e., to facilitate "smooth communication ". Brown adds (Huang, 2017): "Politeness in Communication goes right to the heart of social life and interaction; indeed, it is probably a precondition for human cooperation in general. Language use is a crucial arena for expressing and negotiating such cooperation, and politeness is the feature of language use that reveals the nature of human sociality as expressed in speech" (p.384)

In winding up, politeness has never been genetically transmitted, but instead, it is socially constructed to maintain social relationships by minimizing the potential for conflict and confrontation. The term "polite" in the English language derives from Late Medieval Latin "politus" during the fifteenth century or polished person. In the seventeenth century, the person considered polite had "refined courteous manners" and must belong to the upper classes. During the Middle Ages, the upper classes' leaders influenced Western feudal knights. The latter distinguished themselves with a set of courtesy values, such as loyalty and reciprocal trust (Márquez-Reiter, 2000a). These values were to be followed at court and then adopted by other members of different classes. "The etiquette of this courteous behaviour became a good social-behavioural, a model to be aspired to by the rest of the social classes "(Márquez-Reiter, 2000a).

Thenceforth, the upper classes focused on establishing a civilized society during the renaissance period. In that, 'civility' and 'courtoisie' went hand in hand by refining social manners and social tact and maintaining and balancing social hierarchy. For this, social distance, reciprocal obligations, and duties between higher and lower need to be figured out (Márquez-Reiter, 2000b). To rephrase it, the intent at that time has been to regulate interpersonal relationships in society. Werkhofer (1992) explicated, "The power of a symbolic medium that, being used and shaped in acts of individual speakers, also represents social standards of how to behave or of what kind of conduct is considered just right" (p.156). As social beings, we interact to express, communicate and negotiate using several ways from a shared standard. This latter is a collective one common to all members of a particular group. Politeness, in sooth, is manifested in diverse ways through communicative acts.

The following diagram is provided by Haverkate (1987, as cited in Márquez-Reiter, 2000b), in which non-communicative politeness refers to acts that are "instrumentally realized" as leaving a seat to an old person in a bus. Communicative politeness, however, can be linguistic or non-linguistic. The latter can be paralinguistic or non-paralinguistic. The former is expressed by gestures accompanied by verbal signs touching the hat and saying "morning". In contrast, non-paralinguistic politeness is expressed through gestures with no verbal signs, like moving one's head to follow what the other person is saying. Additionally, linguistic politeness consists of meta-linguistic and non-meta-linguistic acts. The former type is used to avoid social friction or any social tension and help maintain social contact. In reverse, the second type is understood by linguistic politeness, which is our primary concern in this study.

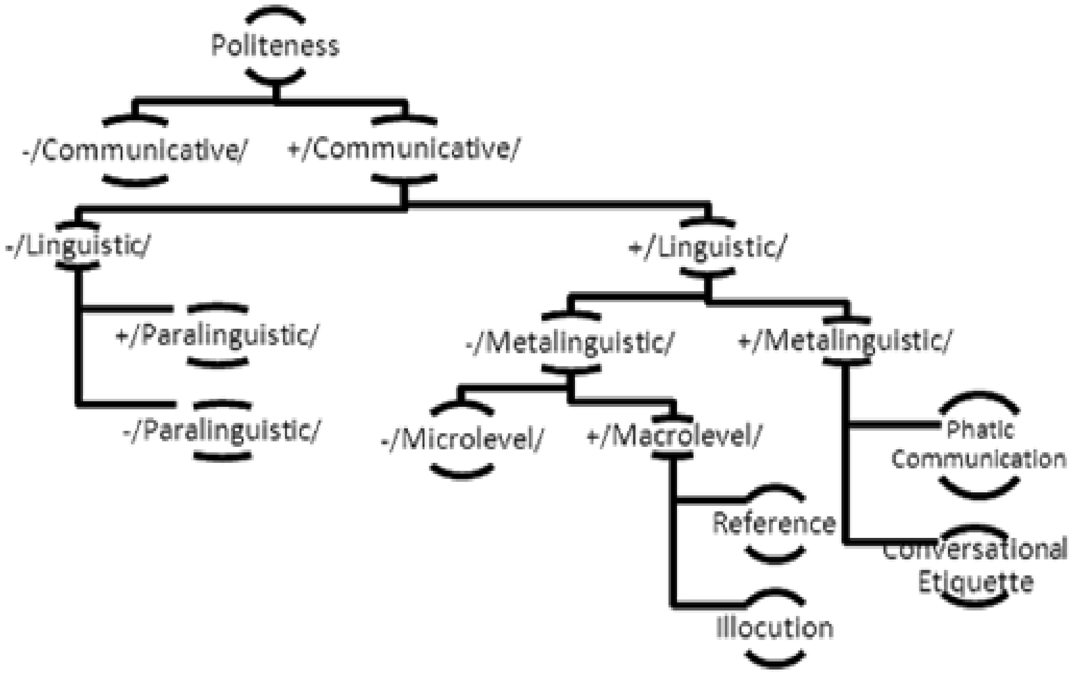

Figure 1. Different manifestations of Politeness (from DOI:10.5923/j.linguistics.20130202.02)

Note. The figure explains the different manifestations of politeness.

1.3.2 Politeness theories. Since the 1970s, politeness has brought about many studies and researchers as a central topic in pragmatics. These studies can be classified into three groups: the conversational maxim perspective, the face-saving view, and the social norm theory. The first generation of politeness studies or the traditional view (Terkourafi, 2005) is the first attempt to formalize politeness language behaviour into a theory (Song, 2012). It considers the politeness phenomenon due to the dominant social principles and maxims. However, the second generation has adopted the face-saving perspective, first introduced by Brown and Levinson (1978). This view has had a portentous effect under the proposed theories and the politeness behaviour analysis. All community members seek to save face to maintain their self-esteem, which is the main reason for polite speech acts. Lastly, the most recent approach has adopted the social norm perspective (Eelen, 2001; Mills, 2003; Watts, 2003). Although accepting the face-saving view, this approach focuses mainly on the socio-cultural factors and considers the effect of the cultural differences on the choice of polite acts. In the following lines, each view will be examined in some detail.

1.3.2.1 Politeness as a conversation maxim. This view is based on the Gricean-cooperative Principle (CP), which has been adopted and elaborated on later on by Lakoff (1973) and Leech (1983). Grice acknowledges that "All the conversations are oriented to a cooperative effort of the interactants, meaning that the interactants should make their conversational contribution as required by the accepted purpose or direction of the conversation they are engaged". The cooperative principle entails four maxims: quality, quantity, relation, and manner. The conversation, for Grice," should be informative as required, be true in quality, be relevant, and be perspicuous" (Song, 2012) in that, this author intends an ideal exchange of conversation, as Grice takes for granted that the primary purpose of a conversation is the maximally effective exchange of information (Turner,2009). Many researchers criticize him (Keenan 1976; Eades, 1982; Hymes, 1986; Sifianou, 1992). They believe that language does not always aim at a maximally effective communication exchange in real-life situations. Besides, Hymes (1986) notated that "any community will have some orientations to the dimension of quality (truthfulness), of quantity (informativeness), of relevance, of manner (clarity)" in that the universality of the maxims is still debated.

Judging from Grice Cooperative Principle, Lakoff (1973), considered by Eelen (2001) as the mother of modern politeness theory, believed that the CP and the maxims are rarely followed in command. Therefore, she comes with the politeness rules to explain communication regarding the social factors that intervene, elucidating that "when clarity conflicts with politeness in most cases, politeness supersedes. It is considered more important in a conversation to avoid offence than to achieve clarity because the ultimate aim of politeness is to avoid offence and conflict; indirectness is to help achieve that end (Song, 2012). Hence, she suggested three rules: Do not impose –Give options –Make the addressee feel good. Later on, she recommended three other different pragmatic rules of Politeness: Distance-Deference and Camaraderie, and they have various degrees of importance according to the culture. European cultures, for instance, consider formality; however, Asian cultures focus more on deference, yet American culture Favours camaraderie and cultural variation. Brown (1978) believed that this theory needs to be more concerned with social relationships and related interactants.

Leech (1983), on his part, provides a detailed study on politeness in terms of principle and maxims. He maintained that politeness is interpersonal rhetoric composed of Grice's cooperative principle, Leech's politeness principles, and the irony principle. Notably, the Leech politeness principle limns "The social equilibrium and the friendly relations enable us to assume that our interlocutors are cooperative in the first place" (Leech, 1983, p.82). His theory involves six maxims: tact, generosity, approbation, modesty, agreement, and sympathy. The tact maxim minimizes cost and maximizes the benefit to others and can be useful in the case of impositive like requesting, commanding, or ordering and Commissives like promising or offerings. However, the generosity maxim minimizes benefits to the speaker. The approbation maxim maximizes others' dispraises, which is only appropriate for expressive speech acts, such as thanking, blaming, praising, and assertively, like complaining and boasting.

Moreover, the modesty maxim minimizes praise to the speaker. The agreement maximizes disagreement and maximizes agreement between self and others, and it is applicable in assertive. At last, the sympathy maxim minimizes antipathy and maximizes sympathy between self and others.

Leech (1983) incorporated to the scales mentioned above three other pragmatic ones noted as follows:

- The cost-benefit scale estimates the cost or benefit of the proposed action A to S or H.
- The optionality scale on which illocutions are ordered according to the speaker's amount of choice to the hearer.

- From the speakers' point of view, the indirectness scale on which illocutions are ordered with respect to the length of the path (in terms of means-ends analysis) connecting the illocutionary act to its illocutionary goal.

More outstandingly, he introduced two other scales that are incredibly conformant to politeness: the authority scale and social distance scale. The former measures the degree of distance in terms of one participant's power, but the second measures solidarity or social distance.

Further, Leech (1983) distinguished between "Absolute" Politeness that registers the degree of politeness in terms of the Lexis grammatical form and "Relative" Politeness, which is dependent on the context or situation. Leech's politeness principle has been criticized for two reasons: its hardness to apply to actual language utterances and to test empirically. This model is entirely inapplicable in practice since it is far too theoretical to actual language usage and too abstract to account for the common-sense notion of politeness, or some notion, which fits into a general theory (Watts, 1992; Ide, 2005, & Ehrlich, 2011). Even though Lakoff and Leech study politeness from a pragmatic perspective, their theories are still not grounded in a social theory, which Brown and Levinson try to do. They have sought to link politeness theory and a social theory, as explained in the following.

1.3.2.2 The face-saving view. Indeed, it is impossible to talk about politeness without referring to Brown and Levinson's theory (Song, 2012), who agree that the final aim of politeness is avoiding conflict, and this can be only by way of rationality and face. Brown and Levinson introduced three universal assumptions of politeness in speech acts: -All individuals have faced as self –esteem. All speech acts have the potential to threaten a speaker's face.

That is, native speakers adopt various linguistic strategies to mitigate the effects of such threats (Song, 2012). According to Brown and Levinson (1987), face and rationality are two components of politeness in which the speaker must rationally choose the right strategy to maintain his or her face. When he does so, he is the Model Person (MP), who is defined as follows: "Model Person (MP) is a wilful fluent speaker of a natural language, further endowed with two special properties: rationality and face."(p.58) Thus, to be polite, the speaker must make a rational choice as a social member on which strategy to employ in order to prevent conflict and save face. Brown defines face as "the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself" (1978, p.66). "It is best understood as an individual's sense of self-worth or self-image. This image can be damaged, maintained, or enhanced through interaction (Thomas, 1995, p.169).

The face is compassionate in nature, allowing for emotional investment, maintenance, or loss. Yu (2003 as cited in Song, 2012) illustrated this point with a request speech act, in which "the speaker's face may be threatened by fear of causing the hearer's loss of face or showing the speaker's own need; on the other hand, the hearer's face may be threatened by viewing a request as the speaker's display of power or an impingement to the hearer's freedom of action" (p.27). The speaker's desire to save face urges him to choose what linguistic form to utter rationally. They distinguish between positive face, which refers to the person's positive and consistent self-image and desire to be accepted as a group member and be valued by other members. In contrast, the freedom from imposition and the willingness to act without being impeded is what they call a negative face. What is significant in this theory is that three social variables were introduced, and they are the basis on which the speaker calculates the weightiness of the speech act. These are:

1. The power(P): between the speaker and the hearer
2. The social distance (D): between them.
3. The FTA's imposition (R) of the FTA within a particular culture. Hence, the formula for computing the weightiness of speech act is as follows: Wx = D (S, H) +P (S, H) +Rx

   X: stands for the speech act.

   S: stands for the speaker.

H: stands for the hearer.

The speech act that is being targeted is the Face-Threatening Act. The latter implies that certain acts are innately threatening faces, specifically those that run counter to the addressee's and speaker's desires (Brown and Levinson, 1987 as cited in Savic, 2014). It is an illocutionary act that has the potential to damage not only the hearer's negative face but also the speaker's positive face (Thomas, 1995). Brown and Levinson proposed a set of strategies for the speaker to choose from in order to avoid, eliminate, or minimise such a face-threatening act. These strategies are depicted in Figure2.

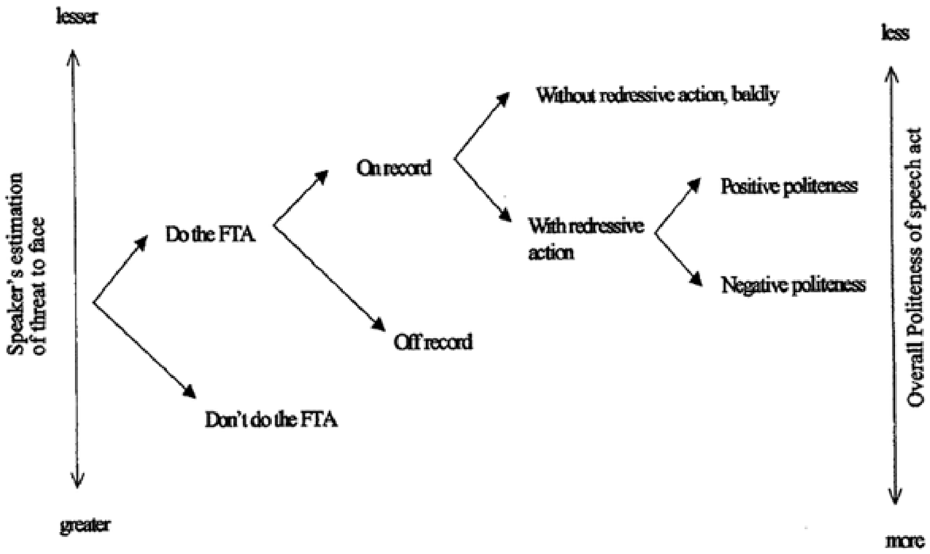

Figure 2. Possible strategies for avoiding FTAs(from https://linguisticapragensia.ff.cuni.cz/wp-content/uploads/sites/12/2017/01/ales_klegr_67-73.pdf.

Note: The figure shows Brown and Levinson's strategies for avoiding an FTA

"On-record" and "off-record" differ in the communicative intention whether it is clear to the hearer or whether there are other unambiguously attributable intentions, i.e., the former concerns more direct acts. However, the latter refers to acts that are done with modifications or added to saving face. The "bold on" is the most direct strategy for a considerable risk of face threats as in any direct request. Positive politeness is another strategy used with endearment to inflate the hearer's positive face. However, negative politeness is a set of strategies concerned with the speaker's desire or hearer to have freedom of action; the speaker indirectly conveys his/her message. Thence, positive politeness is "approach based", yet negative politeness is "avoidance based" (Brown & Levinson, 1978). An off-record strategy is requisite when the speaker wants to do an FTA yet avoid its responsibilities. An off-record gives the hearer the freedom to interpret it by making some inferences to get the real intention. The present study adopts Brown and Levinson’s model as it is a well-articulated one considering a broader view of social behaviour with a clear definition of the concept of face and, more importantly, the focus on what they called FTAs that make our concern in the present investigation.

1.3.2.3 The conversational-contract view. This approach to politeness is introduced by Fraser (1975) and Fraser and Nolen (1981) and then elaborated by Fraser in (1990) as cited by (Fukushima 2003). Fraser explicated the conversational-contract view in terms of rights and obligations that may change over time. The following lines make it more explicit: “We can begin with the recognition that upon entering into a given conversation, each party brings an understanding of some initial set of rights and obligations that will determine, at least for the initial states, what the participants can expect from the other(s). Over time, or because of change in the context, there is always the possibility of negotiating the conversational contract: the two parties may readjust just what rights and obligations they hold towards each other” (p.47).

Nonetheless, Fukushima (2003) revealed that Thomas (1995) criticized this view which finds "sketchy" compared to practice besides in the absence of a concrete methodology to regulate how changes in rights and obligations occur.

1.2.3.4 Politeness strategies. The following section discusses Brown and Levinson's suggested FTA strategies since they are relevant to the current study. It is concerned with the performance of appropriate FTAs, more precisely 'a request'. The first step is to determine whether or not to perform an FTA; if so, the speaker has four strategies at his or her disposal;

on-record FTA without redressive action, on-record FTA with positive politeness, on-record FTA with negative politeness, and one set of "off-record" strategies. However, when the speaker perceives a greater threat to his or her face, the speaker opts out of the FTA.

To begin, an FTA without redress (bald-on-record) is a strategy that may be used in emergencies or highly task-oriented situations, such as when teaching someone to drive, in which the speaker is more concerned with the propositional content of the message and is less concerned with the interpersonal aspect of what is said (Thomas, 1995). Additionally, this act is possible when the speaker is aware that the FAT's overall weight is negligible or when the speaker realises that it is beneficial to the hearer. Thomas (1995) discusses further instances in which this type of strategy is preferred when the power disparity between the participants is large. For example, a senior rating speaking to a lower-ranking prisoner at naval detention, 'You are to obey all orders given to you by any member of the remand wing personnel..' (p. 170).

Second, the purpose of using this FTA with redress (positive politeness) is to direct one's attention toward the hearer's positive face through the use of positive politeness. The latter "is redress oriented toward the addressee's positive face, toward his/her perennial wish that his/her desires (or the actions/acquisitions/values that come from them) be seen desirable. Redress entails partially gratifying that need by indicating that one's own desires (or at least some of them) are comparable to those of the addressee (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They provide fifteen ways for positive politeness: Take note, heed to the hearer (H) (his interests, wants, needs, goods), Make exaggerations (interest, approval, sympathy with H), Increase your interest in H, Utilize in-group identifiers Seek consensus, Avoid conflict, Assume/raise/advocate common ground, Joke, Assert or imply that speaker (S) is aware of and concerned about H's desires, Make an offer, promise, Maintain a hopeful attitude, Participate in the activity with both S and H. Provide (or solicit) justifications, Assume or make a case for reciprocity. Give gifts to H (as indicated in the accompanying chart: goods, sympathy, understanding, and cooperation).

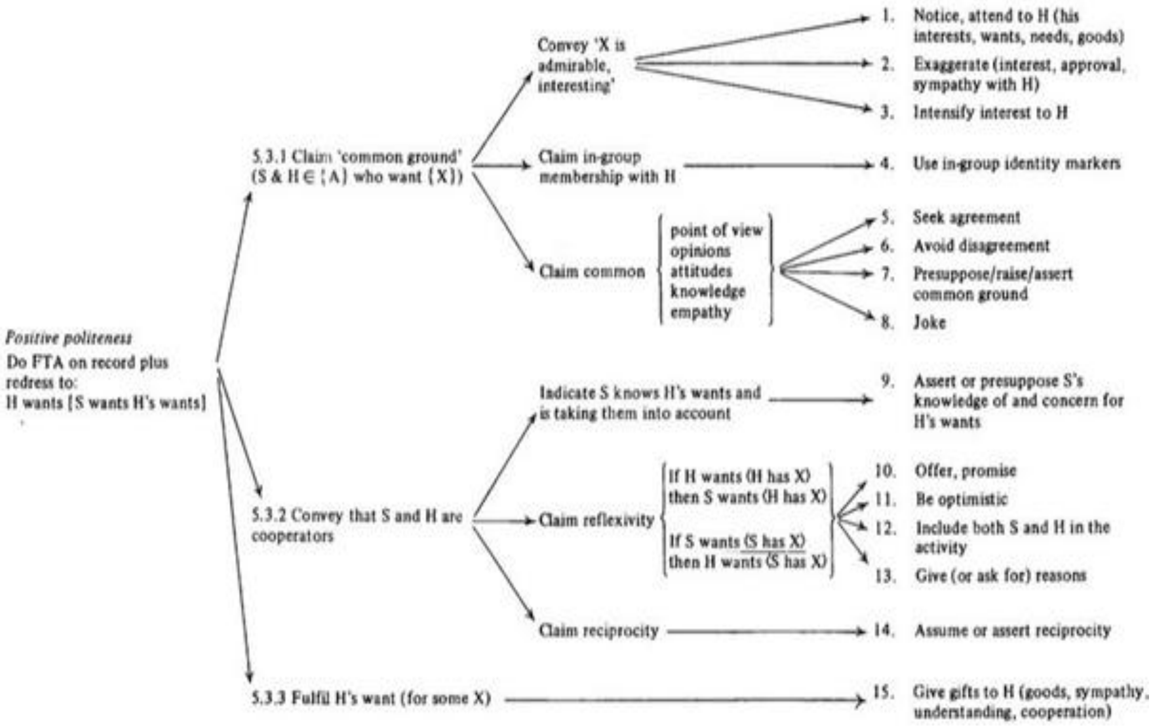

Figure 3. Chart of Strategies: Positive Politeness

Note. Adapted from *Positive politeness strategies*, by Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 102

Thirdly, this type of action is addressed to the hearer's negative face; "his want to have his freedom of action unhindered and his attention unimpeded. It is the heart of respect behaviour, just as positive, it is the heart of respect behaviour, just as positive | politeness is the kernel of 'familiar' and 'joking' behaviour" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p.129). Negative politeness is the most particularized and the most standardized set of linguistic strategies for FTA redress. They are ten strategies demonstrated in the following chart. It contains the various strategies used in this type of action. In addition to conventional indirectness as in 'We could meet,' hedges on the illocutionary force as in 'perhaps', polite pessimism (about the success of requests) and the emphasis on H's relative power that are most known and used.

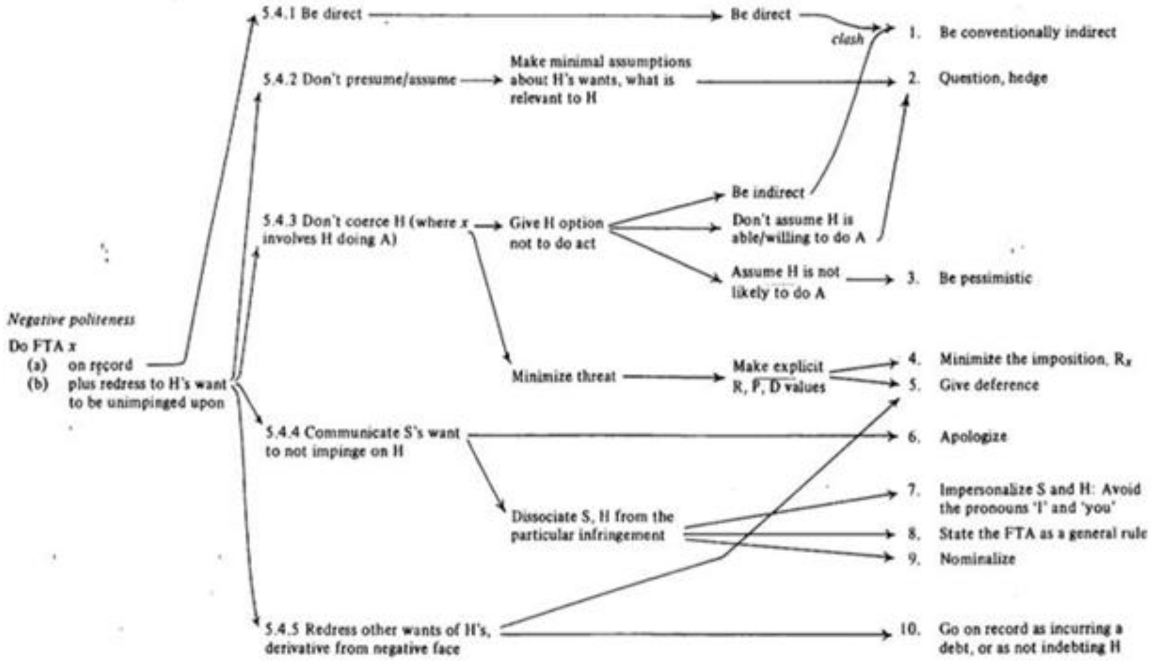

Figure 4. Chart of strategies: Negative Politeness

Note. The image shows negative politeness strategies

Fourthly, however, performing an FTA using off-record politeness is favoured when the speaker does not want to attribute one precise communicative intention to the act. "The actor leaves himself an 'out 'by providing himself with several defensible interpretations; s/he cannot be held to have committed himself to just one particular interpretation of his act" (Brown & Levinson, 1987). It is to free oneself from the responsibility of doing it. Brown and Levinson itemize fifteen strategies for performing this type of act. Through indirect utterances, the speaker wants either to be more general or different from what one means (intends to be understood). In both cases, the hearer has to make inferences to make the correct interpretation.

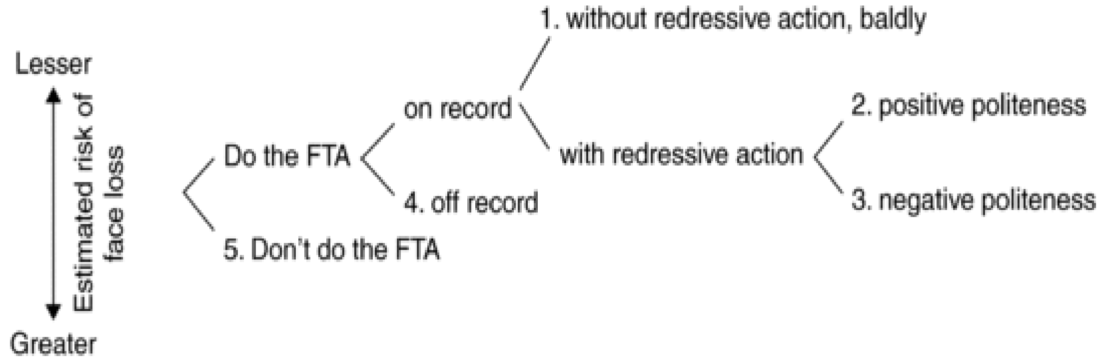

Figure 5. Chart of strategies: off-record

Note: The figure shows the off-record strategies

Lastly, the final strategy stated by Brown and Levinson is "do not perform an FTA" in situations where "something is potentially so face-threatening, that you do not say it" (Thomas, 1995), i.e., the speaker decides not to complain, for example.

Conclusion

Politeness in pragmatics is a crucial aspect of social Communication omnipresent in all sorts of conversation. The best theory to explain the fundamental and universal politeness strategies in interaction is the one introduced by Brown and Levinson. Simply because acts are well explained and can be in classrooms, the focus of any teacher of foreign languages for the aim of helping learners avoid any communication breakdown when performing the speech acts. Teachability of these pragmatic conventions as face-threatening acts like requests will be the focal point in the coming section of this chapter.

Chapter Two: Teaching Pragmatics

Introduction

This chapter summarises fundamental concepts in pragmatics instruction, the significant factors contributing to learners' pragmatic failure, and the diverse theories advocated to aid in the pragmatic improvement of EFL students. The Schmidt noticing hypothesis and the collaborative dialogue approach provide the theoretical underpinnings for the current research treatment, which targets the development of learners' production rather than only comprehension.

2.1 Pragmatics Instruction

Kasper, one of the pioneers in pragmatics instruction, expressed in her paper (1997a) her disagreement about teaching pragmatic competence as a competence, believing that learners have already acquired it in their L1. Nevertheless, it has been proved that those learners generally make a negative transfer from L1, which leads to inappropriate use of structures and strategies, resulting in misunderstandings and communication breakdown. Likewise, Gass (1996) maintained that pragmatic competence could not be taught, arguing that it can be developed in tandem with lexical and grammatical knowledge as far as learners are exposed to L2 available input. Taguchi (2010,2015), dovetailing with Takahashi (2010 a), claimed that natural exposure only could not boost L2 pragmatic development, particularly in foreign language classrooms. Learners are exposed to pragmatic features that cannot be generally noticed and the inadequate resources they get exposed to.

Taguchi (2015) contends that exposure alone to L2 leads to slow developmental pragmalinguistic knowledge even with prolonged exposure to the target language. Though learners possess knowledge of organisational precepts in conversation turn-taking and contextual factors in communication, this does not mean that they can use that pragmatic information in each situation they encounter but only when there are similarities between L1 and L2. Taguchi (2015) added that learners face "a unique challenge in their pragmatic development 'stemming from co-existence in first language L1 and L2 based pragmatic systems" (p.1).

That is why Kasper revealed that learners should be provided with opportunities to boost their pragmatic competence. Although this competence cannot be taught, she furthered "competence is a type of knowledge that learners possess, develop, acquire, use or lose. The challenge for foreign or second language teaching is whether we can arrange learning opportunities in such a way that they benefit the development of pragmatic competence in L2" (Kasper, 2007. p.1). Henceforth, the role of the pedagogical intervention is to provide learners with adequate opportunities for practice through valuable material to help them develop their L2 pragmatic competence.

In the same token, Taguchi (2010 a, 2015 b), Lee (2018) and Kim (2016) beat the drum for the necessity of instruction in the target language pragmatics. Learners are generally disadvantaged with the sparseness of the ample pragmatic input and limited chances for practice to develop the knowledge of the features of the language system without knowing how and when to use these features in real-life contexts. Along with it, Brdovi-Harlig and Dorneyei (1998) proposed that in EFL classrooms, micro-level grammatical accuracy is given precedence at the expense of macro-level pragmatic appropriateness. Though, as evinced by Crandall and Basturkmen (2004, as cited in Trosborg, 2010), an error of appropriacy on the part of the learner may have more negative results than grammatical errors. By way of illustration, "while a grammar error when performing an impositive face-threatening speech act may be seen as a language problem by native speakers, an error of appropriacy may characterize the non-native speaker as being uncooperative, or more seriously, rude and offensive" (Trosborg, 2010, p.423).

In the same fashion, Brdovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor (2003), learners of high grammatical proficiency will not necessarily show commensurate pragmatic development. They went on to explain that "maintaining a conversation in English requires a certain amount of knowledge underlying responses that prompt a speaker to continue, show understanding, give support, indicate agreement, show strong emotional response, add or correct, or ask for more information" (Brdovi-Harlig &Mahan-Taylor, 2003a, p.1). Henceforth, the language classroom is befitted to afford learners the needed input and the proper interpretation. Subtle or implied language and language features should be highlighted in the classroom to inform the learner. The difference, for instance, between speaker-oriented requests (Can I?) and hearer-oriented (Can you?) might not be quickly apparent to learners. To examine the importance given to the appropriateness of utterances in different contexts, Brdovi-Harlig and Dorneyei examined the learners and their teachers in two countries – Hungary and the United States. They realized that EFL learners and their teachers (Hungary) incessantly reckoned grammatical errors as more severe than pragmatic ones.

In contrast to English as a Second Language (ESL), learners and their teachers (USA) reckoned pragmatic errors as more serious. Preference for grammatical accuracy rather than pragmatic appropriacy is due to the prevalence of examinations as indicators of success. Moreover, pragmatic errors are not considered a priority because speakers in that context share the same L1 norms.

In a nutshell, "the language classroom is the ideal place to help learners interpret language use. Instruction can help learners understand when and why certain linguistic practices take place. It can also help learners interpret the input that they hear, in both actual comprehension and interpretation" (Brdovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003 p.1). Correspondingly, the main goal of pragmatic instruction is to help learners avoid pragmatic failure.

2.2 Pragmatic Failure

According to Thomas (1983), pragmatic failure refers to "the inability to understand what is meant by what is said"(p.26). This implies the inability to recognize the force of the speaker's utterance when the speaker intended that this particular hearer should recognize it. Thomas made it clear through the following examples:

a. H perceives the force of S's utterance stronger or weaker than S intended s/he should perceive it;

b. H perceives as an order an utterance which S intended s/he should perceive as a request;

c. H perceives S's utterance as ambivalent where S intended no ambivalence;

d. S expects H to be able to infer the force of his/her utterance, but is relying on the system of knowledge or beliefs that S and H do not, in fact, share." (1983, P. 94). This inability, according to her, can be due to regional, ethnic, gender, and class differences within a community and across cross-cultural boundaries. Diversity in cultural behavioral differences causes production difficulties and incomprehension problems.

In the same vein, LoCastro (2012) set forth that pragmatic failure is about mistakes in producing and understanding situationally proper language behaviour."It is committed when the speaker uses grammatically correct sentences, but unconsciously violates the interpersonal relationship rules, social conventions, or takes little notice of the time, space and addressee." as pointed out by Guanlian (2002 as cited in Lihui & Jianbin, 2010. p.42) . On his part, ZiranHE (2009) explained that "pragmatic failure does not refer to the wording and phrasing errors that appear in language use, but rather refers to the failure to reach the expected result because of speaking improperly, expressing ideas in an unidiomatic way" (p.26).

2.2.1 Categories of pragmatic failure. As specified by Thomas, pragmatic failure falls into two major types: pragmalinguistic failure and sociopragmatic failure.

2.2.1.1 Pragmalinguistic failure. It is typically a linguistic failure due to dissimilarities in expressing a pragmatic force (Thomas, 1983). Apart from that, LoCastro (2012, p.84) added that this type of failure "involves differences in the linguistic encoding of pragmatic meaning or force". Thomas (1983) went on to add that pragmalinguistic failure may happen when "The pragmatic force mapped by speakers onto a given utterance is systematically different from the force most frequently assigned to it by native speakers of the target language or when speech act strategies are inappropriately transferred from L1 to L2 "(p. 99). This type can be noticed in the linguistic forms used to request, for instance, or apologize.

In a study conducted by White (1993 as cited in LoCastro, 2012), there was an overuse of the word "please" by Japanese learners of English who misuse it with invitations and offers because its equivalent Japanese word *dozo* can be used with these speech acts. "Please" is a politeness marker used to soften a request, as it is a face-threatening act. Pragmalinguistic failure can result from "pragmalinguistic transfer" and "teaching-induced errors". The former is about the inappropriate transfer of speech act strategies from one language to another in one hand and transfer from L1 to L2 semantically /syntactically of equivalent utterances that, because of “interpretive bias”, tend to transmit a different pragmatic force in the target language (Thomas, 1983). The use of direct speech act, for example, in a situation wherein a native speaker uses an indirect speech act or off-record politeness strategy as such, asking a Russian for a direction, one needs to use a very direct imperative; however, asking an English, one has to use a more elaborate strategy. Teaching induces pragmatic failure because of "the teaching materials (inappropriate use of modals), classroom discourse (lack of marking for modality, complete sentence responses and inappropriate propositional explicitness)"(Kasper, 1981 as cited in Thomas, 1983, p.102). On top of that, many scholars (Candlin, 1979; Rutherford, 1980; Clyne, 1981 as cited in Thomas, 1983) agreed that there is much emphasis on meta-linguistic knowledge in EFL classrooms.

2.2.1.2 Sociopragmatic failure. As elucidated by Thomas (1983, p.99), sociopragmatic failure "stems from cross-culturally different perceptions of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behaviour." Addedly, Leech (1983, p.10) confirm that it is "the social conditions placed on language use ". Along with that, Riley (1989) asserts that sociopragmatic failure "is the outcome of applying the social rules of one culture in a communicative situation where the social rules of another culture should be applied"(p. 234). Unawareness of cross-cultural differences between people speaking different languages further causes sociopragmatic failure in cross-cultural communication (Thomas, 1983).

Not only that, this can be caused by the differences in the linguistic encoding of pragmatic force. Hence, what is considered appropriate linguistic behaviour in one culture may not be so in another culture? Still, further LoCastro (2012) went on to add that this type of failure adverts to "mismatches in terms of the implied meaning of a word, phrase, or speech act."(p.85). Mismatches, he inputted, result from heterogeneous judgments of the social aspects of the context as such social distance between the interlocutors and the rights and obligations of both. These judgments occur when the interlocutors do not share the same socio-cultural background, which forms a barrier to effective communication. Here is an example displaying sociopragmatic failure was provided by Economidou (2011, p. 320), who exposed inadequacies apropos of directness levels and forms of address used by Greek learners of English writing e-mails to the faculty in an academic:

- Mr LN, did you talk to Dr ….?
- What did she tell you? Will she allow me to take sociolinguistics?
- Thank you. (p. 320)

It is clear that the learner did not consider the asymmetrical power relation, so his request was performed with an inappropriately high degree of directness. By doing so, he was considered impolite.

Concisely, according to Thomas, for an utterance to be pragmatically successful, two judgments are to be made "the basically grammatical (pragmalinguistic)assessment of the pragmatic force of a linguistic token, and sociopragmatic judgments concerning the size of imposition, cost/benefit, social distance, and relative rights and obligations"(p.104).

2.2.3 Causes of pragmatic failure. It is well accepted that pragmatic ability is a challenging aspect of communicative competence. Still, research proved that learners' sense of identity is conjoined with their use of L2, which is why they sometimes prefer not to behave in a native-like fashion (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). Interestingly, non-native-like language use is not always seen as unfavourable, and it can be considered innovative, creative, or even charming. Especially true if natives are willing to "cut learners some slack, rather than coming down hard on them for not performing in the unexpected way" (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010, p. 76).

However, in some cases, non-native pragmatic use can be misunderstood and lead to frustration and communication breakdown. There are five common causes of learners' divergence from pragmatic norms, as Ishihara and Cohen (2010) stated. They are the negative transfer of pragmatic norms, limited grammatical ability in the L2 over-generalized of perceived L2 pragmatic norms, and resistance to using perceived L2 pragmatic norms.

2.2.3.1 Negative transfer of pragmatic norms. When L2 learners ignore the pragmatic norms of the target language or assume that their L1 pragmatic norms can be applied in a given situation in the target culture, they may consciously or unconsciously rely on their L1 norms applied in that situation. This influence of the learners' knowledge of L1 or any other language and culture on their pragmatic use and development on the use of L2 is known as a pragmatic transfer. If L1 norms are divergent and distinctive, the transfer of behaviour consistent with L1 to L2 provokes misunderstanding and communication breakdown. An Arab, for example, if asked by an American about how many children he has and how they are, considers that as a jinx on his family to provide this information (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). An L2 learner needs to know that what is appropriate and acceptable in one culture may or may not be so in another. This can be done by raising the learner's awareness of similarities and differences between languages and the riskiness of transferring L1 pragmatic norms into the second.

2.2.3.2 Limited L2 grammatical ability. It is remarked of learners of advanced level, that they have a good mastery of L2 grammar. They can understand and produce thoroughly accurate language forms in terms of structure, but they are unable to use language in a grammatically appropriate way. They even fail to understand the listener's intended meaning. On the flip side, some learners can understand their listener's intended meaning and produce pragmatically appropriate utterances. Still, the grammatical ability is of paramount importance in L2 learning for the simple reason that they may not be able to understand other's messages better if they are structured beyond their grammar level; moreover, they can produce structures that are within their grammatical control. As illustrated by (Ishihara and Cohen, 2010), a learner with limited grammatical ability may understand and produce a single-clause request like could I use your pen for a second! Furthermore, he may not understand and produce bi-clausal requests (e.g., would you mind if …. or I was wondering if ….) resultantly, the learners' underdeveloped grammatical ability can cause pragmatic failure. A learner, for instance, should be exposed to different structures and strategies so that he becomes able to use the learned strategies in the proper context (when and why).

2.2.3.3 Overgeneralization of perceived L2 pragmatic norms. A frequent aspect of L2 learners is an overgeneralization. This happens when L2 learners develop a hypothesis about L2 grammar, they start making overgeneralization of a specific rule, for example, and apply it in different situations where the rule cannot be applied. The past tense is formed with "ed" added to the stem, which is generalized incorrectly by learners to all verbs, including irregular verbs.

In this case, pragmatic failure may happen from the overgeneralization of an insufficient understanding of the L2 culture and its pragmatic norms. Learners rely on their perceptions of L2 norms and apply them in different contexts wrong, disregarding the social and geographical factors. Situational variability in the L2. What is more, learners could associate linguistic forms with a given level of politeness; they might perhaps think that in all cases, the longer an expression is, the more polite it must be. May I ….?, is an expression that is relatively short and it implies greater formality, but learners inappropriately associate the structure with much informality.

2.3 Effect of Instruction or Instructional Materials

Generally, classroom instruction focuses more on accuracy to help learners produce complete and correct sentences. However, these patterns can be considered inefficient or lack tact if applied in real-life situations. Focus on accuracy rather than appropriacy may lead to insufficient pragmatic awareness or incomplete pragmatic control. As explained by Barron (2003 as sited in Glaser, 2014), "The major sources of misinformation in this area are misleading meta-pragmatic information imparted by the teacher and/or textbook, classroom discourse, and inappropriate teaching materials and textbooks."

As for the instructional materials, some textbooks contain generalizations that can be fallacious. Henceforth, it has been noted that overuse direct language where indirect is needed because they pay no heed to how many languages can be changed depending on the situation.

At last, pragmatic failure can happen due to the learner's choice when he/she resist using the perceived L2 pragmatic norms. Ishihara and Cohen (2010) recall that learners want to maintain their identity so that they try not to adopt the target norms to preserve their separateness from the L2 community.

In the same token, Dewaele (2008 b) confirmed that "the presence of conflicting norms in their other languages may contribute to conscious or unconscious divergence from the 'appropriate' norm in a particular language" (p. 245). Similarly, Barron (2003) confirms that her Irish learners of German showed a great reluctance to their refusals and reoffers, believing that they are more polite than their German alternatives.

2.4 How can Pragmatic Competence be Developed?

This section discusses a range of theoretical frameworks relevant to L2 pragmatic development and directly related to the present research.

2.4.1 Schmidt noticing hypothesis. The Noticing Hypothesis holds that input does not become intake for language acquisition until it is noticed and consciously recorded (Schmidt, 1990, 2001). It has been around for almost two decades and continues to produce experimental investigations, L2 pedagogy ideas, and disagreement. To many people, the notion that SLA is mainly determined by what learners pay attention to and become aware of in target language input appears to be common sense. "In the simplest terms, people learn about the things that they attend to and do not learn much about the things they do not attend to" (Schmidt, 2010, p.722). The noticing hypothesis in second language acquisition has been extended to its subfield, L2 pragmatics learning. This hypothesis brings about essential insights into the role of pragmatic awareness. The learner cannot continue advancing their language abilities or grasp linguistic features unless they consciously notice the input. Schmidt (1990, as cited in Ishihara & Cohen, 2021) believes that attention and awareness are intertwined, like two sides of the same coin, saying that attention is a variety of mechanisms or subsystems that control access to awareness. It is limited and selective in nature, managing access to consciousness and leading to the control of action and learning (Schmidt, 2001 as cited in Ishihara & Cohen, 2021).

In that, the pragmatic information has to be consciously attended to for the learning of pragmatics to take place Kasper and Schmidt (1996) go on to explain that when pragmatic information is recognized, whether intentionally or accidentally, it has the potential to become internalized and be stored in long-term memory. Accordant with them, Ishihara and Cohen (2021) state that attention is directed to global attributes and specific, focused aspects of the L2. Henceforth, learners need to be exposed to language form and the relevant factors affecting this form in a particular context.

Schmidt, in his theory, distinguished between two levels of awareness: noticing and understanding. Noticing denotes "the conscious registering, for example, of a particular term of address on a certain occasion" (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010, p.102). Understanding, however, hints at the recognition. Moreover, noticing in pragmatics refers to detecting pragmalinguistic forms, whereas comprehension refers to the relationship of these forms to their functions, social meanings, and context. Schmidt makes the following observations:

In pragmatics, awareness that on a particular occasion someone says to their interlocutor something like, 'I'm terribly sorry to bother you, but if you have time could you look at this problem?' is a matter of noticing. Relating the various forms used to their strategic development in the service of politeness and recognizing their co-occurrence with elements of context such as social distance, powers, level of imposition and so on, are all matters of understanding." (1995, p. 30)

Recent studies in L2 pragmatics those of Kasper and Rose (2002); Rose and Nguyen (2001); Takahashi (2005, 2010a) and Narita (2012) support in one way or another the noticing understanding framework. They agreed on the fact that "explicit teaching of pragmatics, namely, instruction that includes meta-pragmatic information, seems more effective by and large than an implicit approach". (Ishihara & Cohen 2010, p.103). Meta-pragmatic information involves a contextualized explanation of the target pragmatic feature. Exposure alone to authentic language cannot lead to a learner's pragmatic development. Explicit instruction is believed to lighten learners' attention to certain linguistic particulars and support their comprehension of these particulars related to contextual factors. (Ishihara and Cohen 2021). More importantly, he further stressed the importance for learners to notice the mismatch between their production and the L2 forms as requisite for L2 acquisition and learning.

As for pragmatics, he foregrounded that "in order to acquire pragmatics, one must attend to both the linguistic forms of utterances and the relevant social and contextual features with which they are associated" (p. 30). In the account of this, noticing alone cannot be the way to acquire language (Truscott, 1998, p. 103). The noticing hypothesis asserts that noticing can be a necessary departure point for attainment, whether conscious or subconscious.

Schmidt (1993, 1995, and 2001) makes it clear that noticing is necessitous to the lunch of the cognitive processes defining it as"cognitive operation that takes place both during and immediately after exposure to the input available for self-report. This view has been challenged by Truscott (998, p.102), who argues that noticing is helpful but cannot be preeminent for language learning. He backs up his claim by saying that "noticing is helpful only for the acquisition of metalinguistic knowledge but not to the development of communicative competence and it is the role of the teacher to choose the relevant material to help learners notice the target language aspect. Taguchi (2005), on her part with Van Patten (1993), and Terrell (1991) admit that meta-linguistic knowledge instigate comprehension, and thus noticing is essential for the development of language competence.

Schmidt (1995) goes on to detail that "not all learning is intentional, yet all learning requires noticing or “attention”, with which learners bring order to the input they encounter, facilitating understanding and boosting natural acquisition processes as learners struggle with their language learning" (p. 4).

Attention is crucial as it helps form the relevant mental representations to knowledge acquired incidentally or intentionally (Schmidt, 1995). This view has been supported in memory studies in psychology and cognitive sciences. Tomlin and Villa (1994), Curran (1994), Van Lier (1994), and Mc Laughlin (994) confirm the needful of attention for input to become intake. What is more is that noticing is also required for production, as evidenced by Schmidt’s own experience in learning Portuguese and Kasper (2000) and Dufon (1999).

To say the least, Pragmatics learning can be divided into three stages: initial noticing and conscious registration of pragmalinguistic forms in input, understanding where learners relate the forms to their functions, social meanings, and contextual elements, and internalization, i.e., accurate, fluent use of the forms in a situation. This path to mastery may not always be completed. Noticing target pragmatic aspects may result in their future use, although the user may not be instantly described as correct or fluent, depending on the difficulty and complexity of the target features (Taguchi & Reover, 2017).

2.4.2 Collaborative dialogues. The noticing hypothesis concentrates on the cognitivist-oriented explanation of the pragmatic development, collaborative dialogues theory, howbeit, is a socially-oriented approach that conceptualises pragmatics as a socially-oriented activity. This approach considers pragmatic knowledge as jointly constructed among participants in interaction and emerging in goal-oriented collaborative activities. In that, this approach has been developed on the basic concept that language use is a form of communication and social activity (Swain & Lapkin, 1998, as cited in Taguchi 2017, 2020). Hence, language, considered as a psychological instrument, capacitates learners to negotiate and solve cognitively challenging problems (Taguchi & Roever, 2017). They furthered, "During the negotiation and deliberations, learners draw on a pool of linguistic resources to solve a problem, which essentially leads to the learning of the resources. Therewithal, language "serves as a tool supporting L2 learning by consciously singling out the L2 as an object to be monitored, reflected upon, and manipulated" (Swain & Lap kin, 1998, p. 329). Swain & Lap kin (1995) particularised three ways in which language use may help learning; they are:

- Generating hypothesis about linguistic rules
- Assessing the hypothesis, and
- Applying rules or extending the knowledge of rules to new L2 contexts (Taguchi & Reover, 2017, p. 70).

They inputted that "the construction of knowledge in interaction is language learning in progress". During collaborative problem solving, a dialogue enhances cognitive processes (Taguchi& Reover, 2017, p.70). Collaborative dialogue happens between learners while they engage in problem-solving and knowledge-building and serves as a window to evaluate learning in progress during interaction (Swain, 1998, 2000; Swain & Lapkin, 1998). By collaborative dialogues, a teacher can examine learning in progress, and this can be manageable right through interaction between speakers when engaging in problem-solving and knowledge building (Swain, 1998, 2000; Swain& Lapkin, 1998). These dialogues motivate learners to test hypotheses about the appropriate and correct use of language and stew over their language use. Studies on learner-learner interaction have put the cogitation of collaborative dialogue into operation using a unit of analysis termed language-related episodes. They are "any part of a dialogue where the students talk about the language they are producing, question their language use, or correct themselves or others" (Swain& Lapkin, 1998, p. 326).

This approach has not been much used in L2 pragmatics studies as an instructional tool; it is generally referred to as meta-pragmatic discussion. This discussion results in helping learners engage in a dialogue about pragmalinguistic forms, sociopragmatic factors, and their interrelatedness to build on the decipherment of the prescripts lying beneath this interrelatedness. Taguchi & Roever (2017, 2020) confirmed that "meta-pragmatic discussion can strengthen pragmatic knowledge because it prompts a deeper level of cognitive processing by requiring learners to think through the rules and explicitly verbalise their thoughts".

Among the studies in L2 pragmatics that used meta-pragmatic discussion among students and proverb to be effective is the study of Takimoto (2012). The study is about the examination of learning request downgrades with and without meta-pragmatic discussion. Both groups discussed different request forms during the investigation and rated their appropriateness. Then learners stumped up a list of strategies to make appropriate requests. The group with metapragmatic discussion outperformed the other on the discourse completion test. Overlapping talk, other repetition, co-construction of sentences are features of collaborative works. However, as for collaborative dialogues, Swain (2006) and Swain and Lap kin (1998) unravelled that "interacting around a task, both learners deal with each other forms, discuss suggested form, discuss suggested forms, provide feedback and correction, and scaffold each other.

Both learners hypothesise, evaluate, and apply the resultant knowledge to solve a specific linguistic problem. The pragmalinguistic feature becomes more noticeable than the sociopragmatic one through the recycled use of the form over multiple turns (Taguchi, 2020). Swain and Lap kin furthered that "when learners produce language in a collaborative environment, they do not just produce output; they also have an opportunity to receive feedback from peers while trying to make their language precise (Swain, 2006, Swain& Lap kin, 1998 as cited in Taguchi, 2017, p.71). The following is a sample collaborative dialogue (Taguchi & Kim, 2016)

1. Learner 1: 요청하기가 (making a request) I am wondering… if I could possibly… 먼저 요청해야 되니까 (First, we have to make a request) I am wondering if you could possibly… I was wondering?
2. Learner 2: I am.
3. Learner 1: I am wondering….
4. Learner 2: if you could… 그럼 was 를 써야 되지않아? 뒤에도 could 니까. (Since we used “could,” shouldn’t we use “was”? I was wondering if I could… go to picnic in Everland. Collaborative dialogue and pragmatics 13.

5. Learner 1: 아니 이사람이 결정을 해야 되니까 if you could 가 좋을 것 같아. (No, since this person needs to make a decision, “if you could” sounds right.) If you could… (p. 430-431)

2.5 Explicit and Implicit Instruction in Pragmatics

What can be deduced from the noticing hypothesis mentioned earlier is that conscious attention to pragmatics related information in the L2 classroom is needed in lieu of the learner’s mere exposure to pragmatics rich input. This is called explicit teaching, which has to do with “a provision of meta-pragmatic explanation, such as conscious attention to pragmalinguistic forms and sociopragmatic analysis of the relationship between language, function, and context” (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010, p.113). Quite similarly, Rose (2005) defines explicit instruction as any pragmatics instruction that involves "the provision of meta-pragmatic information designed to make the target feature more salient" (p. 393). Besides, she defined *implicit instruction* as those instructional forms that refrain from providing learners with meta-pragmatic information. The difference concerns the overt presentation of the rules lying beneath the pragmatic feature to be taught contrary to the absence of rule provision (Glaser, 2014).

Norris & Ortega (2000) summarized that very succinctly as follows:

> “L2 instructional treatment [is] considered to be explicit if rule explanation comprise[s] part of the instruction . . . or if learners [are] directly asked to attend to particular forms and to try to arrive at metalinguistic generalizations on their own . . . Conversely, when neither rule presentation nor directions to attend to particular forms [are] part of a treatment, that treatment [is] considered implicit.” (p. 437)

Extensive research and meta-analysis evidenced that explicit pragmatic instruction is to a great degree more efficient than implicit instruction (Rose, 2005, Jeon &Kaya, 2006; Kasper & Prior, 2016). Trosborg (2003) convincingly argue that "adult learners benefit greatly from (and appreciate) explicit knowledge of pragmatic rules and explicit information about the difference between L1 and foreign language cultural patterns" (p. 269). Similar evidence comes from studies conducted by Takahashi (2010b) confirmed prominent superiority of explicit over implicit instruction for acquiring sociopragmatic abilities, i.e., for matters of awareness, noticing and offline knowledge. In that, "explicit knowledge presentation in teaching is tightly associated to sociopragmatic knowledge gains in the learners" (Glaser, 2014, p. 53), not only that, different studies contrasted an explicitly taught with implicitly taught group, proved the development changes through the use of pretest and post-test Gu (2011), Takimoto (2006a), House (1996 a), Cutrone (2013), Martinez-Floor (2004), Ghobadi & Fahim (2009) and others, the results guided from the studies mentioned above are consistent with Schmidt (1993,1995,2001) Noticing hypothesis which extrapolates that attention to input is of paramount importance for learning to take place. This can only happen through directing the learner's awareness to the rules and mechanisms underlying the language material, as explained in the following lines:

"What must be attended to is not input in general, but whatever input features play a role in the system to be learned. For the learning of pragmatics in a second language, and the relevant contextual features is required" (Schmidt, 1993, p.35) taking into consideration that implicit instruction can also lead to improving conscious attention to the target features in the L2 input is what makes of explicit instruction so efficacious (Glaser, 2014)

2.6 Inductive and Deductive Teaching and Meta-pragmatic Discussion

Ishihara and Cohen (2010) shed some light on the difference between inductive and deductive teaching, stating that awareness-raising teaching, though is generally inductive, L2 pragmatics can also be taught deductively. Teaching can be deductive when outside sources, such as teachers or materials, provide learners with explicit meta-pragmatic information before learners study examples themselves. However, in inductive teaching, "learners analyse pragmatic data to discover L2 pragmatic norms that govern various language uses" (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010, p.116). Moreover, learners can establish knowledge that is easily accessible in real-time through inductive teaching than pragmatic knowledge gained through deductive teaching. Similarly, Decco (1996) presents what he named the traditional dichotomy. He defined deduction as a "process that goes from the general to the specific from consciously formulated rules to the application in language use". (p. 96). As far as pragmatic instruction is concerned, the meta-pragmatic information is introduced to learners first, followed by examples and practice. Contrastingly, induction is defined as Decco adds, "the process that goes from the particular to the general, i.e., from language examples to patterns, rules and generalizations, that is, the learner is exposed to the concrete language material then deal with the abstractions" (p. 96)

Dekeyser (1995) makes plain this dichotomy along these lines: "Inductive learning means that examples are encountered before rules are informed, deductive learning means that rules are presented before examples are encountered. Whereas induction can be either implicit or explicit (and explicit induction can happen with or without help from a teacher or textbook), deductive learning is necessarily explicit" (Glaser, 2014, p. 380). It is worthy to note that both dichotomies stated above refer to different proclivities of the instructional design. The explicit –implicit dichotomy is concerned with whether rules are provided explicitly or not. However, the inductive-deductive dichotomy is concerned with the order of the instructional elements, mainly whether the language rules or the language material is the starting point of the instruction or provided at a later stage. (Glaser, 2014).

In classrooms, language instruction manifested a combination of inductive and deductive approaches. Some learners inductively obtain the target pragmatic feature and then share it with their peers, so their learning is deductive (Ishihara & Cohen, 2014). Ishihara and Cohen add that "if teachers guide learners in the discovery process, the learning of pragmatic norms can be viewed as being co-constructed rather than purely inductive or deductive" (p. 17). Ishihara & Cohen (2010) go on to explain that the " inductive approach to language learning, in general, is often believed to promote higher-order thinking and therefore to be more effective than a deductive approach" (p. 116). As revealed by Ishihara & Cohen (2022), current insights focused attention on the importance of explicit meta-pragmatic discussion and gave priority to the engagement it requires of learners. This can be, for instance, through collaborative dialogue analyzing the form function context connection in pairs, groups, or with the teacher (Ishihara & Cohen, 2022).

2.7 Awareness-Raising Approach for L2 Teaching Pragmatics

This approach is grounded in the noticing hypothesis. It is designed to enable learners to notice and comprehend the form function context connection. Ishihara and Cohen (2022) point out that this approach is a learner-centred approach with explicit instruction of pragmatics provided inductively. The learner, in that, is an active participant, he collects authentic language samples from native speakers or experts, and maybe he can also conduct surveys and interviews concerning L2 use. He can analyse linguistic aspects, interpret functional meaning, and consider the contextual factors interacting. Ishihara & Cohen (2022) further stressed the importance of comparing L1 to the target language pragmatic norms. Pragmatic instruction focuses on activities that motivate learners to study the naturally occurring language used by natives (Ishihara & Cohen 2022). This type of language can be found in the media, internet, films, or pieces of language collected by experts or teachers.

Moreover, what is crucial in this approach is that it values the importance of interactional practices, feedback, and modified performance. As mentioned by; Ishihara and Cohen (2022), the learners attempt for reflection. What is more, they insisted on the fact that teachers should encourage learners to create, test hypotheses about L2 pragmatic uses, then revise depending on the received feedback. Pragmatic instruction aims to increase learners' awareness of pragmatic norms that are very difficult for them to notice on their own and heighten their intercultural sensitivity.

Therefore, pragmatics instruction is paramount for a foreign language learning environment where English is limited to classroom use. Minh & Anh (2019) put it "to navigate intercultural encounters in an EFL context smoothly; learners need to be made aware not only of a range of pragmatic norms in native speakers (NS) varieties of English but should also be encouraged to embrace other English norms and equip themselves with the necessary skills to negotiate cross-cultural differences" (p. 26).

2.8 Videos Prompts for Pragmatics Instruction

According to pragmatics research, interlanguage pragmatics is a developing topic in SLA that requires special attention. Pragmatists' research confirmed that the various components of pragmatics could be taught unequivocally (Martinez-Flor, 2008; Roze, 2005; Kasper& Roever 2005, Taguchi, 2008, & Takahashi, 2005). Because the classroom is often the only place where L2 learners may learn about the target language, learners must be enhanced by exposure to real-life circumstances in which the target language is utilized. Furthermore, learners have few opportunities to participate in real-life conversations with native speakers to enhance their pragmatic knowledge (Kasper, 2008). Along with it, language classrooms provide learners only with a decontextualized setting to practice the target language. Hence, authentic opportunities for genuine interaction are pretty limited in foreign language classrooms, resulting in learners' pragmatic failure. Learners fail to decipher the complexity of form, meaning, function and social contexts, especially adults who have already developed their L1 knowledge and cultural norms (Kasper, 1997; Taguchi, 2015).

Kasper (1997) and Kasper and Rose (2002) evince that adults already know organizational principles in conversation turn-taking and internal structures of speech events; contextual factors like social power, psychological power, distance, and degree of imposition. All these principles are basics to politeness, but they do not imply that adults are capable of applying this free pragmatic knowledge appropriately in L2 but rather "a unique challenge in their pragmatic development stemming from the co-existence of first language L1 and L2 based pragmatic systems" affirmed Taguchi (2018, p.1). In that language learners' attainment of the ability to use pragmatic aspects of the target language accurately and appropriately is profoundly affected by three factors "appropriate input, opportunities for output and provision of feedback" as explained by Martinez-Flor and Uso-Juan (2010, p. 9 as cited in Alsmari, 2020). An account of this, Martinez-Flor (2007, as cited in Gaziogllu & Ciftci, 2017) proposed that " Video clips, films and shows might be a good and shows pragmatics of L2 classrooms" (p.140). The use of authentic "audio-visual input gives indeed" a lot of opportunities to focus on all facets of language use, including form, meaning, function and linguistic and non-linguistic means" (Derakhshan & Arab mofrad (2018, p.77).

Owning to the fact that a set of studies targeted pragmatic production through dichotomies teaching approaches (Kasper & Rose, 2002), it is, therefore, hypothesised, as stated by Derakhshan & Arab Mofrad (2018), that videos-driven prompts may be advantageous as they enable learners to learn about the sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic features of the target language. In the same line of thought, Derakhshan and Zangoei (2014) believe that "the use of video-driven prompts holds a great promise to bring real life to the classroom and to be able to raise learners' sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic awareness" (p. 1653)

In consideration of the fact that consciousness-raising has a pivotal role in enhancing features of the language, Rose (1994) recommends video prompts as an approach to boost EFL learners' pragmatic consciousness-raising because they can furnish the needed information of the target language pragmatics that serve language teachers of native speakers and non-native speakers. Besides that, Derakhshan and Zangoei (2014) reveal:

"...due to scarcity of native speakers, naturalistic input is not accessible inside and outside the EFL classroom, and sociolinguistic conventions involved in using the textbooks cannot simulate and authenticate real-life situations; therefore, the use of video-driven prompts hold a great promise to bring real life to the classroom and to be able to raise learners' sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic awareness" (p. 1653)

Taking a similar stance, Derakhan, Mohsenzadeh and Mohammadzade (2014) point out that videotaped materials bring the closest approximation of real-life situations to the classroom environment" (p. 17). As for the pragmatics aspects of the target language, audio-visual aids, particularly videos, provide learners with the needed knowledge about how language forms are used in real-life situations, how they can be appropriate regarding the social distance between them, social status of interlocutors, and the heaviness of the uttered act. Hence, learners can see how native speakers manage to communicate even with incomplete sentences, facial expressions, tone of voice and body posture and sometimes non-verbally. Videos make learners aware of the differences between the target language norms and their L1 norms through every detail in the show. Videos make learners understand that language appropriacy is more needed than language accuracy in communication.

In what follows, some recent studies in pragmatic development used video-driven prompts regarding what has been identified by Alcon-Soler (2005) that EFL learners should be exposed to pragmatic input not only through textbook conversations and classroom interaction but also Alcon through videos and films. BagherKazemi (2014) investigated the immediate and delayed effect of explicit video-driven metapragmatic awareness-raising on Iranian EFL learners' production of English apologies, requests and refusals. A control group of 25 and 54 intermediate EFL learners were assigned to an experimental or metapragmatic awareness-raising group. The treatment extended over nine sessions involved, three sessions for each speech act. The first session is about presenting the target speech act containing video input, followed by the teacher-fronted presentation of the speech act strategy using video transcript-based speech act recognition and reasoning. In the third session, five multiple-choice discourse completion and reasoning tasks. The control group received the same video input in all nine sessions with a class discussion around its theme. SA production was measured through a written discourse completion test: the results revealed the positive short-term and long-term effect of metapragmatic awareness-raising on SA production for the experimental group compared to the control group. The findings, as delivered by Bagherkazemi (2014), "serve to augment evidence in support of the teachability of pragmatics, as well as the potential of video-prompt-driven metapragmatic awareness-raising for short term and long-term Interlanguage pragmatic development" (p.25)

Taking a similar stance, Derakhshan and Arabmofrad (2018) wanted to track down the impact of video-enhanced input on the comprehension of three speech acts of apology, request, and refusal on 69 Iranian intermediate EFL learners. They were divided randomly into four groups (i.e., metapragmatic, form-search, interactive translation, and control). All the groups were exposed to 60 video vignettes (20 for each SA) taken from Friends and Seinfeld sitcoms and Annie Hall during sessions. Results of the multiple-choice discourse completion test (MDCT) relayed that, as mentioned by Derkhshan and Arabmofrad (2018), "metapragmatic consciousness-raising, form-search, and interactive translation groups led to the development of pragmatic comprehension from pretest to posttest" (p. 75) with an outperformance of the metapragmatic treatment group or others.

In a more recent study, Alsmari (2020) investigated the impact of video-driven prompts on less studied and more complex teaching speech acts" She targeted the effects of metapragmatic instruction on English complaints through the implementation of video-driven prompts to raise Saudi EFL learners awareness of the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects tagged along the accurate and appropriate production of complaints during a semester-data have been elicited using a written discourse completion to test. Results revealed an essential improvement in the learners' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic skills in the production of English complaints "the researcher confirmed: "experimental group immensely outperformed the control group due to their exposure to authentic, contextualized video excerpts. "The study supports the teachability of complaints as well as the benefits of incorporating metapragmatic awareness tasks based on contextually authentic input, which can, in turn, accelerate EFL students' ability to produce pragmatically appropriate and accurate target-like complaints " (p. 3)

Regarding the findings discussed above, the video prompts enjoy more merits than naturalistic observations and textbook conversations, and it stands to reason to incorporate this in an Algerian context.

2.9 Developmental Research Design

Before delving more into the two types of longitudinal and cross-sectional research used in ILP, it is necessary to introduce the universal pragmatic principle. The term "universal pragmatic knowledge" refers to the prior information that an adult second language learner employs when interacting in the target language. This universality facilitates the development of ILP, but it can also operate as a hindrance, resulting in misunderstandings and misinterpretations when the learner is unaware of the distinctions between the L1 and L2 languages. These distinctions must be the instructor's focus in the language classroom.

The concept of universality has been the subject of far too many pragmatics experts. Brown and Levinson (1978) assert that "the strategies for performing speech acts are essentially identical across different cultures and languages, and any differences that may exist are not that important" (p.28). Salgado (2011) and Searle (1969), who agree with this perspective, asserted that the strategies employed in the production of indirect speech acts in each language are universal because they are founded on the universal felicity condition (Salgado, 2011).

On the other hand, Wierzbicka (1991) asserts that "speech act markers are a unique realisation, unique to each culture and language." (p. 28). This cultural distinctiveness is supported by the findings of Blumkulka et al. (1984)'s CCSAR, which surprisingly indicates the universality of categories of request and apology methods and the variances in social meanings achieved by these strategies across cultures.

In a nutshell, as Kasper and Rose (2002) note, universal pragmatic knowledge entails " the knowledge and ability to use specific competencies (principles and practices of a conversational implicature, inference, indirectness, indexicality, politeness, strategies for communicative acts, and standard formulae, and discursive construction of social identities and relations" (Salgado, 2011, p. 28). Kasper and Rose (2002) continue by stating that while adults consciously use this knowledge as part of universal pragmatic knowledge in their L1, its availability for conscious inspection is limited. Hence, its function in adult foreign language learning is not readily recognised. These pragmatic universals enable essential language learners with little linguistic competence to engage in L2 dialogue and acquire L2-specific pragmatic knowledge. Research on pragmatic development has to adopt conducted longitudinally, cross-sectionally, or in a combination of the two.

2.9.1 Longitudinal studies. Longitudinal research, as defined by Kasper and Rose (2002), "involves the observation of the same participants over an extended period, the most obvious advantage of a longitudinal design is that it allows for the direct observation of developmental patterns over time"(p. 75). The duration of observation for this strategy is four months to four years, with the primary goal of following learning growth across time.

In contrast to cross-sectional research, "longitudinal studies analyse data from the performance of the same set of individuals on a series of distinct subsequent occasions." (p. 34). The instruments used to collect data vary according to the study. The researchers record participants' speech and then analyse the transcripts. Others employ introspective devices such as diaries to record the learner's language acquisition experiences, while others employ elicited dialogue. A two- or three-person conversation is recorded and subsequently transcribed.

The analysis of longitudinal data focuses on speech acts, pragmatic routines, discourse markers, pragmatic fluency, and conversational ability. There is a review of two longitudinal studies that examined the request development stages, like Schmidt (1981), Ellis (1992) and

Achiba (2003). Schmidt's study examined the pragmatic ability as an autonomous component of a Japanese adult English learner over three years. Schmidt noted Wes's Interlanguage development of directives. By the observational period's end, Wes had begun to employ request markers and modification devices.

Ellis (1992) conducted another longitudinal study on developing two beginner language learners' pragmatic competence in requests in an actual classroom context. The learners, ages 10 and 11, received English training, and their use of requests was examined over many terms in a classroom context. It was noted that the two participants made more direct requests with the addition of a few external and internal modifiers such as please. They eventually settled on indirect requests, progressing through many phases of request-making tactics, beginning with the usage of primary verbs, progressing through formulaic expressions, and finally terminating with modification devices (grounders).

2.9.2 Cross-sectional studies. According to Huang (2017), cross-sectional research investigates the evolution of a bound in ILP literature. These studies examine the growth of learners (two or more groups) with varying degrees of ability" (p. 428).

Kasper& Roever (2018) stated somewhat similarly that "cross-sectional designs entail the gathering of data from two or more cross-sections of a sample, for example, depending on differences in target language ability" (P. 76). Kasper's (1997) address "Can pragmatic competence be taught?" sparked the emergence of empirical studies on pragmatics teaching. Most interventional studies have focused on learning targets such as discourse markers and strategies, speech acts, and pragmatic routines. These studies were conducted with the primary objective of increasing the learner's pragmatic competence.

A significant portion of ILP cross-sectional research has contributed to the study of the realisation of request methods at various proficiency levels, a developing area of inquiry. Scarcella (1979) pioneered pragmatic cross-sectional developmental research. It is an exploratory study of the politeness strategies and traits employed by L1 and L2 speakers.

Besides, it tries to ascertain which strategies were the most difficult to master in two speech acts: invitations and requests. Although this was an observational study rather than an interventional one, it was included because it examined Arabic L2 learners. This study compared ten adult beginners and ten advanced Arabic EFL English learners against 06 American English NSs. The participants acted out 03 videotaped open scenarios in which they were shown respectfully chatting with others identified as superiors, equal familiars, or subordinates. The findings indicated that as learners' competency increased, they increasingly matched NSs' use of most speech act realisation methods employing a varied collection of strategies. On the other hand, beginners were seen to employ a minimal range of politeness strategies in their production, depending on clear imperatives with attention grabbers that lacked sensitivity to the social context, such as "Please, do not bring your wife" (Scarcella, 1979,p. 278). The use of the all-inclusive 'we' hinted at a subsequent stage. Scarcella also discovered that advanced Arabic English learners made more negative polite requests than their NSs counterparts, such as suggestions to superiors and subordinates in status rather than status equals. There was less evidence of sociopragmatic variation.

Another cross-sectional study examined the techniques used by learners with advanced and beginning skill levels to realise speech acts. Félix-Brasdefer (2007) examined the evolution of requests during face-to-face meetings with individuals of varying levels of competence, including low proficiency. This study, which was also done in an EFL setting, enrolled 45 Spanish American students. They were separated into 03 groups of fifteen students each: beginning, intermediate, and advanced. To collect data, open role-plays in 04 different request scenarios were used. The qualitative analysis of request head-acts was conducted based on their directness (direct, conventional indirect, non-conventional indirect) and internal and external modifying devices. The findings indicated that the novice group could not adapt to changing situations, resulting in the highest frequency of direct requests. They complied with their requests through the use of 'verbless' requests, need statements, imperatives, and requests that included an infinitive as the primary verb. On the other hand, advanced and intermediate learners indicated a strong preference for typically indirect requests in formal and casual circumstances.

Conclusion

This chapter has surveyed key concepts in pragmatics instruction and the main factors leading to pragmatic failure and considered the various theories proposed to help boost the pragmatic development of FL learners. The Schmidt noticing hypothesis and the collaborative dialogue approach form the theoretical foundation for the current research treatment, which focuses on developing learners' production rather than comprehension. The findings from phase one's analysis are presented in the next chapter followed by phase two's study.

Chapter Three: Research Methodology

Introduction

At the heart of any research process is people's unquenchable desire to better understand and resolve problems in the larger world, particularly in their local surroundings. Perry (2005,p. 8) defines research as "the act of posing questions and attempting to find answers through painstaking data collection, analysis, and interpretation." As a result, to discover the truth regarding occurrences, one must employ scientific methods rather than relying just on one's intuitions. According to Seliger and Shohamy (2013), we use scientific procedures such as observation, inquiry, experimentation, and elicitation to answer specific inquiries and address specific research queries. Data are gathered and analysed, and hypotheses are constructed, tested, and evaluated. Then, based on the facts, verifiable judgments are made. A scientific study is a rigorous inquiry conducted to conclusions about specific concerns, and notably, it is a technique for reaching consistent and reasonable conclusions. The methodology used in this inquiry was the focus of this chapter: data collection methods and analysis techniques used in the exploratory mixed methods approach.

3.1 Pragmatics Research and the Mixed Methods Approach

Interlanguage pragmatics is concerned with how learners acquire the ability to apply pragmatic elements of the target language. The most extensively examined aspect of pragmatic competence is speech acts. Early ILP research in the 1980s and 1990s focused on pragmatics use. The researchers' primary purpose was to identify and compare native and non-native users' speech behaviour patterns. Their research was primarily observational, concentrating on the process of L2 pragmatic comprehension and production.

Later research has focused on developing pragmatic abilities in L2, bringing ILP more directly into second language acquisition research. The pragmatic evolution of L2 was examined from two distinct angles. First, observational studies study how pragmatic competence develops over time whether standard information is offered in the classroom

(Ellis, 1992) or in a natural situation (Achiba, 2003). Second, interventional studies need the classroom implementation of a specific treatment.

Pragmatics study focuses exclusively on empirical inquiry, necessitating many approaches. Because pragmatics is a relatively new field of study, scholars have practised it from diverse research traditions. As a result, data collection tools for this field of study have been developed in various more established social disciplines, including anthropology, sociology, psychology, and linguistics. Researchers collect and analyse L2 pragmatics in various ways, depending on the research objectives.

The present probe explores the integration of the pragmatic dimension within grammar lessons in language classrooms, notably modal verbs. This investigation is only conceivable through a detailed examination of classroom interaction, which unequivocally exposes the types of speech acts learners encounter during the modal verbs course and the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic information required. Resultantly, the recording of the lesson provides a significant repertoire to be cognizant of the main reasons bolstering the pragmatic failure of advanced learners of English. In Algeria, notably at Biskra university, the limited scope of pragmatics activity undervalues target speech acts. Whereas some research focuses on the development of pragmatic competence in general, others compare the speech act methods used by Algerians and native English speakers.

Another reason was to broaden the scope of the existing research on one of the face-threatening acts through an intervention guided by the noticing hypothesis and collaborative dialogue approach. The intervention aims to raise learners' awareness about the importance of using indirect requests and mitigating those requests regarding the social variables that control those strategies. A few small studies in Algeria, primarily at Biskra university, concentrate on metapragmatic awareness-raising among grammar teachers and students. Previously completed research includes studies on the development of pragmatic competence as a whole, such as Segueni's (2017). As a result, this inquiry seeks to address a critical issue for the future of EFL teachers and learners that has been largely overlooked.

This teaching-oriented approach was essential in determining the appropriate theoretical frameworks to employ in light of the problem's ponderosity and the necessity of examining it from numerous perspectives; the researcher chose a mixed-methods research strategy.

There are four distinct techniques to mixed methods research: convergent or concurrent, explanatory sequential, exploratory sequential, and nested. Convergent data collection comprises collecting quantitative and qualitative data, analysing both sets of data, and combining the results of the two sets of studies to cross-validate or compare the findings (Creswell, 2015). Explanatory sequential begins with quantitative approaches, followed by qualitative methods to explain the quantitative findings in depth (Creswell, 2015). Exploratory sequential research begins with a qualitative investigation of a subject and then uses the results to develop a quantitative instrument and phase of the research endeavour (Creswell, 2015). Nested is another term for intervention.

The primary approach is employed, and a secondary method is used to collect additional data (Creswell, 2003; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011). Quantitative designs frequently incorporate qualitative features. Although the primary method is quantitative, such as an experiment, the design has a qualitative component. The phrase "quantitative embedded in qualitative designs" refers to the practice of including a quantitative component into a qualitative design. Quantitative nested in qualitative designs employ a qualitative methodology, such as field research, as the primary method and nest a quantitative component within the design.

3.1.1 Rationale and assumptions for mixed methods research. Mixed methods research (Henceforth MMR) is also named "split methods" or multiple methods " approach (Makey & Gass, 2015, p.164). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004); Tashakkori & Teddlie (2003) agreed that the mixed methods approach is "a significant methodological movement across the social sciences, and many are starting to view it as a third approach to research, alongside qualitative and quantitative research"(p. 363 as cited in PlanoClark et al. 2008). It is a combination of methods; it "involves collecting, analysing, and integrating qualitative and quantitative data in a single or multiphase study (Hanson, Goswell, PlanoClark, Petska & Cresswell, 2005, p. 224).

Some writers like Mackey and Gass (2005, p. 164) got the idea that the quantitative and qualitative research approaches "should not be viewed as opposing poles in a dichotomy rather as complementary means of investigating the complex phenomena at work in a second language acquisition" (p. 164). Kasper (2000, 2008) concurred with Mackey and Gass by considering that numerous data collection techniques can be used "as a means to offset inherent instrument or observer bias"(p. 300). She added that collecting data from different sources and through various methods allow triangulations that increase validity and reliability (Kasper 2000, 2008). Henceforth, researchers can "gain a better and more complete understanding of the phenomena under study" (PlanoClarck et al., 2008, 365).

Qualitative studies, Savic Milica (2014) added, focused on a set of semantic formulas associated with particular speech acts and contextual variables that influence speech acts realisation patterns. Owing to this, Meier (1998 as cited in Milica, 2014) pointed out in her study on apologies that such research needs to progress beyond a descriptive goal to an explanatory goal in terms of the underlying cultural assumptions that inform the perception of contextual factors which in turn inform apology behaviour." (p. 215)). Jhonson and Onwegbuzie (2004) also supported Meier's claim, as mentioned earlier, arguing that "words, pictures, and narratives can be used to add meaning to numbers"(p. 21).

Intending to buckle down thoroughly to the pragmatics issue under study, the researcher finds it inadequate to rely only on qualitative findings. This study suggests an excellent treatment to help raise learners' awareness about the underlying cultural differences between L1 and the learned language and the different strategies existing in English to mitigate requests. Henceforth, the reason to use MMR is complementarity, as the latter "allows the researcher to gain a fuller understanding of the research problem and to clarify a given research result" (Hesse-Biber, 2010, p. 4). As far as this study is concerned, the researcher aims to understand the research problem. Hence, it incubates the development of this research project by creating a collegial effect by which "results from one method ...help develop or inform the other method"(Greene et al., 1989, p.259, as cited in Hesse-Biber, 2010, p. 5). This investigation formed out of phase one, which is exploratory in nature, aiming to provide the researcher with the reasons for learners' pragmatic failure. The set of reasons mends the researcher to choose an adequate theoretical framework to help overcome this failure. This was conducted sequentially with the qualitative component first and the quantitative second.

The exploratory phase’s findings provided the investigator with explanations that motivated her to initiate the second phase, which is experimental in nature, to try out a treatment based on raising learners' awareness on the one hand and trying collaborative dialogues on the other to see the effect on the learners’ pragmatic development concerning speech act of request. Not only that, mixed methods research calls for expansion, which is the researcher's intention right through this inquiry would be to boost new insights to existing hunches. Ergo, expansion is meant to extend the breadth and range of inquiry, as explained by Green et al., (as cited in Hesse-Biber, 2010). In the same way, Hesse-Biber (2010) mentioned that "producing detailed findings helps enable future research endeavours and allows researchers to continuously employed different and mixed methods in their pursuit of new or modified research questions" (p. 259)

3.2 Research paradigms

Being aware of some mixed methods research practices denoted by Hesse-Bieber (2010, p. 10) as "a cart before the horse" approach, the investigator's intention is to avoid such kind of method centric approach. Mixed methods research plonks methodology in isolation with the rest of the research model and leaves it last in the design sequence (Hesse-Biber, 2010).

Supporting Hesse Bieber in her claim that “to avoid this problem of logic” it is crucial to practice "a mixed-methods approach that is rooted within a research context, with the intention that the method or methods used to foster a richer understanding of the research problem under investigation" (P. 11).

As Hesse-Biber (2010) called methodology, the adopted comprehensive approach of this research guides the theoretical perspective that connects a research problem to a specific method. Methodology, she added, is derived from the investigator's assumptions about the nature of existence or ontology. The latter, in turn, culminates in their set of philosophies on the nature of knowledge building or epistemology. Wherefore, the methodology is a sort of theoretical channel bridging the research problem to the research method.

The paradigm is a way of looking at or researching phenomena. It is a world view, A view of what counts as accepted or correct, scientific knowledge or way of working, an accepted model or pattern (Kuhn, 1962, as cited in Cohen et al., 2018) went on to explain that a paradigm is a "shared belief system or set of principles, the identity research community, a way of pursuing knowledge, consensus on what problems are to be investigated and how to investigate them" (p. 8). Along with Cohen et al., Zhu Hua, Wiley and Sons (2016) append that paradigm represents "a general philosophical debate about the world and the nature of research, that researcher brings to a study" (Creswell, 2014, p. 6). Paradigms depict research design and data collection method and analysis.

Considering the MMR as a problem-centred approach to research design, it is, therefore, logical to use both qualitative and quantitative approaches, because "a mixed methods way of thinking, values, multiple ways of seeing and hearing, multiple ways of making sense of the social world and multiple standpoints" (Green, 2007, p. 20). This being the case, MMR is not committed to a particular philosophical belief, as declared by Levy (2017, p. 168). For the MMR community, pragmatism is the most supported. Pragmatism originated among philosophers who believed that truth about the natural world could not be accessed through only one single scientific method. Moreover, social reality cannot be determined as constructed under the interpretive Paradigm. Henceforth, a mono-paradigmatic orientation of research was not sufficient. There was a great need, therefore, for approaches to research that could be more practical and pluralistic consenting to a "combination of methods that in conjunction could shed light on the actual behaviour of participants, the beliefs that stand behind those behaviours and consequences that are likely to follow from different behaviours" (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017, p. 26)

All that has been said earlier was conducive to the appearance of a new paradigm advocating the adoption of mixed methods as a pragmatic way to understand human behaviour. Pragmatists "focus on the outcomes of actions" (Morgan, 2013, p. 28), assuming "that whatever theories are useful in a particular context are thereby valid" (Levy, 2017, p. 168)

Teddlie and Abbas TashaKkori (2003) consider that pragmatism involves using both qualitative and quantitative methods; what is important is to place the research question at the centre of the investigation and relate it to every relevant methodological decision.

Pragmatism maintains a relational epistemology (i.e., relationships in a study are best identified by what the researcher dims appropriate to that study, a non-singular reality ontology. (That there is no single reality, and all individuals have their own and unique interpretations of reality). A mixed-methods methodology combines quantitative and qualitative research methods, and it is "of value-Iaden axiology", which means conducting research that benefits people (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Thenceforward, the present study employs first a qualitative method which tried to draw inferences making use of the social constructivist assumptions. Hamersley (1998), Suppe (1977), Sayer (2000) and others considered that sciences had been dominated by realism, an ontological position. Realism, as noted by Ormestom et al. (2013), is an "external reality which exists independently of people’s beliefs about or understanding of it. " (p. 4,5)

Cregg (2000, p. 384, as quoted in Doman, 2005), emphasising the multiplicity of perspectives, asseverated that "realism allows for multiple theories to bloom and flourish" (p. 132). The study's objectives are to deepen the research perspectives with speech act research by delving further into the factors that impede the development of pragmatic ability, particularly politeness in utilising requests; therefore, this research is firmly founded in interpretivism. Language and language learning problems should be perceived and addressed, giving possible and logical interpretations. Moreover, this inquiry identifies itself with Brown & Levinson 's politeness theory for the second part of the study and social constructivism for the first part. The former is the L2 most appropriate for setting the investigational targets

within the quantitative portion of the ponder. The theory presented politeness models of negative and positive politeness, and more importantly, the sociological factors that are crucial to consider in producing the different speech acts. Accordingly, making allowance for Hall's view of language, as cited in Crystal (1997), is "the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other" (p. 400). One can deduce that language is a system, and Language acquisition is undoubtedly a social phenomenon acquired and constructed in society by dint of interaction with the language users.

Not only that, Dekeyser and Juffs (2005) authenticated that "nobody would doubt that language, first or second, is an aspect of human cognition". From both views, language beyond doubt is a product of cognition. This is also clear in Smith's (1991) example describing second language acquisition by a cake which dough is cognitive; however, the icing is social. On that account, the researcher in this study plumps for a socio-cognitive approach to SLA; however, the icing is social. Hence, the researcher in this study plumps for the sociocognitive approach to SLA.

A classroom is a possible place for a society like a context. The videos are the material used in this pedagogical intervention. They are the source for authentic material and real-life conversations that are studied to sort out the illocutionary force and thence discover the underlying social rules controlling the choice of one structure rather than another. This study, therefore, is entrenched in social constructivism that considers truth or meaning as coming "into existence in and out of our engagement with realities in our world meaning that it is not discovered but constructed" (Crotty, 1998, p. 9). Crotty (2003) adds That "meaning is not simply found. It is actively constructed by human beings, through their consciousness as they engage with the world" (p. 43).

3.3 Research Approach

This study aims at identifying the whys and wherefores of third-year English learners' pragmatic failure, which is at the basis of the decisions to be made in, phase two; the pedagogical treatment. Many scholars, including (Kasper & Rose,2002; Rose (2005); Bardovi-Harlig et al. (1991) Ishihara & Cohen (2014), think that pragmatics instruction plays a facilitative role in the development of L2 learners' pragmatic competence. As a result, this study must use a sequential design; a research strategy that begins with a qualitative phase followed by a quantitative phase or with a qualitative phase followed by a quantitative phase (Hesse-biber, 2010, p. 105). Sequential mixed methods can be either explanatory or exploratory. Explanatory sequential design is a design in which the researcher gathers and analyses quantitative data before collecting and analysing qualitative data. On the other hand, the exploratory sequential design begins with the collection and analysis of qualitative data, followed by a quantitative investigation. Building the data is the type of integration utilised, as defined by Leavy (2017), "one data set of results is used to design the other phase of research. "

Cresswell (2015) defines exploratory sequential design as examining a topic using qualitative approaches and then using the findings to build a quantitative device and phase of the investigation. According to Leavy (2017), the analysed qualitative data will be used to create an experimental intervention. As reviewed, explanatory and exploratory sequential designs are both based on the sequencing of time ordering of the quantitative and qualitative methods. The assumption guiding these designs is that both the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study are of relatively equal importance to the overall research purpose.

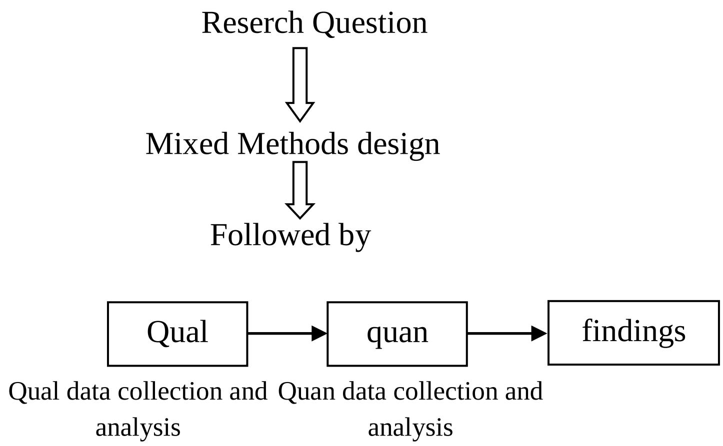

Figure 6. Exploratory Sequential Design

Henceforth, this investigation falls in design one where the qualitative method (the recording of naturally occurring data) makes a supplemental as it provided important insights to the core (the quantitative method for the aim of designing treatment in phase 2) targeting the development of learners' pragmatic competence of speech acts of request.

3.4 Research Design

Three types of research design are adopted all over the probation process: Case study, cross-sectional and quasi-experimental.

3.4.1 Case study. Case studies are considered by researchers as indispensable sources of research data. They are considered "important sources of research data, either on their own or to supplement other kinds of data, and constitute an approach to research in their own right" (p. 375). It is also defined by Nisbet and Watt (1984, p.72 as cited in Cohen; Manion & Morrison, 2018) as "a specific instance that is frequently designed illustrate a more general principle." Alternatively, it is the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances" (Stake, 1995, p.xi). However, Cresswell (1994p.12) points out his view of the term saying, for example, "a child, a clique, a class, a school, a community". What is essential is that a case study "provides a unique example of real people in real situations, enabling readers to understand ideas more clearly than simply by presenting them with abstract theories or principles" (Cohen et al.,2018, p. 376). The current research is concerned with the case of third-year English students at Biskra University's Department of English. They fail pragmatically to produce appropriate requests in the classroom and fail to utilise the needed strategies to mitigate their requests when necessary. Because the findings are specific to this case, they should not be generalised.

Denscombe (2014) description illustrates quite well case studies. He points out that an in-depth study of one setting characterizes case studies, a concern for the particular; multiple data collection methods, and a focus on natural settings (p. 54 as cited in Cohen et al., 2018, p. 376). It is worth noting that case studies in education are of paramount importance as they can inform policymakers, practitioners and theorists. Bassey (1999, as cited in Cohen et al. 2018) adds that "case studies examine an exciting aspect of educational activity, programme, institution, or system mainly its natural context and within an ethic of respect for persons such that plausible, trustworthy explanations and interpretations can be offered after collecting sufficient data in exploring the significant features of the case" (p. 58). Informed by Robson (2002, p. 183) and Yin (2009, p. 15) case studies opt for analytic rather than statistical generalization

The purpose of the research is to analyse data to inform the various factors that cause the pragmatic failure of third-year learners who are about to graduate and are considered would-be teachers. The researcher returned to diagnose the modal verbs grammar lesson scheduled for the second year to determine the causes for their failure. However, generalisation is not the goal of this study because the case study is intimately connected to its environment, which may not be the same in another case. Nevertheless, the results here can be "a part of a growing pool of data, with multiple case studies contributing to greater generalisability" (Cohen et al. l,2018, p. 380). At this stage in the research, the researcher sorts out conclusions about the type of classroom interaction between teacher /learners, learner /learner, the type of requests used in the classroom and more importantly, the presence or the absence of the pragmatic dimension.

3.4.2 Quasi-experimental design. True experiments, such as randomly assigning participants to control or experimental groups, are frequently impossible to conduct in educational research. Quasi-experiments are used in field experimentation, which takes place outside of the laboratory. At best, they may be able to use something resembling a true experimental design in which they have control over what Campbell & Stanley (1963) refer to as "the who and to whom of measurement" but lack control over 'the when and to whom of exposure,' or the randomization of exposures – both of which are required for true experimentation (Cohen, Manion, Morrison, 2007).

Since the pedagogical treatment is about integrating the pragmatic factor in the grammar lesson of modal verbs in pursuit of an analysis of the observation data in which the students were from another group, this second step is designated as a pre-test post-test quasi-experimental design. The treatment, which lasts eight sessions of one hour, focuses on only one group of 20 students from the entire population of second-year students. The goal is to control this group on the independent variable, which is the integration of pragmatic component in grammar lesson of request. Following the intervention, the researcher accounted for differences in pre-test and post-test results to determine the independent variable's impact on the dependent variable, the learners' production of polite requests.

3.4.3 Cross sectional design. The current study employs a cross-sectional design since it gives a snapshot of a population of second-year students, wherein the researcher examined one group and another of the same population was subjected to a pedagogical treatment, with the goal of assisting second year students in utilising more strategies and being aware of the necessity of mitigating requests using the various modifiers. Cross-sectional studies are more commonly used in education to provide indirect measurements of the type and pace of change in the request production of samples of students.

3.5 Data Collection Methods and Rationale

In this study, classroom observation was used for the qualitative phase, while a written discourse completion test (WDCT) was used for the quantitative phase.

3.5.1 Classroom Observation. The primary goal of this investigation is to assist learners in developing their pragmatic competence, specifically in developing the pragmatic capacity to utilise appropriate requests with appropriate strategies and needed modifiers. To accomplish that, it was critical first to identify the Fons et origo that were impeding advanced learners or would-be teachers who failed to mitigate their requests to create effective treatment. This can be possible only by exploring the grammar lesson of modal verbs scheduled in the second year. "Modal verbs" is the only lesson learners have to get informed about basic request structure "formal and informal requests" "direct and indirect".

To explore this lesson, how it is presented, what type of information learners are exposed to through this lesson, whether learners are exposed to language form and language function during a grammar lesson; is the teacher aware of the importance of integrating function with form. In other words, do teachers attach importance to language appropriacy the way they do for language accuracy? Furthermore, are learners given a chance to practice the learned structure in a natural context with peers? Are teachers using indirect requests in the classroom?

These concerns can be alleviated by examining what happens in the classroom during the modal verbs lecture for second-year students. Without a doubt, a classroom observation is the finest tool for recording naturally occurring data and thus providing the researcher with the required answers, which can be found in the transcribed version of the observed session. Everyday discussions, institutional talks such as classroom involvement, email exchanges, interactions in a virtual environment, and published writings are examples of authentic data.

Authentic discourse is the "gold standard" of L2 pragmatics data because it displays how language users use language in the real world, allowing significant inferences about pragmatic abilities to be drawn.

"Recording of authentic discourse allows investigation of a wide range of discourse features, and they enable investigators to observe the phenomena of interest, rather than relying on participants' self-reports," Kasper and Rose (2002) confirm, The authors went on to say that "authentic discourse is motivated and structured by participants rather than by the researcher's goal." This is precisely what the current study's researcher sought to do: shed light on what happens in the classroom with its many features. There are two kinds of observation; closed or structured observation. The observer uses predefined categories in an observation schedule, a form that must be filled out during the observation sessions (Spada & Lyster, 1997 as cited in Gass, 2012, p. 186). However, in open observation, the investigator "develops categories based on what emerges during the observation itself "(p.186). Authentic data include everyday conversations, institutional talks like classroom interaction, email exchanges, interactions in a virtual environment, and published texts.

Field observations are one method for gathering naturalistic spoken data. Researchers used to take notes to aid in reconstructing memories from talks. However, field notes do not record paralinguistic components of the discussion, such as gestures, postures, and facial expressions that have pragmatic implications. As a result, the researcher should pay attention to gestures, tone of voice, physical environment, gender, speakers' ages, and even the speakers' relative social position and social distance, as advised by Ishihara and Cohen (2010). Nevertheless, field notes are essential for providing contextual information and are requisite in pragmatic studies. For example, Wolfson (1989) confirmed that field notes proved to be a lucrative method for studying compliments in different varieties of English. Still, the most prescient study dealing with the compliment responses would not have been possible without the microanalysis yielded by the audio-recorded data. Accordingly, with advances in technology, it becomes wieldier to make a recording of real-life conversations, yet to foreclose the observer's paradox, which refers to the "inadvertent observer effects on the data" (Labov, 1972).

Recordings need a significant time commitment, on the one hand, in resolving various practical, technical, legal, and ethical concerns, and on the other, in acquiring recording gear and transcribing words. Nonetheless, some experts believe that audio or video recording is nearly impossible. For example, Jucker (2018) discusses "inadvertent observer impacts on the data" concerning the Observer Paradox. Similarly, Labov (1972) affirms that "the aim of linguistic research in the community must be to find out how people talk when they are or are being systematically observed, yet we can only obtain this data by systematic observation." Labov's remarks describe the difficulties in recording natural data, which is most natural when the observer has no role in the speech occurrence and no pre-determined topic to impose. Go (2019) cites research done by Shivley (2015) in which L2 Spanish learners taped their interactions using a mobile recorder with no predetermined subject.

Moreover, participants should know about the recording. However, being aware of the recording make them less natural. Duranti (1997) notes that the"Observer Effect" is typically temporal, particularly in schools, where routinised behaviours are firmly over learnt and difficult to alter. They immediately reappear after the encounter. This author adds that the researcher's presence at his or her recording equipment in the environment sometime before the recording would undoubtedly assist participants in getting acquainted, so data gathered becomes more natural. This extra time, according to Kasper, is considered a necessary element of the data collecting process. The researcher in this study used open observation. The researcher, who was an observer, recorded the lesson that took place in one session, with the time allocated being reduced due to pandemic measures. The modal verbs lesson includes only modals, their uses, and functions for each modal verb. Requests are only one of many lesson components, though they are the most common in real-life conversations.

3.5.2 Discourse completion task. Discourse completion task (henceforth DCT) is used to elicit speech acts. The DCT scenarios vary, as explained by Nguyen (2019), in contextual parameters of power, social distance and degree of imposition, allowing researchers to investigate the speech acts in a range of situations. DCT is formed out of a set of described situations followed by a gap for the participants to respond. Every situation contains details about the interlocutors, the relation between interlocutors, social distance and contextual information needed to help elicit the appropriate response. DCT can also be oral, eliciting a one-turn response (Liu & Taguchi, 2013a). However, Computer-delivered oral DCTs are used to measure response times, and the aim is to learn about the learners' pragmatic performance fluency.

The discourse completion test is the most widely used data collection tool in cross-cultural pragmatics. It helps compare speech acts across interlanguage in interlanguage pragmatics and catechises EF learners' pragmatic competence and development. In a similar vein, Ogiermann (2018) avouch that "The discourse completion test is the only available data collection instrument that generates sufficiently large corpora of comparable systematically varied speech act data". Though DCT responses are not similar to naturally occurring data and do not capture what is said in real-life situations, it reflects what is acceptable in a particular situation.

Besides, the administrative advantages give this instrument an estimable value. (Golato, 2003) . The DCT is "highly controlled and can be administered to a large group of participants in one setting, allowing researchers to collect a large amount of compatible data across participants and groups in one setting" (Nguyen,2019 p.200). It helps research languages that have not yet been pragmatically characterised and speech acts that have not been described in better-documented languages. The DCT is an excellent instrument for producing large amounts of cross-linguistic data and providing insights into the pragmatics of language and language variations. The discourse completion tests provide the three kinds of data for interlanguage pragmatics. It allows for a comparison of the native and target languages and an examination of the pragmatic aspects of the inter-language and the pragmatic evolution (Kasper, 1995). The DCT can be single-turn or multi-turn. In the former, participants provide one turn responses. However, in the second, participants are asked to compose a short dialogue based on a given scenario, including turns for birth, both parties. In this type of DCT, the interlocutors' responses are known in advance, but this information is not available in real-life situations and thus affects the participants' responses (Golato, 2003).

Enlightened by Kasper & Rose (2002) and Cohen (2004), Besides classroom observation, the researcher in this probe used the written discourse completion test.

The test opted for in this study is a production test, a single-turn open-ended written completion test to examine the appropriate production in various situations where sociocultural variables alter in each setting, such as the social distance between interlocutors, the extent and rank of imposition.

3.5.2.1 Pre and post-intervention tasks. According to Beebe and Cummings (1996); Kasper and Dahl (1991), a written discourse completion test "might nevertheless effectively elicit learners' anticipated vocal language." Learners may be able to provide more thoughtful or socially desirable responses in such written tests, possibly even more indicative of their knowledge of what a speaker might say than when put on the spot orally" (as cited in Ishihara & Cohen, 2010, p.274). The researcher used the DCT after comparing the learners' production in both tests to conclude the efficacy of the pedagogical treatment. The WDCT contains a set of briefly described situations with a space left to the learner to produce a response and suggest the request needed with the necessary modifications and strategies. 08 scenarios designating socially differentiated situations are suggested. The test limns non-identical situations learners may encounter in their daily life situations; family, social and academic. They are student life orientated to indulge learners easily in the situations and therefore, ensure their natural reflection and guarantee the naturalness of data.

To avoid boredom, brief descriptions are noted down, designating the essential elements to consider when forming the request, as such the relation between interlocutors, the setting, and the weightiness of the request. The overall aim of the DCT was to assess the worth of instruction on the development of pragmatic features. The test had been validated twice: once to another group of second-year students, and secondly by an English from Japan via messenger. Comments had been taken into consideration to modify some of the suggested situations.

3.6 Data analysis

3.6.1 Qualitative data. Qualitative data were gathered via a classroom observation recording. The recording has been transcribed and analysed using the discourse analysis model of Sinclair and Coulthard model (1975). Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) were the first to perform a more comprehensive examination of the entire classroom interaction in L1 research. Although this study technique may have allowed for a quantitative approach, it was designed to redefine the proper categories utilised to characterise discourse. The two scholars think that instructors' and students' speech is based on a fairly set of conceptions of their roles, with a conversation of highly organised sequences. Sinclair and Coulthard envisioned classroom interaction as a hierarchically structured system of "ranks".

The "act" is the most basic unit of discourse structure. Acts are stated using clauses or single words. The "move," which corresponds to the fundamental functional unit of discourse, is the second smallest unit of discourse structure. Sinclair and Coulthard's concept of "move" shares many parallels with the traditional concept of "speech act," but there are some significant distinctions. "Moves" are generally performed by a head act, with optional starter, pre-head, and post-head performances. The fundamental "move" types include framing, opening, responding, eliciting, informing, acknowledging, and guiding. Traditional speech act theories are familiar with actions like answering, eliciting, informing, and guiding (Searle, 1975)

Meta-linguistic speech actions shape conversation, including framing, opening, and recognizing gestures. An "exchange" is a small series of movements, and a starting move, a replying move, and a follow-up move comprise a canonical exchange. The study of transcripts from British classrooms by Sinclair and Coulthard (Allwright & Bailey, 2002, p.12) allows for creating a hierarchy of interaction units. These units can be recognised in educational settings all across the world. Hence, the lesson is the largest unit, which is made up of units called "transactions," which are made up of "exchanges," which are made up of "moves," which are made up of the smallest interaction unit.

The Sinclair and Coulthard Subdivision of Classroom Talk:

- The lesson: consists of an unordered series of transactions.
- The transaction: consists of one or more than one exchange.
- The exchange: consists of an Initiation (I), Response (R), and an Evaluation, Feedback or Follow-up (E): IRF or IRE.
- The move: is the structural component of an Initiation, Response, and Evaluation.
- Act: Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) devised twenty-two acts specifically to classroom talk, as the table below shows:

Table 1

The hierarchical Relation and Types of Exchanges, Moves and acts as Defined by the S&C (1975) Method of Discourse Analysis

Class of exchange	Class of move	Class of act
teaching	opening	(marker) (starter) elicit* direct* inform* check* (prompt) (clue) (cue) (bid) (nomination)
	(answering)	acknowledge* reply* react* (comment)
	(follow-up)	(accept) (evaluate) (comment)
boundary	framing	marker* silent stress*
	focusing	(marker) (starter) meta-statement* conclusion* (comment)
Key: Parentheses denote optional elements. Asterisks denote core elements. Where there is more than one core element, at least one of them is required to be present, with the exception of the framing move, where both		

Exchanges

There are two types of exchanges defined: boundary exchanges and educational exchanges. According to S&C (1975), boundary exchanges indicate the start or end of what the teacher considers to be a discrete part (transaction) of the lesson. In contrast, teaching exchanges are used to deliver the lesson's pedagogic content and are characterised by the four primary functions of informing, directing, eliciting, and checking.

Additionally, eleven subcategories of teaching exchanges are distinguished; six are unrestricted exchanges, and five are restricted exchanges. The latter type of exchange is dependent on the former and cannot occur independently: "the function of bound exchanges is fixed because they either lack an initiating move or have an initiating move without a head that serves only to reiterate the head of the preceding free initiation" (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975, p. 49).

Moves

A move is "the smallest free unit, although act structure" (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975, p. 23). Five distinct moves are identified and described: framing and focusing moves that facilitate boundary exchanges; and opening, responding, and following-up moves that facilitate teaching exchanges. Framing moves are composed of a limited set of words, such as "well" or "OK," that indicate the start of a new lesson section. Focusing moves are meta-statements that describe the subject of the next section of the lesson. By "passing on information, directing an activity, or eliciting a fact," opening moves "induce others to participate in an exchange." Each opening move is followed by an answering move, defined as "a response that is appropriate in the context of the opening move" (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975, p. 45). The purpose of follow-up moves is to "let the pupil know how well he or she has performed" (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975, p. 48).

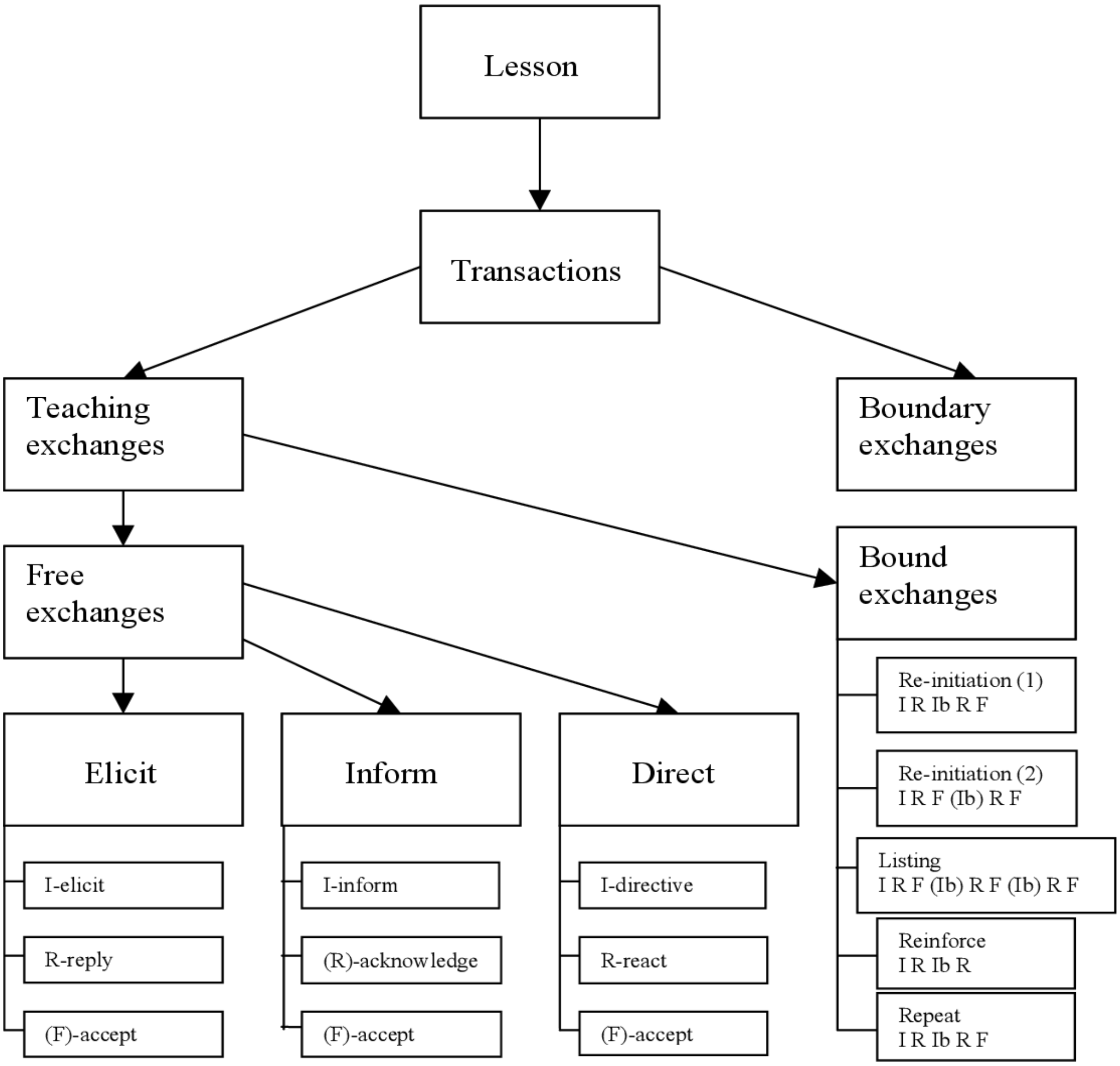

Figure 7. A diagrammatic representation of Sinclair and Coulthard's Initiation-Response Follow-up Model (adapted from Farooq, 1999b, p. 31)

Scholars have not consistently supported the Sinclair and Coulthard paradigm, though it has been criticised in various ways.For example, Levinson (1983) was the first to criticise the premise that each utterance may be classified as a single move type. To back this argument, Levinson presented an example that had nothing to do with classroom discussion, and it is as follows:

A. Do you want another drink?

B. Yes, thank you, but just keep it small.

According to Levinson (1983), "the initial utterance appears to be both an inquiry and an offer, as suggested by the response.". Tsui (1989:163) argues in favour of the Sinclair and Coulthard model. Tsui (1989, p. 163) supported the Sinclair & Coulthard model, claiming that the purpose of discourse analysis in the Hallidayan perspective of language is to organize a system. A system is a group of options that are paradigmatically opposed to one another. An offer and a request for information will stand in paradigmatic connections in any conceivable system network of options available to start a conversation, for example, Tsui's result (1989), the system, therefore, must "describe the choices that are available to interlocutors at different points in the discourse process in the form of systems operating at different places in the discourse opposition." (p. 171).

Each utterance is categorised based on its influence on the utterances that come after it. Similarly, Sinclair and Coulthard approached code utterances based only on their influence on discourse rather than the participants in that discourse. Interaction observers understand that the answer to a question, for example, might have far-reaching implications beyond its position as the fulfilment of an informative gesture. Such categories indicate a preoccupation with the relationship between the conversation's participants rather than the structure of the conversation itself (p. 151).

3.6.2 Quantitative data.

3.6.2.1 Linguistic analysis. The WDCT was meant to elicit requests from participants who offered requests in response to the presented circumstances. That output was characterised linguistically by extrapolating the key patterns and trends. They were then analyzed using the suggested framework analysis of speech act changes utilised in this study, the types of modifications (both external and internal), and the frequency with which they were applied. The results were analysed based on the participants' syntactic choice of formulaic language (the modal employed, such as "could," "would," or "can"), as well as the lexical appropriateness of this choice in relation to the sociocultural characteristics of the situation.

Downgraders, mitigating and supporting moves are among the devices under consideration. The descriptive statistics supported this linguistic analysis to highlight changes in learners' performance.

3.6.2.2 Framework of Linguistic Analysis. The WDCT data were coded using Blum-Kulka et al. (1989). The latter suggests a coding system, which gives a thorough description of request head act techniques and types of internal and external modifications. The four primary areas of analysis are the level of the directness of the request's strategy head act, the external modification of the head act, the internal modification of the head act, and the duration of the whole request act. In terms of the amount of directness of requests, this includes direct strategies (D), conventionally indirect strategies (CID), and non-conventionally indirect strategies (NCID) (NCID).

Regarding the external modification of the head act, it includes supporting movements to minimise face-threatening forces, alerters to notify the hearer of the forthcoming speech act, and grounders to give the interlocutor a justification for the incurring request. Internal head act modification consists of syntactical and lexical or phrasal modifiers within the head act to either soften or amplify the impact of the request. Finally, the length of the whole request act includes the head act and its level of complexity.

3.6.2.2.1 Levels of Directness of Request Strategies. Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) classify request strategies depending on the transparency of the illocutionary force, ranging from somewhat transparent strategies to highly opaque ones. The illocutionary power of the utterance for the D requests is shown by expressing the most direct request possible, as in: "bring me a chair." Fixed linguistic norms are employed to indicate the illocution in the CID, requesting which linguistic material is utilized to interpret meaning in conjunction with contextual information.

Henceforth, data from the production WDCT were linguistically analysed by identifying the major language expressions utilized by learners. They were then categorised into varying levels of directness using a coding system derived from Blum-Kulka et al CCSARP framework (1989), which involved multiple sorts of request expressions totalling nine categories. Direct requests, for example, have imperatives, performatives (both hedged and explicit), responsibilities, and desire expressions. Preparatory and recommendations are examples of normally indirect requests, but non-conventionally indirect requests include strong hints and moderate hints.

This study examined learners' production using Taguchi's (2006,p. 521) structure, which was expanded upon by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989). To demonstrate, Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) expanded Blum-framework Kulka's to include preliminary inquiries, mitigated preparatory and mitigated desires, totalling twelve types. It is hoped that these modifications and additional analysis will help to refine and improve the linguistic analysis of the participants' work.

A Lexical/Phrasal Downgraders

Table 2

Taxonomy of Lexical Downgraders

Name	Definition	Devices	Illustrations
1. Politeness marker (device) 'please'	"An optional element added to a request to bid for co-operativebehaviour" (Blum-Kulka *et al.*, 1989: 283)	'Please'	'Can I pleasehave an extension on thispaper?' 'Could I use youpen for a minute please?'
2. Consultative devices	"Expressions by means of which the speaker seeks to involve the hearer directly bidding for co-operation" (Blum-Kulka *et al.*, 1989: 283)	'Would you mind', 'do you think', 'would it beall right if', 'is it/would it be possible', 'do youthink I could', 'is it all right'	'Would you mind lending me a hand?' 'Do you think I could borrow your lecture notes from yesterday?'

3. Downtoners	"Modifiers which are used by the speaker in order to modulate the impact his or her request is likely to have on the hearer" (Blum-Kulka *et al*., 1989: 284).	'Possibly', 'pe rhaps','just', 'rather', 'maybe'	'Is there any wayI could get anextension?' 'Will you be able to perhaps drive me?'
4. Understaters/ Hedges	"Adverbial modifiers by means of which the speaker underrepresentsthe state of affairs denoted in the proposition" (Blum-Kulka *et al.*, 1989:283). The speaker minimises the required action or object (Xiao-le, 2011: 109).	'A bit', 'a little', 'sortof', 'kind of'	'If you have a minute, could you help me with this stuff?' 'Could you tidy up a bit before I start?'
5. Subjectivisers	"Elements in which the speaker explicitly expresses his or her subjective opinion vis-à-vis the state of affair referred to in the proposition,thus lowering the assertive force of the request" (Blum-Kulka *et al.*, 1989: 284)	'I'm afraid', 'I wonder','I think/suppose'	'I wonder if you could tidy upyour desk?'
6. Cajolers (to persuade somebody gently)	"Conventionalised, addressee-oriented modifiers whose function is to make things clearer to the addressee and invite him/her to metaphorically participate in the speech act" (Sifianou, 1992: 180)	'You know', 'You see'	'You know I don'thave a car.'
7. Appealers	"Addressee-oriented elements occurring in a syntactically final position. They may signal turn availability and "are used by the speaker whenever he or she wishes to appeal to his or her hearer's benevolent understanding" (Blum-Kulka *et al.*, 1989: 285)	'Clean the table, dear,will you?... ok/right?'	'I need your computer to finish my assignments,okay?'

3.6.2.2.2 Request Components. According to Halupka-Reetar (2014: 33), a request consists of three major components: (a) the alerter or address phrase, (b) the head act, and (c) the supporting moves.

I. **Alerter:** is a critical sociopragmatic feature of the stage of dialogue initiation. The word refers to the language used to initiate a conversation or the manner in which calls are made in accordance with established standards and conventions depending on a variety of social characteristics, including age, social status, social distance, and the context of the utterance (Savic 2014, Blum-Kulka et al. 1989). Alerters are the initial components that linguistically pique the reader's interest. They include things like attention getters (Excuse me, Pardon me, and so on) and words of address (Mrs Hughes, Mr Smith, and so on).

II. The Head Act: “The head act is that part of the sequence which might serve to realize the act independently of other elements; namely it is the minimal unit which can realize a request: the core of the request sequence”. In other words, it is the core of the request or the request proper as in the non-linguistic term. For example, in the following request, the head act is the one underlined: "Danny, can you remind me later to bring the book for you on Monday? Otherwise, it may slip out of my mind" (Blum-Kulka et al. 1989, p. 203). Thereupon, the head-act is the smallest unit of an utterance that expresses a request. It is the most crucial component of the speech act sequence and the only one that must be completed. This head act includes the previously stated D, CID, and NCID strategies.

III. Supportive moves: “In using specific types of supportive moves, a speaker intends to mitigate or aggravate his request. Supportive moves are external to the head act occurring either before or after a head act”. The underlined statement in this request is an example of the supportive move: "Danny, can you remind me later to bring the book for you on Monday? Otherwise it may slip out of my mind". In many cases, the analysis of head acts and supportive moves relate the requests to whether it is a direct or indirect speech act. The studies are much discussed in the literature of linguistic politeness. Thus, they are modification devices that are used to change requests that precede or follow the head act, and they influence the context in which the actual act is set. Their role is either to mitigate (downgrade) or to exacerbate (increase) the illocutionary power of the request (Halupka-Reetar, 2014: 34). Faerch and Kasper (1989) classified supporting movements as internal and external modification devices. The former is accomplished by devices inside the same head act, whereas the latter is located within its immediate environment.

1. External Modifications: External modifications (supporting moves) are positioned outside the head act. They are supplementary assertions that help support the main request by setting its context, i.e., reducing or exacerbating its illocutionary force. In their coding system, Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) CCSARP identifies external changes in requests as supporting moves that can be appended before or after the head act to lessen the illocutionary impact of the request. External modifications: may be used to either lessen or emphasize the overall strength of the request. Table 3.3 shows the final taxonomy of external modifications used in this study (adapted from Halupka-Reetar, 2014: 34; Woodfield, 2012; & Xiao-le, 2011: 109), which was developed in collaboration with Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) and Sifianou (1999), where two additional modification types were fused in the final taxonomy to enhance and fine-tune the analysis:

Table 3

Taxonomy of External Modifications

Name	Definition	Devices
1. Grounder	A clause which can either precede or follow a request and allows the speaker to give reasons, explanations or justifications for his or her request.	‘I would like an assignment extension because I cannot submit because I had some problems at home.’ ‘I wasn’t in class the other day because I was sick.’
2. Disarmer	A phrase with which “a speaker tries to remove any potential objections the hearer might raise upon being confronted with the request” (Blum-Kulka *et al*., 1989: 287) “The speaker indicates awareness of a	‘I know that this assignment is importantbut could you...?’ ‘I know this is shortnotice.’

	potential offense and thereby possible refusal" (Xiao-le, 2011: 109)	
3. Preparator	The speaker prepares the hearer for the ensuing request. It might also be to check the hearer's availability (Xiao-le, 2011: 109)	'I really need a favour…' 'Hey, you had this management class,right?'
3. Getting pre-commitment	The speaker checks on a potential refusal before performing the request by trying to get the hearer to commit.	'Could you do me afavour?'
5. Promise(of reward)	The speaker makes a promise to be fulfilled upon completion of the requested act.	'Could you give me an extension? I promise I'll have it ready by tomorrow.' 'I'll buy you dinner.'
6.Imposition minimiser/ Cost minimiser	"The speaker tries to reduce the imposition placed on the hearer by this request." (Blum- Kulka *et al.*, 1989: 288). The speaker indicates consideration of imposition to the requestee involved in compliance with the request (Xiao-le, 2011: 109).	'I would like to ask for an extension. Just for a few days.' 'I will return them in an orderly fashion'
7. Apology	The speaker apologises for posing the request and/or for the imposition incurred.	'I'm very sorry but I need an extension on this project.' 'I'm sorry I can't give you the lesson on Monday.'
8. Discourse orientation move	Opening discourse moves which serve an orientation function but do not necessarily mitigate or aggravate the request in any way.	'You know the seminar paper I'm supposed to be giving on the 29th…'
9. Appreciation & Confirmatory strategy/ Sweetener	The speaker shows appreciation for doing the request and/or for the imposition incurred. The speaker shows exaggerated appreciation of the	'I would appreciate it.' 'I would be grateful if youcould help me.'

	requestee's ability to comply with the request (Xiao-le, 2011: 109).	
10.Self introduction	The speaker's self-introduction serves as a mitigator to the request and the imposition by highlighting the relationship or acquaintance.	'Hey, I'm in your politicsclass.'

2. Internal Modifications: internal modifications, According to Schauer (2009, p. 167) and Sifianou (1999, p. 157,158), are linguistic components that occur inside the same head act. They are either linguistic or syntactic devices that speakers use to modulate the illocutionary force of their request, and they are further classified as downgraders and upgraders. According to the CCSARP coding handbook (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989), downgraders are classified into two types: lexical/phrasal downgraders and syntactic downgraders. Tables 3.4 and 3.5 show the categorization of internal changes utilized in this study: 2)

Downgraders and Intensifiers: They are two types. Internal modifying devices include intensifiers and softeners. Softeners reduce the force of the request by using terms like for a minute, for a bit, etc.; downtoners use expressions like perhaps, perhaps; and hedges use expressions like kind of, kind of, etc. In terms of intensifiers, they amplify the effect of the request by utilizing words like dreadfully, terrible, and so on.

I. Downgraders (Softeners): Downgraders internally change the request head act, lowering its illocutionary power. These might be either syntactic or lexical in nature.

A) Lexical/Phrasal Downgraders:

Table 4

Taxonomy of Lexical Downgraders

Name	Definition	Devices	Illustrations
1. Politeness marker (device) 'please'	"An optional element added to a request to bid for co-operativebehaviour" (Blum-Kulka *et al.*, 1989: 283)	'Please'	'Can I please have an extension on this paper?' 'Could I use youpen for a minute please?'
2.Consultative devices	"Expressions by means of which the speaker seeks to involve the hearer directly bidding for co-operation" (Blum-Kulka *et al.*, 1989: 283)	'Would you mind', 'do you think', 'would it be all right if', 'is it/would it be possible', 'do youthink I could', 'is it all right'	'Would you mind lending me a hand?' 'Do you think I could borrow your lecture notes from yesterday?'
3. Downtoners	"Modifiers which are used by the speaker in order to modulate the impact his or her request is likely to have on the hearer" (Blum-Kulka *et al.*, 1989: 284).	'Possibly', 'perhaps', 'just', 'rather', 'maybe'	'Is there any way I could get an extension?' 'Will you be able to perhaps drive me?'
4. Understaters/ Hedges	"Adverbial modifiers by means of which the speaker underrepresents the state of affairs denoted in the proposition" (Blum-Kulka *et al.*, 1989: 283). The speaker minimises the required action or object (Xiao-le, 2011: 109).	'A bit', 'a little', 'sortof', 'kind of'	'If you have a minute, could you help me with this stuff?' 'Could you tidy up a bit before I start?'
5.Subjectivisers	"Elements in which the speaker explicitly expresses his or her subjective opinion vis-à-vis the state of affair referred to in the proposition, thus lowering the assertive force of the request"	'I'm afraid', 'I wonder', 'I think/suppose'	'I wonder if you could tidy upyour desk?'

	(Blum-Kulka *et al.*, 1989: 284)		
6. Cajolers (to persuade somebody gently)	"Conventionalised, addressee-oriented modifiers whose function is to make things clearer to the addressee and invite him/her to metaphorically participate in the speech act" (Sifianou, 1992: 180)	'You know', 'You see'	'You know I don'thave a car.'
7. Appealers	"Addressee-oriented elements occurring in a syntactically final position. They may signal turn availability and "are used by the speaker whenever he or she wishes to appeal to his or her hearer's benevolent understanding" (Blum-Kulka *et al.*, 1989: 285)	'Clean the table, dear, will you?... ok/right?'	'I need your computer to finish my assignments, okay?'

B Syntactical Downgraders:

Tableau 5

Taxonomy of Syntactical Downgraders

Name	Illustration
1. Conditional structures	'Could you give me an extension…'
2. Conditional clause (embedded if clause)	'…if it's possible to have an extension…' '...if you have time..' 'I wouldappreciate it if you left me alone.'
3. Tense (past tense)	'Is it all right if I asked for an extension…' ' I wanted to ask for apostponement.' 'I was wondering if I could join your study group.'
4. Aspect / Play-down	'I was wondering if it's possible to have an extension for theassignment.'
5. Interrogative	'Would you mind doing the cooking tonight?' 'Could you do the cleaningup?'

6. Negation of preparatory Condition	'I don't suppose there is any chance of an extension?' 'Look, excuseme, I wonder if you wouldn't mind dropping me home?'

3.7 Population and Sampling

The participants in this study were divided into two groups, each of which consisted of twenty second-year Algerian EFL students from the Department of English at Biskra University. All participants share the same demographic characteristics: their field of study, the primary subject of interest, and their first language (native Arabic speakers). The participants' ages ranged from 20 to 23, including males and females. When it came to their experiences living in places where English was the national language, no one had any kind of experience. This convenience sample seems to be the most suited for the current investigation, as random assignment of participants was not possible due to the study's use of classes officially defined by level, language competency, and instructor. One group was assigned to phase one, while the other was assigned to the pedagogical intervention. The modals lesson was taught to learners in both groups. On the other hand, the second group was chosen to learn only one of the modals function, request.

The Rationale for Participant Selection

The sample used in this study is well stratified with the population of second-year students. It reflects diverse backgrounds and shares several characteristics with the target population, such as control exposure to the TL, gender, and shared background. The sample chosen is intended to be representative of the population under consideration.

The participants are considered suitable for the investigation for three reasons: They share a common first language and socioeconomic background. They have the same linguistic level as the participants, which appeared suitable for this study, given that they are required to learn modals during their second year. The pragmatic failure was determined with third-year learners deemed to be advanced. According to Economidou-Kogetsidis (2008: 22), most research examining FL learners' request production has focused on advanced learners rather than advanced than intermediate-lower-level learners. This research aims to assist advanced Algerian learners in resolving one of their pragmatic areas, requests.

3.8 Description of the Study

As per the fact that the present study addresses the search for the underpinnings of the learners' pragmatic failure to produce appropriate requests to elaborate an adequate instructional intervention to help develop the learners' pragmatic competence in polite request production. Ishihara & Cohen (2014, Jeon and Kaya ‘s (2006), Kasper& Rose (2002) and Bardovi-Harlig (1991) agree that instructional intervention, whether implicit or explicit, has a beneficial role in boosting L2 learners' pragmatic competence. Therefore, sequential design opted for in this probation is to qualitatively exp class of second-year students of English, a one-hour grammar lesson one-hour Since the perceived role of the EFL teacher is to prepare learners to use English outside the classroom and informed by Nunan (1987), who argues that the style of language used in the classroom environment may seriously affect the students' ability to cope in the real world, Therefore, it seems expedient for the researcher to analyse the classroom language and assess its effectiveness. Classroom observation of this lesson is conducted to examine how modals are instructed what type of speech acts are used by the teacher, taking into consideration that learners are first introduced to the request structure, formal and informal, direct and indirect.

This initial exploration or classroom ethnography, as confessed by Hornerberger and Corsen (1997, p.135), “emphasizes the sociocultural nature of teaching and learning processes, incorporates participants perspectives on their behaviour, and offers a holistic analysis sensitive to levels of context in which interactions and classrooms are situated. It took a discourse analytic approach using Sinclair Coulthard Model (1975) to provide the researcher with the needed findings on which she developed the instructional measures going all out for helping learners develop their pragmatic competence of request speech act. The tentatively planned quantitative phase explores the role of pragmatics instruction on EFL learners' comprehension and production of requests. The pedagogical treatment is based on awareness raising procedures and collaborative dialogue practices to explicitly teach the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic features needed for appropriate use of the learned speech act. This being so, the present inquisition purports to have a stake in the existing body of pragmatics competence development research where the target is to boost learners by experimenting “at a deeper level »with language. In that, Bardovi-Harlig et al. (1991, p.13,14) stated that learners are stumped for to use language for the purpose of language communication, and this can be possible through explicit metapragmatic teaching, which proved to have a convenient effect on learners’ production, as confirmed by Eslami-Rasekh et al. (2004).

3.8.1 The exploratory phase. The exploratory phase consists of recording naturally occurring data from a grammar lesson of modal verbs with second-year students. The purpose of this recording was to examine the classroom interaction between teacher and learner, learner and learner, to identify the type of speech acts used in the classroom by both teacher and learner, direct and indirect acts. Another aim of this exploration was to examine whether there was an incorporation of any kind of pragmatic information during the lesson, i.e., whether learners were introduced in grammar to context-sensitive or function or context-free elements. The latter was about the different functions of modal verbs, among which requesting. Grammar teachers through Socle commun, the ministerial curriculum, are provided only by titles of the lessons. It is up to the teacher to decide about the content of every lesson.

3.8.2 The pedagogical intervention. The intervention was divided into three stages: a warm-up, a pragmatic consciousness-raising, and a communicative practice stage. First, the participants' attention was brought to the difference between their L1 and its cultural backdrop and the TL and its cultural context during the warm-up stage. Furthermore, the sociolinguistic and sociocultural factors underlying the act of asking in both the L1 and the TL were investigated. They were exposed to suitable input, NSs' requests highlighting the essential components of a request and request strategies with possible external and internal modification devices. Following that, during the pragmatic consciousness-raising stage, participants have been exposed to the appropriate input NSs' requests and taught what a request is, emphasizing the necessity of modifying devices and their many types and tools. They were also given raising awareness exercises. The learners' attention was focused on the setting, the interlocutors, their relationship, social distance, the power concerns involved, the magnitude of the target request's imposition, and all the pragmatic target features and the sociolinguistic variables pertinent to the speech event at hand.

Lastly, during the practice stage, participants were given the opportunity in a collaborative dialogue to utilize and negotiate request strategies and modification devices in simulated communicative settings, either in writing or orally. The arrangement of these steps is consistent with Bardovi-Harlig's (2003, p. 38) idea that pragmatic instruction activities offer input to learners before they try to understand and perform.

3.8.2.1 Warm-up stage. The warm-up stage's goal was to activate the learners' schemata by eliciting thoughts and information about what they already know about requests and the differences between their L1 and TL speech patterns. Learners were exposed to adequate input and NSs' requests through video snippets. According to Derakhshan and Eslami (2015), familiarising learners with the similarities and contrasts between their L1-TL through films that authenticate real-life events and bring them to the classroom environment is considered an effective technique of pragmatics education. This stage was designed to draw participants' attention to the sociolinguistic and sociocultural factors that underpin the act of requesting in both the L1 and the TL. That used the learners already developed pragmatic system in their first language as a springboard for their pragmatic growth in the second language. It emphasised the successful usage of strategic similarities that they can apply and the undetectable distinctions that they are prone to coming across in producing non-target like utterances. A variety of elicitation questions related to the learners'

L1 and culture were used, such as 'What do people say to request in Arabic?', e.g. 'When asking something from someone in your mother tongue, do you consider the status of the person you are requesting from?' These questions were used to demonstrate that some speech acts, such as requests in their first language, can be influenced by a variety of sociolinguistic and sociocultural variables, such as the size of imposition, social distance, and power, as defined by Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory.

3.8.2.2 Language Input and Pragmatic Awareness Rising. The learners were provided with linguistic scenarios, including requests in the second stage. They were instructed to identify the pragmalinguistic forms and the sociopragmatic variables (size of imposition, social distance, and power) that govern the appropriateness of request alleviating or aggravating devices.

The many sorts of strategies that may be employed when requesting were discussed, as well as whether the forms are direct, conventionally indirect, or non-conventionally indirect, as well as the softening devices that go with these requests. Several collaborative dialogues were implemented to improve learners' understanding of cross-cultural and cross-linguistic distinctions between their L1 and the TL and their pragmatic knowledge of the TL standards of behaviour.

Participants were provided with the video prompts that included direct awareness-raising tasks and questions that collected metapragmatic information on the TL request forms and discussions on the usage of relevant requests. They were clearly informed about what a request is, emphasising the significance of modification devices, their many categories and devices, and the elements that control their variation. Apart from getting explicit training on the language manifestations and formulae for delivering a speech act of request, the strategies employed and their softening mechanisms, i.e. pragmalinguistic components, were stressed.

Learners were made conversant with the social variables and contextual elements that control a request, including the sociopragmatic aspects of the scenario. P power, social distance, and size of imposition were identified and highlighted as essential characteristics that shape the social context. A wide range of naturally occurring requests from academic and daily life, as well as social settings, were used in the intervention materials to expose learners to the variety of scenarios they would experience in real life.

3.8.2.3 Stage of communicative practice. During this last stage, learners were given written and spoken chances to apply request strategies and modification devices in simulated communicative contexts. The activities are done collaboratively. In the collaborative dialogues approach chosen to encourage peer interaction, learners are encouraged to discuss and refine their expertise to get a new or more profound understanding of a phenomenon or situation via collaborative discussion. Learners use language as a cognitive tool to mediate their own and others' thoughts. Speaking generate an utterance, which is a product that may be questioned, supplemented, discredited, and so on Swain& Watanabe,2013).

This process of co-constructing meaning is known as collaborative conversation, and it is a source of language learning and growth. It is regarded as an opportunity to practise and experiment with these new shapes and patterns in a safe setting, the classroom first, away from any academic or face-threatening hazards in public performance. Swain has confirmed this with her colleagues, who demonstrated how peer-peer interaction allows L2 learners to participate in collaborative discourse while seeking and providing assistance with language-related issues (e.g., Swain & Lapkin, 2002; Watanabe & Swain, 2007; Brooks & Swain, 2009).

Conclusion

This chapter reviewed the methods employed in this investigation. A description of the exploratory mixed methods methodology, data collecting methods, and analytic methodologies opted for. This chapter also addressed the measures used during data collection and provided information on the sample. The next chapter will provide the findings of phase one.

Chapter Four: Analysis of the qualitative data

Introduction

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) developed the model in connection with the field of discourse analysis, which is concerned with the analysis of 'natural and extended samples of both spoken and written language' (Burns, 2001, p. 123). Cook (1989, p. ix) defines discourse analysis as a method for examining 'how stretches of language, when considered in their entirety textually, socially, and psychologically, become meaningful and unified for their users' while also providing 'insights into the problems and processes of language use and language learning. This growing discipline is of particular interest to language teachers attempting to achieve effective classroom communication. As McCarthy (199, p. 6) points out, the Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) model of discourse analysis (referred to as the S&C model in subsequent sections) 'has primarily followed structural-linguistic criteria, based on the isolation of units and sets of rules defining well-formed sequences of discourse'. Among the issues addressed by discourse analysis, according to Coulthard (1985, p. 9), are the following: 'How does one characterise and label the fundamental unit of interaction?4;'How many distinct functions are there? ';'How are these functions realised lexico-grammatically?'; and 'What structures are formed when these fundamental units combine'? Additionally, Sinclair and Coulthard regard discourse as distinct from grammar and phonology (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992; Burns, 2001).

The S&C model was developed to examine classroom interaction (teacher-pupil talk) in a large sample of recorded primary school lessons in the United Kingdom. The purpose of this discourse analysis was to demonstrate that when discourse is analysed 'after the fact,' it contains more order and form than may initially appear (Cook, 1989, p. 50). The data from the recorded lessons served as the foundation for their rank scale model. The S&C discourse analysis model (1975) was developed in response to Halliday's proposal for a rank scale structure (1961). Sinclair and Coulthard (1992) state that the rank scale format was chosen for its adaptability. In other words, because 'no rank is more important than any other,' it was simple to adjust the new model by adding new contributions as they were discovered (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1992, p. 2).

Additionally, each unit of the rank scale is composed of one or more subunits. The rank scale began with a lesson as the highest-ranking unit, followed by a transaction, an exchange, a move, and finally, an act as the lowest-ranking unit. The components of the rank scale are as follows:

Lessons were not examined during the analysis process. Moreover, they were considered 'a leap of faith' (Coulthard, 1985, p. 123), and there was no defined structure regarding their constituent units, transactions that corresponded to their rank scale placement. Additionally, ‘detailing transactions' 'proved to be difficult' (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992, p. 31). The purpose and scope of this work, on the other hand, presuppose the description of the rank scale's lower units, namely exchanges, moves, and acts. In the S&C model, exchanges are classified as boundary exchanges or teaching exchanges. Boundary exchanges are used to divide and mark the stages of a lesson using two distinct types of moves: framing and focusing. Two primary types of teaching exchanges deal with the actual content of the lesson: unrestricted and restricted teaching exchanges. While free teaching exchanges can occur independently, bound teaching exchanges are dependent on the former.

According to Sinclair and Coulthard, a typical classroom exchange consists of the teacher initiating, the pupil responding, and the teacher providing feedback on the pupil's response to the teacher (1992, p. 3).

Moves are composed of acts as constituents, and moves themselves occupy positions in the structure of exchanges' (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1992, p. 21). Apart from the framing and focusing moves mentioned previously, which are associated with boundary exchanges, the S&C model also includes the opening, answering, and follow-up moves used to define teaching exchanges. Each move's primary function is defined by its Head, which is the primary act in the move's structure. Table 1 summarises the five S&C types of moves and their acts and associated functions. Three primary head acts frequently appear in opening moves: elicitation, directive, and informative (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992, p.15). There are instances when a move contains multiple acts; however, a head act is required, while the other acts are optional.

Due to the course's emphasis on modals and their functions, the transcribed lesson was not viewed as a typical model of communicative instruction. Nonetheless, the S&C analysis was supposed to ascertain the frequency of communicative behaviours within the context of the overall classroom interaction. As McCarthy(1991) notes, "by studying linguistic classroom interaction, we may ascertain whether there is a healthy balance or an imbalance between real conversation and 'teacher' discourse" (p.18).

The S&C model's application has been lauded for its simplicity (McCarthy, 1991). By contrast, a criticism frequently arose due to difficulties discovered during conversation examination in less structured contexts. As a result, numerous authors recommended adjustments like Coulthard (1985) noted Berry (1981) and Stubbs (1981). (1981). Additionally, Francis and Hunston (1992), Coulthard and Brazil (1992), and Willis (1992) made proposals to address various facets of the identified difficulties. For instance, Coulthard and Brazil (1992) recommend altering the exchange structure by introducing a new Response/Initiation move. The researcher referred to response continuity to different responses from different learners.

4.1 Structure of the Lesson

The lesson transcript contains 60 minutes of instruction. There were 18 students in attendance out of twenty, one group of second-year English students at Biskra university. The group consisted of twenty students. There was only one teacher present, and the researcher served as an observer, documenting the lesson. The students' names have been changed to numbers to maintain anonymity, and individual students' contributions are not recognised.

Following transcription, the extracts were ranked using the S&C rank scale. The transcript demonstrated a typical IRF exchange structure but with occasional difficulties in categorising, reinforcing the idea that these excerpts were teacher-led, with whole-class or individual answers and some follow-up form.

The lesson was divided into transactions and sub-transactions and consisted of several floors. Transaction refers to the major events and components that comprise the lesson. Obviously, the teacher is expected to cover them sequentially, point by point, until the lesson is completed. Each transaction contains at least one sub-transaction representing the various steps taken in one transaction. Each sub-transaction is made up of exchanges. The exchange concludes when the point or idea under discussion has been completely covered and is ended with feedback from the teacher.

Table 6

Lesson Division

Floors	**T. Floors**	**S. Floors**	**Transactions**	**Sub- transactions**	**Moves**	**Acts**
89	43	46	09	14	I.42 R.47 F.21	189

The table below shows the various components that comprise the recorded lesson (number of floors, number of transactions, number of sub-transactions, moves and acts). These results permitted us to analyse the interactive roles of participants defined as the turn types, which were coded using a three-part exchange I-R-F. This three-part exchange reflected the structural organization of turns and subsequently exchanges.

- I stands for initiation turn which indicates the start of a new exchange.
- R stands for response to a previous initiation turn.
- F stands for feedback that closes the exchange.

The table reveals the interactive roles of teachers with 43 turns and learners with 46 turns, which seems interesting, particularly if compared with 47 as several learners' responses move. However, the teacher initiation moves are about 42. The total acts performed by both teacher and learners are counted in the whole lesson as 189.

4.2 Analysis of the Transactions

The following table details the various transactions and sub-transactions that comprise the lesson. The lesson is divided into nine transactions and fourteen sub-transactions. Generally, each transaction contains only one sub-transaction; however, transactions 8 and 9 contain two sub-transactions. This is entirely reasonable in a session that lasted only an hour and required the teacher to introduce eight functions. The fact that all transactions were not detailed. The number of teacher and learner turns during the lesson is displayed for each transaction. The teacher begins the lesson by discussing modal verbs in general and their functions. Then she moved on to emphasise the distinction between auxiliary verbs and modal verbs.

In addition, some of the characteristics of modal verbs, in general, were discussed. The teacher demonstrated the various functions of modals one by one using examples. Some were written on the whiteboard, while others were distributed later in the handouts. The teacher was reading examples and attempting to elicit learners' individual conclusions through questions in order to stimulate learners' interaction within a limited time frame, one hour, due to the university's scenario as a result of the epidemic, which necessitates reducing the hourly size for each module. The number of floors is appended to indicate the extent to which learners were engaged during the class.

Table 7

Analysis of Transactions

Transactions	Sub-transactions	N° of Floors
1.Review	1. What is a modal verb?	T: 01
		Ss: 01
	2. Modal verbs functions.	T: 01
		Ss: 01
	3. What are the differences between auxiliary	T: 07
	verbs and modal verbs?	Ss: 06
	4. Characteristics of modal verbs.	T: 06
		Ss:07
2.Possibility	1.what is possibility	T: 02
		Ss: 02
3.Obligation	1.what is obligation	T: 02
		Ss:02
4.Advice and order	1.should and ought to	T: 02
		Ss:02
5.Ability	1.How to express ability	T: 05
		Ss: 09
6.Permission	1.How to express permission	T: 05
		Ss:04
7.Suggestion	1.How to express suggestion	T: 01
		Ss:01
8.Offer	1.How to offer	T: 02
	2.formal and informal offer	Ss: 01
9.Request	1.What is a request	T: 08
	2.formal and informal requests	Ss: 11

4.3 A sample of Transcript Analysis

Transaction 9

Request

Floor 73- T: Well, the last communicative function is request. So, what is request first?

Initiation (starter + elicitation)

Floor 74- S4: Ask for something

Response (explain)

Floor 75- T: Good

- Eh when you ask someone to do something for you as you have said.
- For example, S5 asked me before to repeat explaining the difference between must and have to.
- It was a request but not a polite request eh that is why you have to follow me to learn about modal verbs.
- Ok?

Feedback (accept + comment) + initiation (directive + loop+ comprehension check)

Floor 76- Ss: Yes

Response (inform)

Floor 77-T: You have to use tow form polite requests.

- Eh, we have two forms: interrogative forms and affirmative or positive forms.
- For interrogative form we use can or could and eh could is more polite than can euh .
- If you ask a question from your teacher or a stranger.
- Eh, for example can you keep me informed?
- Eh, and here could you keep me informed?
- The last one is more polite.
- We have other expressions that can be used to express requests for instance we have here.
- Do you mind waiting a moment this request is not polite at all.
- The second example can you wait a moment?
- Would you wait a moment or will you and would you like to wait a moment / May I /Can I/ Could I eh these expressions are used to form polite requests.
- Clear?

Initiation (inform + comment+ loop+ comprehension check)

Floor 78- Ss: Miss, can I request without the use of can and could?

Response (exploratory request)

Floor 79-T: Yes, we can ask for something in affirmative sentence.

I say shut the door.

Please .I can start the sentence by please.

Eh, please give me an example, an example, there is no could or would or can eh no modals are used

Feedback (accept + inform) + initiation (application request)

Floor 78- S16: Tow coffees, please

Response (reply)

Floor 79- T: How do we call this?

Floor 80-S1: yes?

Feedback (accept) + initiation (exploratory request)

Floor 81- S16: What? The example? A sentence!

Response (explain)

Floor 82-T: It is not A Sentence simply because there is no verb, no subject and verb- but we consider it is a phrase.

- Maybe you have seen that before in written expression
- When we write a sentence like a phrase is an error, we call it sentence fragment.
- In conversation there is what we call sentence fragment.
- It is not a sentence, but accepted in conversation eh and it is a request eh I may say I want two coffees please. It is not formal and I may say I would like two coffees. eh or I may say I would like that you prepare me two coffees and I may add please.
- Is it ok?

Feedback (disagree + clarification) + initiation (inform + comprehension request)

Floor 83- Ss: Yes.

Response (inform)

Floor 84T: Any question?

- Do you know all these things?

Initiation complete (information request)

Floor 85-Ss: Yes.

Response (reply)

Floor 86-Ss: What I am doing here?

- You know them and you don't practice them?

Initiation (elicitation +exploratory + information question)

Floor 87- Ss: (laughter) yes.

Response (inform)

Floor 88- S3: Because of our culture

Response (clarification)

Floor 89-T: Why?

- Our culture and religion taught us to do polite. Don't throw this on our culture

Feedback (negative-evaluation+ comment)

The following table is a more detailed application of the IRF on floors73-74-75 in transaction 9.

3.4 Analysis of Floors

Table 8

Analysis of Floor 73-74-75

Exchange	Initiation	Act	Response	Act	Follow up	Act
Frame	Well, the last communicative function is request.	ms				
Elicit	So what is request first?	el	Ask for something	Rep	Good	e
Inform	When you ask someone to do something for you. S5 asked me before to repeat explaining the difference between must and have to. It was a request but not a polite request. It was a request but not a polite request	cl				
Focus	Eh, That is why you have to follow me	L				
Directive	to learn about modal verbs.	d				
Check	Ok?	m	Yes	ack		

4.5 Analysis of Learners' Talk

Table 9

Analysis of Learners Responses

Collective responses "yes"	Individual responses
44.68%	55.32%

Table 10

Analysis of Learners' Interactions

Acts	I	R	F
Learners	0 %	100 %	0%

It is pretty surprising to discover that learners responded 100% of the time with no initiation and no feedback. Learners responded only to teacher elicitations. Even though they are of an advanced level, they did not initiate, discuss ideas, ask questions, and interact with peers with a certain level of English. Henceforth, they were passive participants in the learning process, with the teacher serving as the classroom's sole speaker. That is, learners, finish with this lesson and many other grammar lessons incapable of practising even the most basic of the acquired structures in the classroom, let alone with peers. They all include the newly acquired structure in the handout and examples of its use in the lesson. Learners who received no feedback could not analyse, judge, or express an opinion on their environment**.**

4.6 The Amount of Teacher Talk

Table 11

IRF Types

The Pattern of IRF Types	Percentage
Teacher Initiation	60,31%
Students Response	28,58%
Teacher Feedback	11,11%

The above table demonstrates that 71.42 of the 189 acts performed in the classroom constitute the teacher's talk. Compared to the amount of talk by learners, which accounts for 28.58 per cent of total acts, this number illustrates how teacher-centred this classroom is. Around a third only of the discourse was devoted to learners. As a result, the teacher dominated classroom discussion; this is an unsubstantiated assumption. However, the following equation supports the preceding conclusion (60.31 + 11.11=82.53).

Though the number of learners floors in Table 1 was encouraging, it surpassed the teacher's floors. Unfortunately, according to the chart, 44.68 per cent, or roughly half, of the registered learners' participation in the classroom was through collective responses. So that, they are all responses to the teacher's comprehension check (all right? Clear? Yes?). Every elicitation or informative act is followed by a comprehension check immediately followed by a collective “yes”, making the number of learners’ floors closer to that of the teacher. Now, were all learners included in the remaining 55.32 per cent? To address this question, the researcher references the full lesson transcript to determine whether or not all learners participated. S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, and S6 were used to refer to the learners mentioned above. There were no more than six students out of 20 responding to the teacher's elicitations. Some of them, such as S1, S2, and S5, responded repeatedly. This uncovers a remarkable absence of interaction, particularly between peers. learners' speech directed to the teacher answers her questions.

4.7 Analysis of Teacher Talk

Table 12

Analysis of Teachers Acts

Initiation				Follow up	
Inform	Elicit	direct	Check	Acknowledge	evaluate
22.22%	13.33%	00.74%	14.07%	1.4%	10.37%

The table above reveals the amount of teacher's talk in terms of the four primary functions: informing, directing, eliciting, and checking of the teaching exchanges added to acknowledge and evaluate acts suggested by Sinclair Coulthard (1975). First of all, the teacher informs in 22.22% of the talk, elicit in13.33%, checks comprehension in 14.07%. What is noteworthy is that the teacher directs in 00.74 per cent of the class, which equates to one directive act, even though this category usually covers the exchanges designed to get the learner to do something. As for the request sub-transaction, the teacher read and clarified the proposed requests in the lesson, like the use of can and could, please, affirmative and interrogative forms in a request; and then she explained formal and informal structures. Though the teacher mentioned polite requests at the start of the sub-transaction, she did not elaborate on what being polite in requests entails? How to make and when to make polite requests? Since the core of the present enquiry is about a directive act, the speech act of request, the researcher expected to find a significant number of directives performed in the classroom to provide learners with some sample structures from time to time. A classroom is an important place where English learners should be exposed to how the target language is used in daily life situations. Most teacher talk is related to lesson elements to inform learners about the different uses of modals through a set of examples written on the board. The teacher read then explained one by one, trying to elicit learners to talk and sort out the target structure. Sometimes, the teacher refers to examples in the handout. She went on briefly from one element to another; one hour seemed insufficient to thoroughly cover all the lesson components.

On top of that, the transcript shows that learners did not practice the given structures; they suggested no examples to confirm their understanding of the learned forms. Those forms were limited to only one context from which they were constructed. Contextual factors controlling the occurrence of one form and not the other like the interlocutors, the relation between them were not mentioned in all stages of the lesson.

It is also essential to highlight the lack of practice in the classroom. Learners did not have the opportunity to practise the learnt modals either orally or written through homework, perhaps because of the one-hour session. When asked about practice, the teacher confirmed that some are planned in a separate session during which learners will practice modals and other grammar forms as a sort of review.

As for teachers' feedback, acknowledgements and evaluations make up 11.41% of the acts, a minority compared to initiation acts. Since no practice exercises were suggested to learners, there were limited chances to express themselves in interaction with their tutor, interact with peers, or even err. Interaction turned around the examples explained by the teacher, where some responses to elicitations were provided. Learners were not given chances to practise on one hand and directives to call for reactions.

4.7.1 Teacher's questions. Questioning is a fundamental method teachers use to foster classroom engagement and motivate students to practise their target language speaking skills. Examining the teacher's questions helps learn about the most often asked questions during the lesson. Throughout the course, the instructor asked 45 questions. Twenty-four of these were yes/no questions, for which learners responded with a collective yes. Depending on the transcript, the second half consisted of comprehension questions about the board examples. Although questions are necessary elicitations to assist learners with expressing their ideas, confirming their comprehension, and revealing the learners' knowledge foundation, learners kept providing short answers with collective "yes". Every elicitation and initiation teaching move is followed by an exploratory question on a floor 10, 12, 13, 15, 19, 21, 23, 25, 27, 30, 32, 36.40.44.49.52.73.81.83.78.20. The goal of these 20 floors is to elicit information from learners whose responses were limited to a maximum of 20 responses. However, 19 of the total responses were automatic responses to comprehension checks administered by the teacher, equal to the number of responses to elicitations administered by the teacher. They are in the form of "yes".

The researcher learnt that the teacher was stressed to complete the lecture because it was a prerequisite prior to examinations. She needed to cover all pertinent elements to aid students in accurately answering questions on the exam paper. The teacher confirmed this notion, noting that this is the same lecture and handout as in previous years, created in collaboration with all grammar teachers at this level (second year).

4.8 Discussion of the Results

The lesson transcript helped to sort out essential conclusions to answer the previously asked research questions as such:

- Why do learners fail to produce polite requests?
- What are the reasons behind the learners’ pragmatic failure?

Perhaps most significantly, is the pragmatic dimension integrated into the classroom, i.e., are instructors aware of the requirement for teaching language form in conjunction with its function?

To begin with, typically, a teacher questioning is a frequently used strategy in classroom interaction; according to Galls (as cited in David, 2007), more than half of classroom conversation is dominated by questioning and response. According to David (2007), a teacher's question is critical for classroom interaction in a second language classroom.

Teachers' questions are one aspect of teacher discourse based on classroom interaction analytic methodologies created by Moskowitz, namely Foreign Language Interaction Analysis (FLINT). Yanfen and Yuqin (2010) asserted that teachers initiate classroom interactions primarily through questions. This fact provides a broad perspective on the relationship between the teacher's question and classroom engagement, implying that the discussion of the teacher's question cannot be divorced from classroom interaction. Moreover, interaction is also critical for language teachers and learners. It is referred to as the "heart of communication." Brown (2009) defines it as the interchange of thoughts, feelings, and ideas between two or more persons, mutually influencing both communicators.

Interaction cannot occur effortlessly and organically. Teachers must continually engage and motivate pupils to participate actively in classroom engagement. Additionally, the stimulus provided by teachers at the start of classroom interaction is critical for developing an engaged language classroom. The results did not reflect any of that. teachers questions were limited to one type, comprehension check, intending to repeat in case of lack of understanding on the part of learners. The nature of this type is to get a collective '*yes*'. Eliciting questions make 13.33% of the teacher's talk only and 22.22% of informing. However, developing questioning methods or techniques is critical for teachers to establish and maintain interaction in the classroom. Due to the general reluctance of EFL students to initiate and maintain engagement, teachers' questions serve as a crucial stepping stone for students to participate in the classroom conversation. Teachers' failure to encourage learners' engagement in the classroom was among the reasons that limited learners talk and, therefore, learners practice and use the learned structure. Practice simultaneously is a kind of auto-evaluation for learners through which learners try and err and end with internalising the acceptable structure

Therewithal, in theory, the classroom interaction is patterned using the IRF. The teacher's initiation is followed by student response, and feedback from the teacher is the final move in exchanges during classroom activities. Asking questions sparked student interaction because it allowed them to participate actively in their responses, which the instructor then confirmed. In this lesson, teacher-learner interaction confines what Dayag (2008) noted that the teacher initiates the response. It means that students interact with one another in response to teacher stimuli. To respond effectively, one must keep in mind that both the initiator and the respondent may be tutors or students in a given exchange. The tutor's response is expected in the elicit exchange between students. Following the tutor's initiation, the students execute response moves in real-time. Along the same vein, Kasper(1997) added that 'teacher-fronted classroom discourse displays

- a narrower range of speech acts (**Long, Adams, McLean, & Castaños**, 1976)

- a lack of politeness marking (**Lörscher & Schulze**, 1988)
- shorter and less complex openings and closings (**Lörscher**, 1986; **Kasper**, 1989)
- monopolization of discourse organization and management by the teacher (**Lörscher**, 1986; **Ellis**, 1990), and consequently,
- a limited range of discourse markers (**Kasper**, 1989) " (p.115)

Exactly, this can be the case with those learners who were only receivers of language structure and rules one by one with a short explanation from the instructor, with no observed verbal behaviour from learners responding to the teacher's elicitations. The teacher's feedback is restricted to a few acknowledgements and evaluations of the student's comprehension of the structure of examples. This sort of classroom interaction, dubbed the teacher-fronted classroom by Kasper (1997), provides learners with a relatively limited range of communicative actions that oppose pragmatic competence development. On top of that, Lee (2018) mentioned that many teachers place a higher premium on corrective feedback on grammar than on pragmatic behaviours and forms (Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford 1993; Taguchi 2012, 2015a, b). Professors responding to graduate students' questions during academic advising sessions in Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford's study (1993) focussed on content. No corrective feedback was given regarding the appropriateness of the students' refusals or suggestions in their pragmatic forms. Similarly, in Taguchi's (2012) study, teachers encouraged students to voice their thoughts but paid little attention to linguistic forms, resulting in limited use of a few modals and phrases. While there are numerous possibilities for interaction in the classroom, the type of interactions and the development of L2 speech acts may be constrained.

In addition, no peer interaction was shown during the lesson, and learners did not participate in any form of initiations to demonstrate their knowledge, except for yes responses, which cannot be assumed without oral or written assessment. Given the importance of classroom interaction, which has been shown to play a crucial role in internalising L2 pragmatic knowledge, the absence of interaction with teacher and peers is concerning. However, learning from fellow learners and discussing L2 pragmatic topics in their L1 when studying is crucial to acquiring L2. For instance, Hassall's exploratory study (2015) confirmed the influence of fellow learners on L2 pragmatic development in a 7-week study abroad programme at a private Christian university in Central Java, drawing on 32 diaries and interviews with 12 Australian learners of Indonesian with varying proficiency levels. The students spent much time interacting with native Indonesian speakers throughout the programme while travelling, shopping, and staying in a homestay environment. They practised various speech acts (e.g., complaints, requests and refusals). Nine different exercises provided abundant opportunities for learners to notice and learn how their peers used pragmatic elements when conversing with local Indonesians, such as host families and taxi drivers, and vice versa, on various occasions.

The learners were able to (1) notice the form-function relationship, (2) provide pragmatic input on pragmatic routines and norms, (3) reflect on the similarities and differences between their own culture and the target culture in performing certain speech acts (e.g., complaining directly to taxi-drivers), (4) assess the appropriateness of fellow learners' pragmatic knowledge, and (5) modify their behaviour and knowledge as a result of the observations, interactions, and mutual learning. Discussions with fellow learners in their L1 regarding pragmatic features and applicable forms enhanced pragmatic awareness. The students corrected each other's speech, shared personal interaction tales, devised practical activities (such as complaining about a street vendor's fee), and worked together. Classroom instruction, exposure to the target language, culture, and norms, or learning from peers is crucial for developing L2 pragmatic competence. Salvadore's refusal behaviour evolved over time as a result of explicit training, and he was aware of the modified refusal behaviour, according to a case study of a participant's performance.

Over and above that, a structure to be acquired and then used appropriately had to be tightly connected to its contextual factors controlling its occurrence in one context and not in another. Awareness of these factors is the role of the teacher. Riddiford and Holmes (2015) assert that their study provides solid evidence of the teachability of sociopragmatic competence (p. 139). Shively (2011) studies requests based on natural audio recordings of service contacts from seven Spanish learners in Toledo throughout a three-month stay. Learners' reflective journals, semi-structured interviews, and background surveys, as well as the researcher's field notes from observations, were used to enhance the authentic conversation. Before the study began, all participants were taught how context and language affect and convey pragmatic information. Another 30-minute class on requesting in Spanish was held in the middle of the semester. As a result of the combined training approaches, changes in requestive behaviour were seen at the end of the study.

Conclusion

This exploration was of help in providing some information and explanations about the reasons behind the pragmatic failure of English learners. Most importantly, the pragmatic dimension seems to be absent or neglected since the learner use of the target structure was limited to some examples in artificial contexts. It was also noted that different pragmalinguistic choices were absent during the lessons and considerations of the various social factors dictating one strategy rather than another like the direct and indirect forms. The focus was merely on introducing formal and informal requests rather than introducing how, when, and to whom they should be used.

Moreover, learners were introduced to the head act form of the request with a total absence of supporting moves. Maybe they are not a part of the scheduled lesson. Learners' preference of direct request strategy was recorded simply because teachers' acts were direct, like in “Explain to your classmates!” with occasional use of preparatory questions like requests as such "Can you give an example?” or “Could you explain that?”. In this case, learners internalised the frequently used structures in the classroom. The teacher overused direct requests, although learners had to learn that redressing requests' main form should have been indirect. As a result, indirectness was nearly absent in the students’ speech. Learners need to know that the more indirect their requests are, the more polite they will be. Therefore, failure to use the learnt grammatical structures appropriately in real-life contexts resulted from the teachers' failure to integrate the pragmatic dimension in grammar lessons.

Chapter Five: Analysis of the DCT and Discussion of Results

Introduction

Brown and Levinson's politeness model was used to analyse the data (considering negative face, positive face, politeness strategies, and social variables P, D, and R). The CCSARP request coding scheme was used to classify the production of requests (see chapter 3). Descriptive statistics were used to conduct additional analysis on the data: The first step was to create different SPSS windows for each situation and input all of the strategies employed for each participant, alerter, internal and external modifications for each request. The second step was to ascertain the frequency with which each participant employed these strategies and supporting moves (results by situation). The third stage was to identify the quantity and frequency with which a strategy and modifier were applied by all participants in the pre-test and the post-test to illustrate the collective strategy number adopted in each situation. This was accomplished by manually coding each strategy, calculating the number of times each strategy and modification type was employed for each participant and constructing tables with the data.

As previously stated, the current study categorised request strategies into three broad categories utilising Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989) coding scheme: direct, conventionally indirect, and non-conventionally indirect. Five of the head acts are considered direct (imperative, explicit performatives, hedged performatives, obligation statements, and want statements). Five are considered conventionally indirect (suggestions, preparatory question, permission, mitigated preparatory, mitigated wants). Two are considered non-conventionally indirect (suggestions, preparatory question, permission, mitigated preparatory, mitigated wants), and two are considered non-conventionally indirect (strong and mild hints). It is worth noting that the request with the head act containing modals is not counted as an internal modification but rather one time and within the preparatory question. Other bi-clausal structures, a negation of preparatory condition, and the use of past tense are counted as internal modifications.

5.1 Pre-test Analysis

The following table presents the valid number of students studied fully participated in the pedagogical treatment and answered both tests, the pre and post-test

Table 13

Valid number of Participants

Valid	15
Missing	0

5.1.1 Situation 1: With a brother.

Table 14

Strategies and Modifications in S1

	Strategies			Modifications			
	D	CID	NCID	INT/S	INT/L	EXT	ALERTER
Situation 1 (P- /D-/R-)	n=9/60%	n=6/40%	n=0/0%	n=1/6.7%	n=3/20%	N=2/13.3%	N=1/6.7%

The table above shows that **60% (n=9)** of students used direct strategy expressions, most of them used want statements around **26.7 %**. **40% (n=6)** out of the total proportion are learners who do not use this strategy. Most learners used direct strategies, particularly want statements and obligation statements. The imperative was also used by one of the learners. This is quite acceptable when the speaker addresses his or her younger brother, and there is no social distance between participants

Although learners have been introduced to modals and taught how to use them to form requests, they overgeneralize the indirect form of request learned before because they ignore the relevance of doing so in light of the situation's social variables (-P, -D, -R). Near the half of learners used the CID strategy, which approximately equals the percentage of the D strategy. The CID strategy used was only the preparatory question, which is the only structure they learnt previously using modal verbs can and could. the NCID strategy was not used at all.

As for the supporting moves, three learners out of fifteen used the politeness marker ‘please’, known mainly by learners, two used grounders, and the alerter was used only by one learner.

5.1.2 Situation 2: With a neighbour.

Table 15

Strategies and Modifications in S2

	Strategies			Modifications			
	D	CID	NCID	INT/S	INT/L	EXT	ALERTER
Situation 2 (P- /D+/R+)	n=9/60%	n=6/40%	n=0/0%	n=0/0%	n=3/20%	N=6/40%	N=4/26.7%

In situation 2, the learner has to produce a request for the neighbour to lower the music. The interlocutors are of equal power with a social distance and a considerable imposition. In situation two, the learner is supposed to be more tactful in request production. However, the results showed that most learners were direct. that is, nine learners out of fifteen preferred to use the direct strategy favouring the want statement (60%). Some learners used performatives, and others used obligation statements (33.3%). learners who had chosen the direct strategy are unaware of the contextual clues regulating the choice of one strategy rather than another.

Moreover, 40% of learners only used the CID, which is below half of the total number of participants. The indirect strategies learners chose were preparatory questions using modals and two permissions. The head act of the CID strategy was not all modified internally only with some politeness marker ‘please’ like in *Can you turn the music down?*

Could you turn the music down?

However, six learners managed to use the grounder as an external modification to justify their requests. The grounders used were placed after the head act. Seven learners produced requests formed of the head act only using no modifiers. They produced the structure they learned, thinking it was sufficient to make their requests polite. For alerters, four students used alerters like *hi bro or Hello my neighbour*. The NCID strategy was not used also in situation 2.

5.1.3 Situation 3: With a classmate.

Table 16

Strategies and Modifications in S3

	Strategies				Modifications		
	D	CID	NCID	INT/S	INT/L	EXT	ALERTER
Situation 3 (P- /D-/R+)	n=10/66.7%	n=5/33.3%	n=0/0%	n=1/6.7%	n=5/33.3%	N=6/40%	N=0/0%

In situation 3, learners were asked to request a classmate's copy at university. The interlocutors are of equal power with no social distance but with a degree of imposition. So, learners should consider those contextual variables when producing the request. The tables above showed that ten learners used direct strategies favouring want statements with six uses out of ten. Want statements in English are used when the requester expresses a wish that might be fulfilled from the requester's point of view, so it is clear from their responses that they expect the classmate to respond positively. So, the majority recoursed to the direct strategy, which is not the case for the English requesting in a similar situation. Three performatives were used, and one imperative, all classified direct. This is entirely possible in L1scenario; however, in an L2 context, they should change the strategy; otherwise, they would be considered rude. Though indirectness is required, the CID strategy was used only by five learners who preferred to use three preparatory questions with can and could like in:

- Can you give me your copy, please?
- Could anyone of you lend me a copy? (a copy)
- Can I lend from you a textbook? (can I have your copy)

NCID strategy was not used.

As for the modifiers, from the tables above, five learners used grounders to justify their requests, like in: *I have just lost my lecture.*

I have misplaced mine.

The frequently used internal modifier was the politeness marker ‘please.’ only one conditional is used as an internal syntactical modification, and the alerter was not used.

5.1.4 Situation 4: With a manager.

Table 17

Strategies and Modifications in S4

	Strategies			Modifications			
	D	CID	NCID	INT/S	INT/L	EXT	ALERTER
Situation 4 (P+ /D+/R+)	n=6/40%	n=7/46.7%	n=2/13.3%	n=0/0%	n=2/13.3%	N=4/26.7%	N=2/13.3%

In this situation, the learners were asked to request the manager who has a meeting to travel urgently. The results in the table above showed that more students used the CID strategy than the D strategy. six learners out of 15 used the CID strategy, particularly the preparatory question and one used CID permission like in:

- Can I leave this afternoon?
- Could you give me permission please to leave?
- May I leave this afternoon?

Two learners used the NCID strategy though, in this situation, the requester has to go straightforward because of the emergency of the request. Learners' direct strategies are two performatives: obligation and 3 want statements. Learners are not aware that direct strategies lead to the hearer’s refusal.

As for external and internal modifications, learners did not vary their requests syntactically. The only structure used was the ‘interrogative’ supported by the lexical modifier ‘please’. However, four learners used four grounders simply because, in L1, they used to justify their actions .however, two alerters were used.

5.1.5 Situation 5: With an employee.

Table 18

Strategies and Modifications in S5

	Strategies				Modifications		
	D	CID	NCID	INT/S	INT/L	EXT	ALERTER
Situation 5 (P- /D+/R-)	n=4/26.7%	n=8/53.3%	n=0/0%	n=1/6.7%	n=7/46.7%	N=4/26.7%	N=5/33.3%

In this situation, learners were asked to request a plumber from a company. Eight learners out of 15 used the CID strategy, all of which were preparatory questions. the requests were mitigated using the politeness marker please, which is an internal lexical modification like in :

- Can you please send me a plumber to fix my shower today ?
- Could you send a plumber to my house, please ? five learners
- Can you send a plumber to me, please ?

However, External modification was limited only to the use of the grounder by only four learners. This may be explained by the L1 transfer, as grounders are frequently used in Arabic to justify a request. As in the following example :

- Hello, I found my shower leaking, and I have to fix it as soon as possible because I have to travel tomorrow and I cannot leave and let the shower leaking.

The other four learners used only the head act with no external modification. Four other learners used the D strategy, two of them were want statements, and two were performatives.

As for the alerter, five learners used alerters the others used greetings like good mornings.

5. 1.6 Situation 6: With a stranger.

Table 19

Strategies and Modifications in S6

	Strategies			Modifications			
	D	CID	NCID	INT/S	INT/L	EXT	ALERTER
Situation 6 (P- /D+/R-)	n=8/53.3%	n=7/46.7%	n=0/0%	n=0/0%	n=8/53.3%	N=2/13.3%	N=3/20%

In situation six, learners were asked to provide a request asking a stranger in the street about a restaurant. Therefore, the majority of learners used direct strategies. Five of them used want statements, yet the rest used performatives though talking to a stranger necessitates indirectness. Learners favoured more directness than indirectness because they were influenced by their L1wherein directness is acceptable by language users even with strangers. As for the CID strategy, seven learners chose preparatory questions using modals can, could, and would as they were taught how to use them in requests. As in the following samples :

- Can you tell me the way to the restaurant, please ?
- Sorry, could you please show me the way to the restaurant ?
- Can you help me to find the restaurant, please ?

The requests are not mitigated only with the politeness marker ‘please’ and two grounders.

The alerter was used only by three learners as such: hello, hi, and.

5.1.7 Situation 7: With an organiser.

Table 20

Strategies and Modifications in S7

	Strategies			Modifications			
	D	CID	NCID	INT/S	INT/L	EXT	ALERTER
Situation 7 (P- /D+/R+)	n=8/53.3%	n=7/46.7%	n=0/0%	n=1/6.7%	n=5/33.3%	N=2/13.3%	N=3/20%

The above table shows that most learners used the direct strategy, and seven used the CID strategy mitigated by the politeness marker ‘please and two grounders. The alerters were not much used; only three learners used them.

5.1.8 Situation 8: With a professor.

Table 21

Strategies and Modifications in S8

	Strategies			Modifications			
	D	CID	NCID	INT/S	INT/L	EXT	ALERTER
Situation 7 (P+ /D-/R+)	n=8/53.3%	n=7/46.7%	n=0/0%	n=1/6.7%	n=3/20%	N=2/13.3%	N=3/20%

The above table shows that learners used most direct strategy, though the situation calls for more indirectness. The CID strategy consists of using one type, the preparatory question and one permission which were mitigated by the politeness marker ‘please.’ Three alerters were used.

Table 22

Frequency and Percentage of Strategies/Modifications in Situations from 1 to 8

	Strategies			Modifications			
	D	CID	NCID	INT/S	INT/L	EXT	ALERTER
Situation 1 (P- /D-/R-)	n=9/60%	n=6/40%	n=0/0%	n=1/6.7%	n=3/20%	N=2/13.3%	N=1/6.7%
Situation 2 (P- /D+/R+)	n=9/60%	n=6/40%	n=0/0%	n=0/0%	n=3/20%	n=6/40%	n=4/26.7%
Situation 3 (P- /D-/R+)	n=10/66.7%	n=5/33.3%	n=0/0%	n=1/6.7%	n=5/33.3%	n=6/40%	n=0/0%
Situation 4 (P+ /D+/R+)	n=6/40%	n=7/46.7%	n=2/13.3%	n=0/0%	n=2/13.3%	n=4/26.7%	n=2/13.3%
Situation 5 (P- /D+/R-)	n=4/26.7%	n=8/53.3%	n=0/0%	n=1/6.7%	n=7/46.7%	n=4/26.7%	n=5/33.3%
Situation 6 (P- /D+/R-)	n=8/53.3%	n=7/46.7%	n=0/0%	n=0/0%	n=8/53.3%	n=2/13.3%	n=3/20%

Situation 7 (P- /D+/R+)	n=8/53.3%	n=7/46.7%	n=0/0%	n=1/6.7%	n=5/33.3%	n=2/13.3%	n=3/20%
Situation 8 (P+ /D-/R+)	n=8/53.3%	n=7/46.7%	n=0/0%	n=0/0%	n=3/20%	n=2/13.3%	n=3/20%

Note. P→Power + High

D→Social distance - Low

R→Ranking of imposition

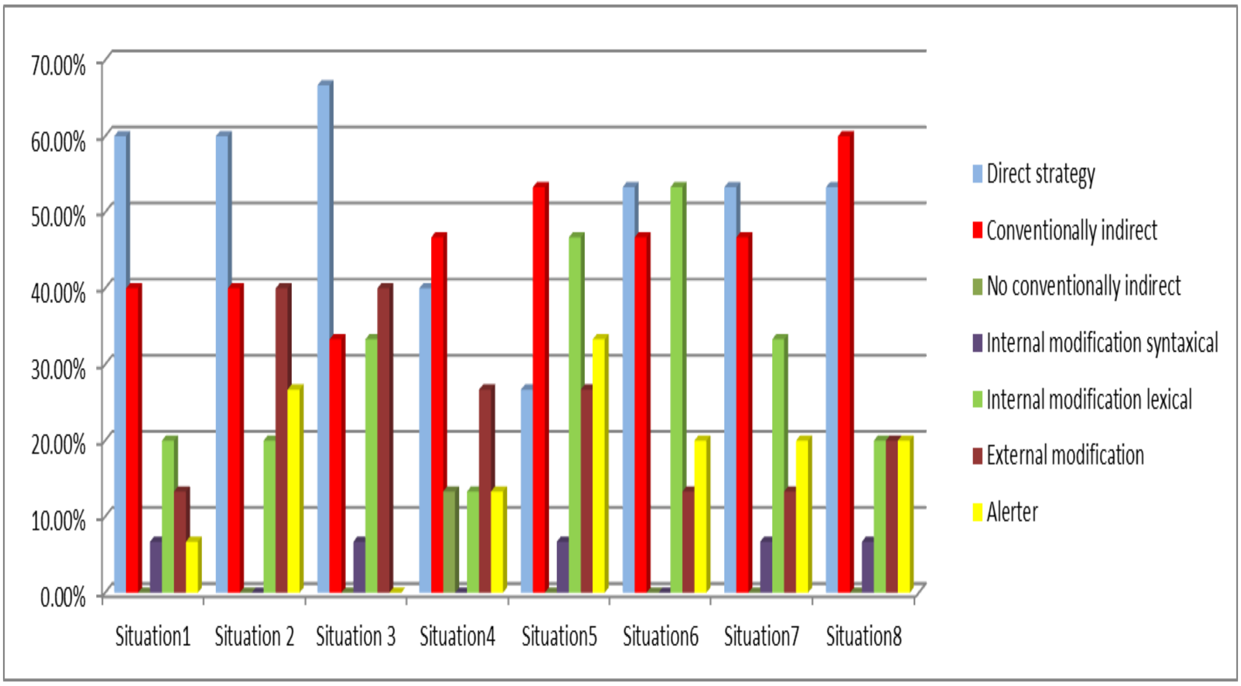

Figure 8. Bar Representation of the Frequency of Occurrence of Strategies (D, CID, NCID) and Modifications in all Situations (Pretest).

5.2 Reading and Description of Pre-test Results

5.2.1 The choice of speech act. To analyse the learners' requests, many aspects should be considered, including the degree of directness or indirectness of the request head acts and external and internal modifications and alerter.

5.2.1.1 Alerters. An alerter is a component that frequently precedes requests and serves to draw the listener's attention to the subsequent speech act. Because alerters work as attention-getters, alerters are functionally equivalent to any verbal tools employed for this purpose (Blum-Kulka et al. 1989, p. 277). As a result of its pre-request structural position and contextual significance, the act has a twofold purpose: it serves as the beginning step of the request sequence and directs the hearer's attention. Each scenario has a maximum of five alerters, which is a small number in comparison to the situations’ conditions and the need for its use (e.g., hello madam). For example, situation five is about a phone call to request a plumber only five alerters used; and a 0 alerter in situation 3, where the addressee is a classmate in a university context.

5.2.1.2 Head-act. In general, participants in the pre-test were substantially more direct, with direct requests outnumbering conventionally and non-conventionally indirect. This strategy was used in every case and was not mitigated considering contextual factors. The over use of Direct requests, however, reflects the learners' unknowingness of the various degrees of directness associated with strategies on the one hand and their ignorance of the social factors that influence the application of these strategies on the other. The direct strategy was preferred only in situation one with (-P/-D/ -R); because the addressee is a younger brother. The learners' requests included the politeness marker 'please' as the only internal modification.

Want statements and performatives were the most common type used of direct expressions. Additionally, learners employed conventional indirect techniques, with the preparatory question as to the main structure. The modal 'can' was the most frequently employed in the CID strategy with some uses of could and would. Learners are more adept at using 'can' in their requests, despite its informality in some instances.

5.2.1.3 Internal and external modifications. Surprisingly, the usage of internal and external modifications was highly restricted. The internal modifier that was used most by learners was 'please'. Even in situations where there is a necessity to use downgraders, like in situations 2, 4, 6,7and 8, learners opted for positive politeness strategies. This can be shown in their direct strategies like performatives and want statements. An attitude is transferred from their L1 that is why they prefered in most cases to be direct. Their unawareness of English sociopragmatic exigencies in FTA’s performance leads to L1 dominance over their linguistic expressions. Being direct diminish the use of any kind of modifiers, thinking of them unnecessary.

External modifiers also are used in a limited way. The most used modifier was Grounder, frequently used in L1 to justify requests in addition to one promise.

5.3 Post-test analysis

5.3.1 Situation 1: With a brother.

Table 23

Strategies and Modifictions in S1

	Strategies				Modifications		
	D	CID	NCID	INT/S	INT/L	EXT	ALERTER
Situation 1 (P- /D-/R-)	n=10/66.7%	n=5/33.3%	n=0/0%	n=0/0%	n=6/40%	N=8/53.3%	N=5/33.3%

From this table, it can be deduced that most learners used direct requests because the addressee is a younger brother. Imperatives were prefered by the ten learners producing the direct request strategy. Only 5 used the CID strategy, preparatory questions, with few internal modifications using 'please' and the use of grounders as external modifiers. Since there is no considerable power, no social distance between the interlocutors and a low rank of imposition, most learners chose directness. However; Five learners used alerters like: *brother, hey bro, and hey, and m*ost respondents prefered not to use them.

5.3.2 Situation 2: With a neighbour.

Table 24

Strategies and Modifictions in S2

	Strategies				Modifications		
	D	CID	NCID	INT/S	INT/L	EXT	ALERTER
Situation 2 (P- /D+/R+)	n=0/0%	n=14/93.3%	n=0/0%	n=3/20%	n=6/40%	N=14/93.3%	N=9/60%

To talk to a neighbour, approximately all learners used the CID strategy 14 out of 15.11 learner prefered the use of preparatory questions with would and could like in:

- *Would you mind turning the music down, please. I have to sleep earlier, and I have work to do tomorrow.*
- *Could you turn the music down? I have been working hard today; I will appreciate that.*

Those requests were structured using conditional clauses mitigated with 'please' as an internal modification. However, some participants used the appreciation and confirmatory strategy and mitigated want, yet most used grounders. In five requests, learners managed to use multiple modifications, which refer to the use of many supporting moves in one request. All that reflects the learners' considerations of the weightiness of the FTA, social distance between the interlocutors and power, though in this case no power exists between interlocutors.

As for alerters, five requests contained alerters, terms of address(*sir*, *dear neighbour)*and attention getter like ((*excuse me, hi)*.

5.3.3 Situation 3: With a classmate.

Table 25

Strategies and modificationsin S3

	Strategies			Modifications			
	D	CID	NCID	INT/S	INT/L	EXT	ALERTER
Situation 3 (P- /D-/R+)	n=3/20%	n=12/80%	n=0/0%	n=4/26.7%	n=2/13.3%	N=13/86.7%	N=8/53.3%

The CID strategy was the most used in this situation with less power, and no distance is to be considered. However, learners used various indirect strategies such as mitigated want and preparatory questions structures to mitigate the imposition. The requests were mitigated using different modifiers. Some learners used conditional, and others used the past tense as internal modifications. Interestingly, learners used grounders, disarmers and five learners managed to use multiple modifications in one request like in the following responses:

- I know that you need your copy, but could you, please, lend it to me. I misplaced mine.
- Hello, it would be great if you could do this favour and lend me your copy because I misplaced my textbook.

Direct strategies were used only in three requests; a want statement, performative, and imperative. The learners' confusion between L1 and L2 contexts can explain the choice of directness, an L1 transfer. Alternatively, maybe learners considered the addressee a closer friend; that is why they favoured this strategy. Native speakers generally avoid direct strategies only with close friends.

Moreover, the majority used alerters like *Hi, hello, and bro to get the addressee's attention.*

The NCID strategy was not used at all as in previous situations.

5.3.4 Situation 4: With a manager.

Table 26

Strategies and modificationsin S4

	Strategies			Modifications			
	D	CID	NCID	INT/S	INT/L	EXT	ALERTER
Situation 4 (P+ /D+/R+)	n=1/6.7%	n=14/93.3%	n=0/0%	n=7/46.7%	n=1/6.7%	N=14/93.3%	N=11/73.3%

Learners, in this scenario, were asked to request permission to travel from a manager who has a meeting. Hence, more indirectness and more modifications were generated. Indeed, this situation prompted the use of the most significant number of and the most complex combinations of supporting moves. All learners except one favoured the CID strategy, including different structures; conditional clause, interrogatives and past tense. Noteworthy, 11 requests were produced with multiple modifications. As in the following examples:

- *Hello sir, I know that you have a meeting at the moment, but I just learned that I have to travel in the afternoon. Is there any chance you could permit me to travel, please? It's urgent.*
- *I am sorry to interrupt you, and I know you are very busy. I have just learned that I must travel this afternoon. Would you mind giving me some days off?*
- *Excuse me, sir, I apologize if I interrupt you because that is very necessary to inform you that I have to travel this afternoon. I would appreciate it if you could permit me to leave.*

As a complex combination of modifiers, the very last example, when compared to the request made by the same learner in the pretest *(Sir, I must leave immediately because it is urgent.*), demonstrates how the learner became aware of the need to mitigate his/her request to sound polite and obtain the hearer's cooperation. The learner employed an alerter, an apology, a grounder, an appreciation, and an if clause as part of the CID's "mitigated wants" strategy. Learners used more external modifications like grounders, disarmers, apologies, and appreciations. Moreover, most learners used alerters of both types of attention-getter (*Excuse me, Sorry*) and terms of address *(Dear madam, Hi sir*). The results help to deduce that learners developed certain ability to make jugemennts about when to soften requests.

5.3.5 Situation 5: With a manager.

Table 27

Strategies and modificationsin S5

	Strategies			Modifications			
	D	CID	NCID	INT/S	INT/L	EXT	ALERTER
Situation 5 (P- /D+/R-)	n=0/0%	n=13/86.7%	n=2/13.3%	n=5/33.3%	n=5/33.3%	N=13/86.7%	N=13/86.7%

In situation 5, learners were asked to call a company and request a plumber sooner. Interestingly, results in the table above show that no D strategy had been found. 13 learners used the CID strategy, and two used the NCID. In this scenario, all types of the CID strategy were used; one permission, two suggestions, one mitigated want, one mitigated preparatory, and eight were preparatory questions. Here are some examples of learners requests:

- *Hello, I was wondering if you could send me a plumber to fix the shower, I am in great need because I am travelling for a couple of days.I will be very grateful if it is fixed today.*
- *Good morning, I am travelling tomorrow for some days. Could you please send me a plumber to fix my shower in the bathroom? I will be very grateful.*
- *Hi sir, I hope you are having a great day. I just discovered that the shower in my bathroom is leaking. Would you like to send me a plumber today? I am travelling today, and I can not leave it like this.*

It is clear from the answers that learners became aware of the needfulness of using indirect forms of requests and various types of supporting moves. Seven learners used only grounders as external modifications, but 6 used multiple modifications, which refers to using two to three modifiers in one request. Most learners used alerters in scenario five. They are primary terms of address as it is a phone call, with some salutations (*Good afternoon, Good morning, Hi sir*).

5.3.6 Situation 6: With a stranger.

Table 28

Strategies and modificationsin S6

	Strategies			Modifications			
	D	CID	NCID	INT/S	INT/L	EXT	ALERTER
Situation 6 (P- /D+/R-)	n=1/6.7%	n=14/93.3%	n=0/0%	n=7/46.7%	n=6/40%	N=11/73.3%	N=12/80%

In situation 6, learners were asked to request a stranger in the street for the way to the restaurant. Fourteen requests were indirect, with only one direct (want statement with *I need*). Want statement can be, in some cases, considered polite. Most learners employed the CID strategy (preparatory questions) as this form is the structure learned in the classroom, and the fact that it is the structure commonly used by the British (Milica, 2014). All types of the CID strategy were used; eight preparatory questions, two permissions, three mitigated wants, and one suggestion.

Moreover, Learners used internal and external modifiers. In this scenario, learners used more conditional clauses with six politeness markers, “please.” The external modifiers used by learners were appreciation, confirmation, grounder, and multiple modifications. Alerters also were used, particularly attention getters with some terms of address. The NCID was not used in major cases as it needed an amount of knowledge to be provided to the interlocutor to help him/her interpret the utterance.

5.3.7 Situation 7: With an organiser.

Table 29

Strategies and modifications in S7

	Strategies			Modifications			
	D	CID	NCID	INT/S	INT/L	EXT	ALERTER
Situation 7 (P- /D+/R+)	n=1/6.7 %	n=13/86. 7%	n=0/0%	n=7/46.7%	n=6/40%	N=11/73.3%	N=13/86.7%

In situation seven, learners were asked to ask for a deadline extension. Therefore, only one direct strategy was used by one learner; however, the other thirteen learners favoured the CID strategy, which is the most appropriate in cases where there is a social distance between interlocutors and a high rank of imposition. Three mitigated wants were employed in addition to two permissions and one suggestion. The rest were preparatory questions. the variety in the strategies used by learners was evidence of their apperception of contextual factors determining the use of one strategy and not the other. The politeness marker ‘please’ modified the requests internally; syntactically, there were some conditional clauses in interrogative sentences. Learners employed apologies, grounders, appreciation and confirmation, and multiple modifiers for the external modifiers.

- *Is there any chance you could extend the deadline because I missed the registration?*
- *I know it is my mistake to miss the registration. But It would be great If you could extend the deadline.*

5.3.8 Situation 8: With a manager.

Table 30

Strategies and modifications in S8

	Strategies			Modifications			
	D	CID	NCID	INT/S	INT/L	EXT	ALERTER
Situation 8 (P+ /D-/R+)	n=2/13.3%	n=12/80%	n=2/13.3%	n=5/33.3%	n=1/6.7%	N=12/80%	N=10/66.7%

In this scenario, learners already knew their teacher and were asked to request an appointment. Most requests were indirect, particularly CID, because learners considered contextual factors, as such power and rank of imposition. Interestingly, nine learners used multiple modifications, a combination of more than one modifier but the others used either disarmer or grounder to mitigate their requests. As far as the alerter is concerned, ten learners employed terms of address to address the professor. The following is a set of requests:

- *Excuse me, professor, I know that you are so busy. But I was wondering if you could give me some minutes to discuss the essay, and I promise not to take much of your time.*
- *Hello, professor, I know your schedule is packed but could you give me some of your time I'll be very grateful.*

5.4 Discussion of the Results

According to the paradigm for defining pragmatic behaviours offered by the CCSARP project, specific noteworthy findings from this phase are highlighted in strategy type, internal and external alterations, and situational variance.

5.4.1 Choice of speech act. As Brdovi-Harlig (2001) characterises NNSs' selection of the appropriate speech act for a given context as one of four areas of difficulty in L2 speech act production, this stage examines how instruction helps learners select the appropriate speech act.

Interestingly, examining the frequency of request speech acts and learner data in response to situations designed to elicit this speech act suggested that learners' answers to requests in different contexts are successful to a great extent. Learners have shown a solid sensitivity to contextual variables such as strength, distance, and imposition ranking in that study. They become significantly more indirect by making considerably more conventionally indirect requests, almost always outnumber direct expression strategies. It may be argued that if learners used indirect strategies, they began to favour negative politeness, the most desired by native speakers of English. In situation one, learners used 11 preparatory questions, one mitigated preparatory, and two mitigated wants. This is consistent with Vincent’s (2011) result that the English prefer CID methods over the other three strategy groups.

Additionally, Ajimer (1996, as cited in VincentX, 2011) suggested that "requests by native English speakers are mostly formulaic, e.g., can/could you, will/would you; I would like it if you could" (p24). Several of these forms are successfully used by learners in their requests, in *I would appreciate it if you could lend me your textbook*. *Could you arrange for the shower to be repaired by a plumber?* Learners conveyed and manipulated their wishes in various ways, both visible and hidden. They developed 120 distinct request strategies in response to the eight scenario-based requests.

5.4.2 Alerters. At least two-thirds of respondents utilised Alerters in each scenario, with the most alerters being used in situation 5, "a phone call to request a plumber." The most often used terms of address are "hi, hello", and some greetings. In Situation 7, learners requested an extension of the deadline using terms of address, however in Situation 8, learners utilised attention getters (e.g., Excuse me, Sorry, Hey) were the most often used form of Alerter.

(Professor) was occasionally used as the sole Alerter or in combination with an Attention getter in the making the appointment and deadline extension scenarios, whereas several respondents used personal names and bro or brother in the borrowing lecture notes and Situation 1 and 3 scenarios, either alone or in combination with an Attention getter. Since alerters work as attention-getters, they are functionally equivalent to any verbal tools employed for this purpose (Blum-Kulka et al. 1989, p. 277). As a result of its pre-request structural position and contextual significance, the act has a dual purpose: it serves as the initial step of the request sequence and orients the hearer's attention. The appropriate use of this move, henceforth, is necessary. Interestingly, the use of alerters in the post-test reveals the learners' ability to become more socially and sociopragmatically apt communicators.

5.4.3 Head acts. The initial stage in analysing Head acts was categorising them into Direct and Conventional indirect methods based on their degree of directness. Along with these two major groups, four occurrences of Please were detected that were functionally equivalent to those observed in the NS data, the various techniques and the frequency they occur in each circumstance.

Of the 17 direct methods used, the ten used in situation one are appropriate since the addressee is a brother and they were performatives and want statements. The textbook situation, some direct strategies used was the following Want statement: I want you to lend me your textbook. The remaining strategies, on the other hand, fall under the same conventionally indirect category: preparatory questions

Although Conventional indirectness was the main (or perhaps the sole) strategy in all scenarios, respondents expressed Head acts using various language means. To facilitate pragmalinguistic analysis, were identified within the Preparatory questions: interrogatives with or without a modal as a question word (Interrogative I and II), affirmatives–conditionals (Conditional clause), or expressions mitigated by the past tense and/or progressive aspect (I was wondering/thinking) (Tense and/or Aspect). The most frequently used Head act form was the interrogative form beginning with the modal can, could, will, or would, which was significantly more frequently used than the Conditional clause (and the other two Head act forms (while it was used in responses to all scenarios, it was significantly more frequently used in –P situations. Modal problems were approximately twice as commonly seen as Head actions in the form of a conditional phrase, which was the second most frequently encountered Head act strategy in the learner data. In terms of frequency, affirmative statements utilising the past progressive are listed next. Learners also used some suggestions, permission and mitigated preparatory.

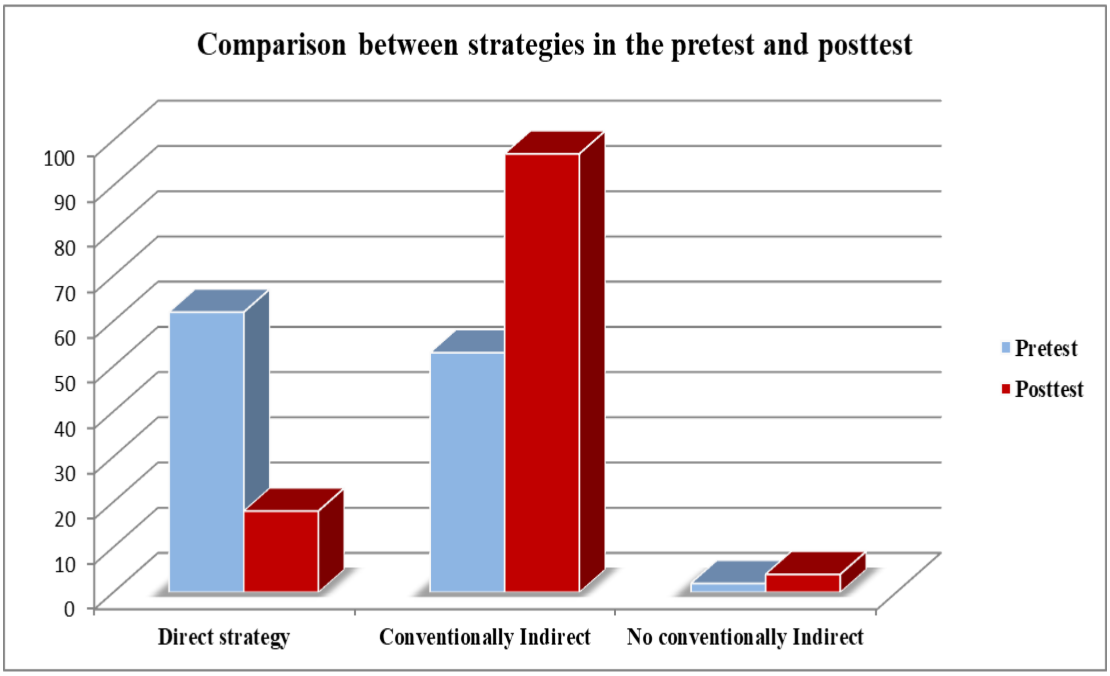

Figure 9. Comparison between strategies in the pretest and posttest (frequency / percentage)

To summarise, as shown in figure 9, learners generally managed to use conventionally indirect request strategies. They could use five distinct structures of Head acts. The P variable influenced the use of those sub-strategies, with the Interrogative occurring substantially more often in –P circumstances and the Conditional clause occurring much more frequently in +P scenarios. Henceforth, learners developed particular sociopragmatic sensitivity.

Interestingly, as appears in the figure below, learners used both internal and external modifications to mitigate their requests in the post-test. External modifications, however, outnumbered internal modifications.

In terms of internal modifiers, learners primarily used Tense and Conditional clauses. In +P situations, syntactic downgraders occurred more frequently. In situation1, no modification has been made because the addressee is a younger brother. The lexical downgraders identified in learner responses included a substantial amount of the Politeness marker 'please' and some consultative devices within the name of multiple modifications. They have been used in instances such as 2, 5, 6, 7, and 8.

Politeness marker can be expressed in two ways: please or do you think, but the former was more frequently used and preferred by learners. It was frequently included in a conventionally indirect request that began with the modals can or could, as demonstrated in the examples below:

- *Could you kindly lend me a copy of your book?*
- *Could you please send me a plumber?*

For example, Downtowners appeared in response to the deadline extension situation and requested an appointment. Indeed, this was the case for S6 and S8, which generated higher numbers of uses of Lexical and Syntactic downgraders, as well as external modifications. In some answers, a single downgrader was used. However, in others like Situations 3, 6, 7, and 8, a combination of Downgraders:

- *Is there any chance I could have a few more days, please?*

5.4.4 External modifications. When it comes to the sorts of Supportive moves utilised by learners, Grounders and Disarmers and some Apologies account for the bulk of External modification strategies; nevertheless, Imposition minimizers, Preparators, and Obtaining a precommitment were also used on occasion. As for the frequency of occurrence of various Supportive moves, Grounders and Disarmers stand out as the two most common in every situation and just one learner request was made without a Grounder. Revealing that, independent of the D variable, participants rated providing explanations, reasons, and justifications as the most effective mitigation method when confronting a professor.

On the other hand, the two –P request situations resulted in a greater number of Disarmer instances. When asked to borrow the textbook from a friend, all respondents except one used this modifier, whereas only two participants failed to use one when asked to borrow a book from a colleague.

Accounts for more than half (54.3 percent) of all Supportive moves in this situation. The most often utilised Disarmer in the Borrowing lecture textbook scenario was: I understand that you need to prepare for tomorrow's test, but [...], followed by a guarantee that the speaker would return the notes as soon as possible. In the Borrowing a book situation, the most often used response to the hearer's complaints was: *I understand that we do not know each other very well_*, followed by a request to exchange phone numbers and email addresses and a pledge to return the book soon. The Disarmer was also the most often used Supportive action in the Borrowing a book scenario, accounting for 45.7 per cent of External modification techniques.

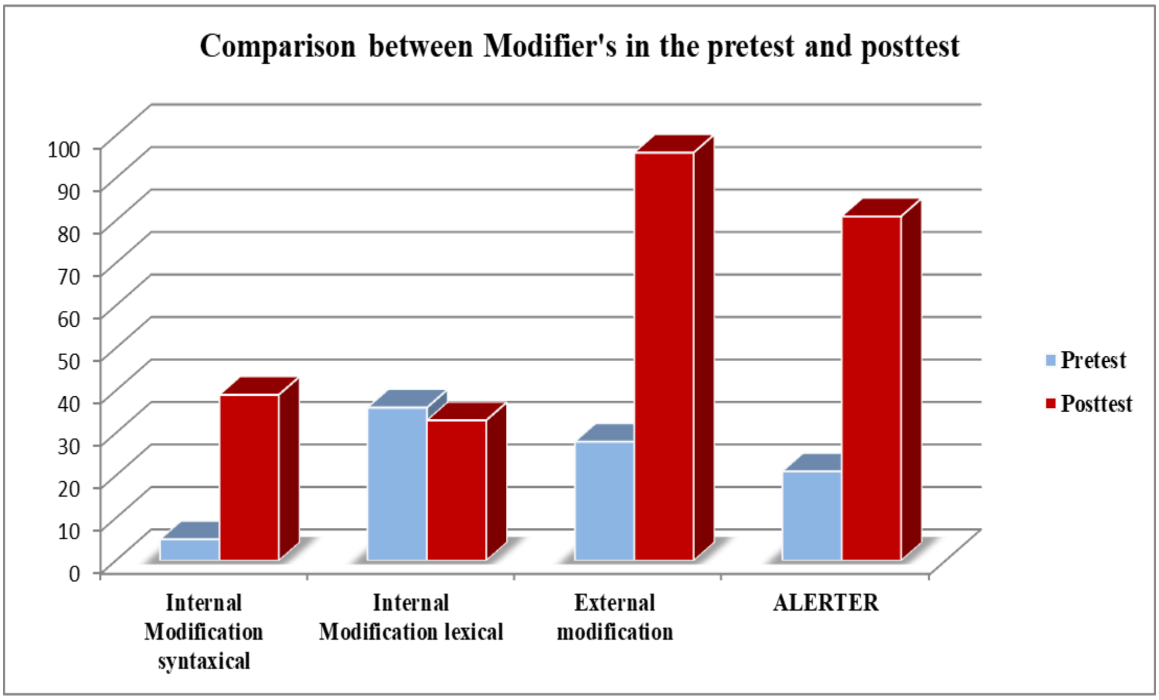

Figure 10. Comparison between Modifiers in the pretest and posttest (frequency / percentage)

Conclusion

To summarise, learners generally managed to use conventionally indirect request strategies. They used five distinct Head acts. The P variable influenced the use of those sub-strategies, with the interrogative occurring substantially more often in –P circumstances and the Conditional clause occurring much more frequently in +P scenarios. Henceforth, learners' frequent use of indirect forms with various internal and external modifications reflects their developing pragmalinguistic ability and sociopragmatic sensitivity. Although not all sorts of Downgraders were identified in the learners' performance, the language fluency of downgraders is inextricably linked to their use.

That is why learners require additional time and exposure to authentic material to elaborate requests internally modified by lexical/phrasal downgraders. In terms of external modification, the most often used strategies were Grounders and Disarmers. Other additional strategies were identified in the learners' data: Preparator, Imposition minimizer, obtaining a pre-commitment and offering an alternative. Two techniques were shown to be impacted by the addressee's social status: The Disarmer was more commonly used in –P scenarios, whereas the Grounder was much more frequently used in +P circumstances. All these findings reveal the positive effect instruction hason the development of second year learners’ polite request production.

Chapter Six: General Conclusion

6.1 Synthesis of the Study

This study, along with numerous others, contributes to a small but growing body of evidence regarding the role of pragmatic education in EFL environments. Pragmatic education is crucial and critical in today's globalized environment. English is currently utilized by people worldwide for contact and communication to conduct international business or attend academic conferences (McKay, 2002). Being familiar with other languages pragmatics is critical for preventing misinterpretation caused by cultural differences. Pragmatics studies place a premium on appropriateness in intercultural communications. English speakers' communication competence should be enhanced through pragmatic instruction.

Their Pragmatic Competence would be developed due to awareness of cultural variations and comprehension of their significance in the appropriate languages. In other words, teaching and learning pragmatics would alleviate many of the challenges associated with international communication for native and non-native speakers alike. Individuals from diverse cultural backgrounds require the ability to communicate appropriately and politely in English as a Foreign Language. Thus, to communicate successfully and properly with people from other cultural and linguistic backgrounds, non-native English speakers must be taught pragmatics involving diverse cultures and languages. Assisting EFL learners to become pragmatically competent users will offer them invaluable opportunities for research, business, and cultural exchanges with people from many backgrounds and parts of the globe. EFL learners should be aware of the major patterns of behaviour in the TL, and the available possibilities for speech act realization to make informed interactions and correctly perform various speech act in interpersonal interaction with diverse social values. This demonstrates the critical nature of raising EFL learners' awareness of the target language's social and cultural norms.

The purpose of this investigation is dual. One objective is to increase learners' and teachers' understanding of the critical nature of pragmatic knowledge throughout the teaching-learning process by illustrating the primary causes of English third year learners' pragmatic failure to request politely. The second objective is to investigate the effect of explicit instruction delivered through a pedagogical intervention to develop Algerian EF learners' pragmatic competence. Requests were chosen initially since they were identified as a common source of failure among third-year English students. Furthermore, they are crucial in social interactions. Furthermore, how they are implemented differs between languages. (Ellis, 2005, 2008; Trosborg, 1995). Henceforth, this chapter summarises the various phases of the study and the sorted-out conclusions. Moreover, the researcher discusses the effect of pragmatic instruction in the development of pragmatic competence the implications for L2 instruction. The study's limitations also are discussed, and some recommendations for future research concerning pragmatic issues.

6.2 The Study Outcomes (the exploratory phase and the interventional phase)

6.2.1 The qualitative phase. The current investigation is divided into two phases: an exploratory phase and an interventional phase. The former sought to determine the reasons underlying third-year English students' pragmatic failure to formulate appropriate requests. This was accomplished by thoroughly examining the modal verbs grammar class with second-year students (Modals is a class on the syllabus). While request makes only one of the modals functions in the target lesson, it is the only opportunity for learners to understand how to utilize the modals can, could. It would be to construct an indirect request, which is more polite than a direct one. The researcher opted for a classroom observation, as a method for collecting naturally occurring data, to diagnose how requests are introduced to learners, on the one hand, and to analyse classroom interaction between learner and teacher, and between learner and learner, on the other. The lesson was recorded and transcribed then analyzed using the Sinclair Coulthard (1975) discourse analysis model.

The following findings were obtained as a result of the exploration: Teacher-centered instruction; a dearth of authentic input; instruction of English form without concern for any discussion of cultural diversity; notably, limitations in request instruction to some pragmalinguistic characteristics of request construction, as such the hypothetical past tense forms of the verb without being introduced to the various scales of value that make a particular degree of politeness appropriate in a particular social setting. After all, as commented by Schneider (2008) grammar is not an end in itself (though teachers find it much easier to teach and test it), but a means to the end of effective communication. Hence, learners acquire, to some extent, the basics of the lexicogrammatical resources of the language as linguistic strategies.

However, the pragmatic factor is overlooked since the session's teacher, with an insufficient amount of time, provided learners with grammar rules, i.e. language form, rather than languages function following the course syllabus. The learner has no idea about the crucial role of the social variables controlling the occurrence of one strategy rather than another; neither do they learn about the necessary modifications required to modulate the impact upon an addressee. Learners ignore when and how to mitigate the impositive force and use supportive moves, which are optional clauses but necessary to support the actual request to gain cooperation from the addressee to lead him/her to perform the desired action (Achiba, 2003). Accordingly, a pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic failure is the inevitable result in this case. Language teachers place a high premium on grammar during sessions because they may lack pragmatic awareness in the target language or have trouble putting their already acquired practical knowledge into practice. Teachers should be aware of the target language's pragmatic constraints when teaching a foreign language to EF learners who need to know the differences between languages.

Additionally, Hofstede (1991) states that all Arabic cultures are collectivist and that Arab members of society place a high premium on community harmony over individual autonomy. German (2009a) noted that collectivistic societies are intrinsically oriented toward positive politeness. However, like the English society, individualistic societies are characterized by a negative attitude toward politeness or 'deference' (Scollon & Scollon, 1983, 2001). The Arab world is a society that places a premium on civility, that is why interlocutors are comfortable conversing with one another when there is a modest spatial gap between them as members of the positive politeness society. Walker (2014) confirmed that those members are always 'comfortable with little personal space' and more natural language. Third-year learners produced more direct requests because they were unaware of the necessity for indirectness and modifying strategies. Directness is not acceptable when the interlocutor is not Algerian but English. The preceding conclusions answer the research question posed at the outset of the study regarding the reasons for learners' pragmatic failure.

Informed by the findings of phase one, the researcher proposed a pedagogical intervention to address those shortcomings. This intervention included interaction-based instruction, authentic English instructional materials, and pragmatic competence-oriented instruction to raise learners' pragmatic awareness of the importance of considering the various directness strategies, supporting moves (internal and external) absent in the recorded lesson, and the various social variables operating in the English language.

6.2.2 The quantitative phase. The researcher decided about the intervention based on the following: first, most research that assessed the teachability of certain pragmatic qualities discovered that they are teachable. Second, research comparing pragmatically instructed and uninstructed students found a benefit for the instructed students. Third, Kubota (1995) found an advantage for students receiving deductive (top-down/wide to specific) and inductive (bottom-up/specific to broad) instruction over the uninstructed group, with the inductive technique having a more substantial effect. Finally, most research comparing the effect of explicit vs implicit education discovered that students' pragmatic abilities improved regardless of the approach used. In contrast, the explicitly instructed students performed higher on average.

Explicit instruction entails conscious problem solving in which learners are aware of the knowledge they are being taught (Schmidt 1990). This requires learners to be aware of (Schmidt 1990, p. 233) and retain a mental representation in their memory. 'The threshold for noticing is the same as the threshold for learning,' Schmidt (1990, p. 218). Thus, in order to ensure the explicit teaching of L2 pragmatic knowledge, the researcher tried to adhere to many principles about systematic pragmatic teaching spelt out by Schmidt (1990, p. 226-234) as Simple exposure to sociolinguistically appropriate input that is unlikely to be sufficient for second language pragmatics acquisition, the learners' attention is not diverted elsewhere, but is focused on the target pragmatic feature being presented to them, the information is not too complex to process, nor is it presented too quickly or too softly to be consciously seen or heard, the learners' motivation is a pragmatic determinant of the acquisition process.

Collaborative dialogues also enlightened the researcher. As a socially-oriented approach to pragmatic development, collaborative dialogues theory conceptualizes pragmatics as a socially-oriented activity, in contrast to the noticing hypothesis centred on a cognitive account of pragmatic development. This perspective views pragmatic knowledge as jointly constructed in the interaction between individuals and emerges through goal-oriented collaborative activities. In this study, the main objective of the proposed set of lessons was to help learners become pragmatically versed speakers. Raising learners' awareness of the differences between Arabic L1 and English TL, assisting learners in identifying the primary strategies used by native speakers in the authentic videos and assisting them in noticing and analyzing contextual and social variables that influence the occurrence of those strategies are the other objectives. Participants were provided with dialogues and collaboratively negotiated scenarios designed to stimulate engagement and peer interaction as part of their practice.

The second phase explored the extent to which pragmatic instruction affects learners' performance of pragmalinguistically and sociopragmatically suitable target-like requests. The data obtained revealed mixed results on how learners made progress when examining learners' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic abilities. The pragmatic intervention enhanced acquisition considerably when it entailed some level of deep cognitive processing in which learners were prompted to interpret TL elements independently (Taguchi, 2015; Takimoto, 2009, 2012). Most learners were predisposed to utilize various strategies in pre-head and post-head acts, and learners demonstrated proficiency with some subtypes of internal and external modification devices.

They demonstrated a strong preference for external modifiers such as grounders, disarmers, preparators, and apologies. Some promises and discourse orientation move for specific instances, and there is an insufficient supply of internal modifiers. However, they used mainly all syntactical modifiers with varying degrees, such as the conditional structures, conditional clauses, interrogatives, and much of the hypothetical past tense. However, there was an unusual lack of lexical modifiers, except for 'please', the politeness marker. This is consistent with Octu and Zeyrek's (2008) assertion that degrees of internal modification increase in direct proportion to language proficiency. A less frequent pattern was seen in the performance of some learners, in which they overproduced the politeness marker 'please' with extreme frequency as the only signal of politeness.

This finding is compared to those of Scarcella (1979), Schmidt (1983), Ellis (1992), Safont-Jordà (2003), and Li, Q. (2012), who reported that their EFL students used 'please' as a lexical modifier early in their performance. A consistent propensity for learners to depend mainly on conventionally indirect strategies was observed in their performance when they addressed their requests to their classmates, strangers, and those in positions of authority. However, when requests were made to lower positions, they were associated with a preference for more direct request strategies without modifiers to mitigate their requests.

However, insignificant cases, learners used more modification strategies with distant people, which confirm that learners developed a certain level of sociopragmatic awareness. They also managed to use mitigated wants, mitigated preparatory in some cases, permission, and much of the preparatory questions. The study's use of rating scales revealed two significant features of pragmatic performance evaluation that are typically overlooked in most speech act analyses that focus exclusively on linguistic performance. To begin, despite obvious grammatical faults in some responses, these were deemed pragmatically acceptable. This mirrors the well-documented study by Bardovi Harlig and Dörnyei (1998), in which ESL teachers rated pragmatic performance higher than grammatical accuracy, emphasizing the communicative aspect of language output. This is reinforced by the second finding, which indicates that despite the main request being fulfilled with an appropriate level of directness and politeness, several replies earned bad ratings owing to, for example, poor discourse management.

In general, this study demonstrates that good pragmatic performance is contingent on various discourse aspects and cannot be ascribed only to language output. Another significant finding is that many learners developed extremely sophisticated structures in the pre-head post-head act but lacked extension in the within-head acts, indicating that their pragmatic competence is developing at a rate substantially above moderate. Some learners left a blank in some situations in the pre-test but could produce requests in the post-test with modifications.

It is worth noting that learners were very engaged in comparing Arabic requests with English; they found it exciting and motivating to discover how direct they were and how polite they needed to be when the interlocutor was not an Arab. After the post-test, learners showed satisfaction comparing their understanding and performance in the pre-test. It appears as though the teacher-researcher successfully encouraged learners to participate in collaborative activities at hand by piquing their interest in the intervention and hence helped the participants to show improvement in polite request production, which is the target of this research.

6.3 Pedagogical Implications

Considering the qualitative data, one may assume that a teacher-centred classroom is unlikely to provide opportunities for pragmatic development because the teacher is the one who speaks the most. This is well explained by Cohen (1997), who posits that "Classroom talk was focused primarily on completing a series of planned transactions, such as making introductions, buying stamps or postcards at a post office, buying clothes in a department store, telling the doctor about our illness, and the like. There was a bit of non-transactional social conversation in class, other than asides in English. In addition, spoken language tended to be focused on structures that we were to learn (...). Classroom discourse, like all forms of speech, is authentic. *Classroom interaction* is an institutional activity where participants are given roles asymmetrically (Nunan, 1989). The social bonds formed due to this unequal power interaction are mirrored and reaffirmed at the level of speech in the language school. Despite its particular structure, even teacher-led classroom discourse allows pragmatic learning. For many English students in Algeria, the FL classroom is their only opportunity to speak foreign languages. This investigation has substantial theoretical, educational, and practical implications for this under-researched field.

6.3.1 Implications for learners. Schmidt (2001) emphasises the necessity of paying enough attention to both the linguistic forms of utterances and they are accompanying social and contextual elements to learn pragmatics, despite a scarcity of empirical studies on the importance of noticing in L2 learning.

Through collaborative dialogues, learners establish and evaluate suitable and correct language usage beliefs and reflect on their language use. Peer interaction and mutual learning assist learners in recognising the relationship between form and function. Collaborative dialogues can also provide pragmatic information on pragmatic routines and norms and provide an opportunity for participants to reflect on the similarities and contrasts between their own and target cultures when performing certain speech acts. They can evaluate the appropriateness of their peers' pragmatic knowledge and adjust their behaviour and understanding accordingly. More importantly, conversations with peers about pragmatic traits and associated forms strengthened pragmatic awareness (Lee, 2018). Students should work jointly to correct one another's speech, exchange personal stories about interactions, and design pragmatic actions.

As a result, it is worth highlighting that what needs to be addressed is not input in general, but rather whatever aspects of the input play a part in the system to be learned. To improve the pragmatic ability in the target language, it is necessary to pay attention to linguistic forms, functional meanings, and important contextual features. (Schmidt, 1993)

6.3.2 Implications for teachers. EFL teachers should recognise the importance of contextualisation. Learning a foreign language requires acquiring new linguistic components and developing new social attitudes necessary to comprehend how these linguistic components are used. The appropriateness of an utterance is just as crucial as its correctness.

EFL teachers should instil a sense of language practice in their students both in and out of the classroom. This can be accomplished through consciousness-raising activities that aid in acquiring sociopragmatic and pragmatic-linguistic information; as a result of this awareness, learners develop the ability to avoid an L1 transfer. Sociopragmatic information can be gleaned from actual input that was not developed "for teaching purposes, but real-life communicated purposes" (Lee, 1995, p.324). The treatment confirmed that only authentic input could catalyze learners to acquire the target language in its entirety as a means of communication and as a springboard for further discovery and learning. Teachers should educate students about their acquired knowledge and use it in appropriate sociopragmatic contexts. EFL teachers should reconsider making pragmatic ability a priority in their instruction, and this implies that pragmatic competence should be a primary goal of EFL instruction.

Instruction in pragmatics should be considered and developed by syllabus designers. Pragmatics coursework and instruction should become a necessary L2 teaching and learning component. Moreover, to arrive at acceptable and reliable TL language forms, sociopragmatic variables, pragmatic meanings, and norms, it would be beneficial to seek authentic audio-visual input and naturally occurring data (Alcón-Soler, 2008a, b; Martnez-Flor, 2008). To raise EFL students' pragmatic awareness, teachers must combine authentic materials relevant to NS's norms alongside significant chances for dialogue (Barron, 2016).

Along with it, Kasper (1997a, p. 4) affirmed that learners do not necessarily need to be given new material but rather to be made aware of what they already know and encouraged to apply their universal or transferable L1 pragmatic knowledge in L2 circumstances. The positive instructional result reported in this study implies that pragmatics instruction should be adequately integrated into institutional curricula, providing language learners with enhanced learning chances that meet their needs in today's global world. Regrettably, Cohen, A. (2012, p.33) asserted that there is a "noticeable gap between what research in pragmatics has found and how language is generally taught today." As a result, instructors are encouraged to focus on effectively incorporating pragmatic education into curricula through the use of authentic, audio-visual input and naturally occurring materials (Derakhshan & Eslami, 2015; Martnez-Flor, 2008).

As far as English teachers in Algeria are non-native speakers, it is advised that they include pragmatics in their coursework and teacher development programmes in order to prevent unwittingly conveying their erroneous pragmatic intuitions to their students. If teachers and practitioners want to implement pragmatic-focused teaching, they must be aware of TL pragmatics and view it as a recursive process. They should be aware of their pragmatic understanding of the NSs' benchmark. It is reasonable to presume that this intervention produced some practically valid educational findings that may affect change if considered. When push comes to shove, teaching English in Algeria, particularly at Biskra University, should incorporate a pragmatic syllabus and approach to language pedagogy. Though this study focuses on the speech act of request, language teachers, particularly grammar teachers, are encouraged to use the findings to assist their students in becoming competent users of the target language pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic conventions and patterns necessary for effective communication in the target language.

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RESUME

Étant donné que la pragmatique est un domaine de la connaissance qui fait savoir aux gens comment parvenir à une compréhension mutuelle et faire face poliment aux défis causés par les malentendus et les erreurs de communication dans les situations internationales, l'éducation à la pragmatique est vitale dans notre monde globalisé. Désormais, le but de cette recherche est de stimuler le développement pragmatique des apprenants dans la loi sur la demande de discours. La première étape a été de découvrir les raisons de l'échec pragmatique des apprenants à mener des demandes polies en observant une seance de grammaire sur les verbes modaux pour examiner la présence de la caractéristique pragmatique donnée aux apprenants via la forme linguistique. La leçon a été enregistrée, transcrite et analysée à l'aide du modèle d'analyse du discours de Sinclair Coulthard (1975). Les données ont corroboré l'hypothèse du chercheur selon laquelle les apprenants échouent parce que la dimension pragmatique est absente pendant l'apprentissage de la forme linguistique. Un autre facteur est que l'engagement des apprenants en classe a été relativement limité pendant la leçon. Ainsi, une intervention pédagogique est nécessaire pour accroître la production de demandes appropriées des apprenants et développer la sensibilisation des enseignants et des apprenants à l'importance de combiner l'aspect pragmatique de la langue avec les règles grammaticales dans l'enseignement et l'apprentissage des langues. Informé par l'hypothèse de notification de Schmidt (1993, 1995 et 2001) et l'approche des dialogues collaboratifs, le chercheur a examiné l'efficacité de l'enseignement pragmatique pour sensibiliser les apprenants et la sensibilité aux composantes pragmatiques du langage cible dans les contextes EFL. Quinze apprenants ont été soumis à huit séances d'enseignement pragmatique explicite via des invites vidéo. La tâche d'achèvement du discours écrit a été utilisée pour évaluer le rendement des apprenants de la loi sur la parole cible dans une conception avant et après l'intervention (WDCT). Les données de la phase exploratoire ont été analysées qualitativement, tandis que les données de la phase interventionnelle ont été analysées statistiquement. Pour le premier, le modèle d'analyse du discours de Sinclair Coulthard (1989) a été utilisé, mais des méthodologies statistiques et quantitatives ont adhéré à ce dernier. Après la phase interventionnelle, les participants ont considérablement amélioré leur capacité à générer des demandes polies. Les résultats ont indiqué une augmentation considérable de la diversité et une utilisation appropriée des changements internes et externes et une diminution notable des stratégies de demande directe des apprenants dans les performances post-intervention. En outre, ils ont souligné le rôle crucial de la formation pragmatique explicite dans l'acquisition positive par les apprenants de phrases, de formulaires et de stratégies de demande.

Mots-clés: Dimension pragmatique - Demandes - Demande Polie - Politesse

ملخص

بما أن التداولية هي مجال المعرفة الذي يجعل الناس يعرفون كيفية تحقيق الفهم المتبادل ومواجهة التحديات التي يسببها سوء الفهم والافتقار للتواصل بأدب في المواقف الدولية، فإن تعليم التداولية أمر حيوي في عالمنا وقد اضحى العالم قرية صغيرة؛ الغرض من هذا البحث هو تعزيز التطور العملي للمتعلمين في قانون طلب الكلام؛ الهدف من المرحلة الأولى هو اكتشاف أسباب الفشل التداولي للمتعلمين في إجراء طلبات مهذبة، حيث تم ذلك من خلال مراقبة جلسة قواعد اللغة على الأفعال المشروطة لفحص وجود الميزة البراغماتية الممنوحة للمتعلمين عبر شكل اللغة، تم تسجيل المحاضرة ونسخها وتحليلها باعتماد نموذج تحليل الخطاب لـ:سنكلير كولتهارد (1975). وقد أكدت البيانات فرضية الباحث في أن فشل المتعلمين سببه غياب البعد البراغماتي أثناء تعلم اللغة، بالاضافة الى وجود عامل آخر، تمثل في محدودية مشاركة المتعلمين خلال الدرس مما استلزم تدخلا بيداغوجيا استهدف تنمية قدرة المتعلمين علي انتاج طلبات مناسبة وكذا الوصول بوعي المعلمين والمتعلمين الى ادراك أهمية الجمع بين الجانب العملي للغة والقواعد النحوية في تعليم اللغة وتعلمها. و باعتماد الباحث نظرية شميت للملاحظة (1993 و1995 و2001)، ونهج الحوارات التعاونية ، فحص الباحث فعالية التعليمات العملية في رفع وعي المتعلمين وحساسيتهم للمكونات العملية للغة المراد تعلمها في سياقات حيث خضع خمسة عشر متعلماً لثماني جلسات من التدريس العملي الصريح عبر طلبات لمتحدثين محليين عن طريق رابط فيديو. تم استخدام اختبار إكمال الخطاب المكتوب لتقييم أداء المتعلمين لقانون الكلام المستهدف في تصميم ما قبل وبعد التدخل . تم تحليل بيانات المرحلة الاستكشافية نوعيًا، في حين تم تحليل بيانات المرحلة التداخلية إحصائيًا. بالنسبة للمرحلةالاولى، تم استخدام نموذج تحليل الخطاب **Sinclair Coulthard** ، وأما المنهجيات الإحصائية الكمية فقد خصصت للمرحلة الأخيرة. بعد التدخل البيداغوجي، تمكن المشاركون من تحسين قدرتهم على انتاج طلبات مهذبة. أشارت النتائج إلى زيادة كبيرة في التنوع والاستخدام المناسب للتغيرات الداخلية والخارجية وانخفاض ملحوظ في استراتيجيات الطلب المباشر للمتعلمين في أداء ما بعد التدخل. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، سلط الضوء على الدور الحاسم للتدريب العملي الصريح في اكتساب المتعلمين الإيجابي لعبارات وأشكال واستراتيجيات تقديم الطلبات

الكلمات المفتاحية: الأدب – البعد التداولي – طلبات – طلب مهذب

Appendices

Appendix A

Mouhamed Khider University of Biskra

Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages

Department of Foreign Languages

Section of English

Questionnaire for Teachers

Dear teachers,

the aim of this questionnaire is to explore the learner's awareness of the importance of using pclite requests, the types and strategies they use to produce requests and the appropriacy of their requests. The information you provide will be confidential and strictly be used for the research purpose. thank you for your collaboration.

The researcher

Prepared by Hind **BAADACHE**

Supervised by Dr. Ahmed Chaouki **HOADJLI**

Academic Year: 2020/2021

Section1:

Q1: Gender:

- □ Male
- □ Female

Q2: Educational qualifications:

- □ Bachelor's degree
- □ Master degree
- □ Magister degree
- □ Doctorate degree
- □ Other

Q3: Teaching experience:

- □ 0 to 5 years
- □ 5 to 10 years
- □ More than 10 years

Section2:

Q4: **Do you think learners make use of what they learn in grammar in classroom interaction?**

- □ yes
- □ No
- □ Always
- □ Sometimes
- □ Other:

Q5: Do your learners use requests in the classroom?

- □ Yes
- □ No
- □ Always
- □ Sometimes
- □ Rarely

Q6: What type of requests they mostly use?

- □ Direct form
- □ Indirect form
- □ Other forms

Q7: Do learners use modals properly in their requests?

- □ always
- □ Sometimes
- □ Rarely

Q8: Do you think their requests are?

- □ Appropriate to the situational context
- □ Inappropriate to the situational context

Section3:

Q9: Do they use polite forms of requests in the classroom when they want to ask the teacher for something?

- □ Yes

- □ No
- □ Always
- □ Sometimes
- □ Rarely

If students do not use polite requests, state some reasons behind this failure?

………
…………………………

Q10: Do you think they are aware of the importance of being polite when asking for something from the teacher particularly?

- □ Yes
- □ No
- □ If no say why?

Q11: What forms are used by students:

- □ Questions
- □ Modals
- □ Hypothetical past tense

Q12: Finally, do you consider your learners polite as far as requests are concerned?

- □ Yes
- □ No
- □ Sometimes
- □ Rarely

Opinionnaire:

Q1: As a teacher, what remarks you can provide concerning the questionnaire as far as content and organization are concerned?

Q2: Is the questionnaire covering all necessary and related items?

- □ Yes
- □ No

Q3: If no, what items you suggest?

………
………………………………………

Q4: Are there any unapproached questions that must be rewarded?

………
……………………………………….

Q5: Are there any irrelevant questions?

- □ Yes
- □ No

Thank you for your collaboration

Appendix B

Questionnaire for teachers

Statistical descriptive analyse :

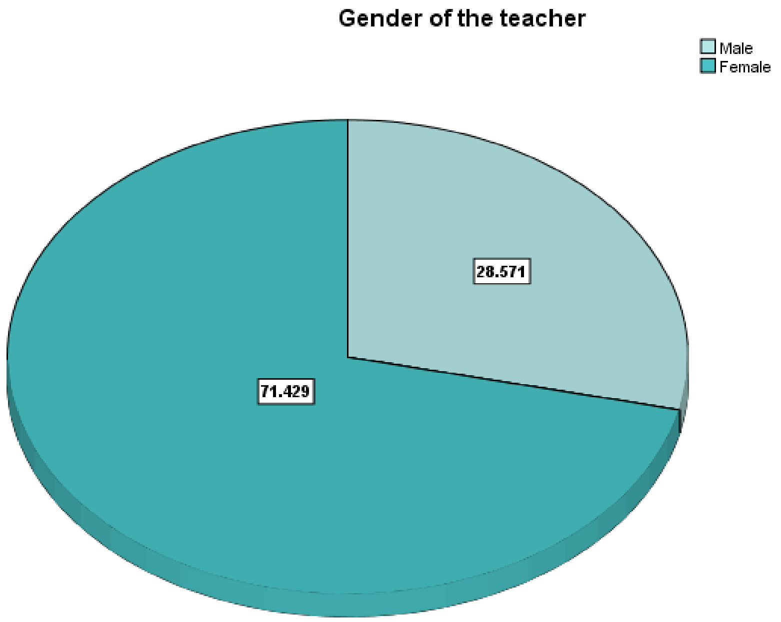
1) The gender of the teachers :

Table : Gender of the teacher

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Male	2	28.6	28.6	28.6
Valid	Female	5	71.4	71.4	100.0
	Total	7	100.0	100.0	

- From this table **71.4% (n=5)** of the teachers are female and, **28.6% (n=2)**are male
- The result is shown in the following graphic representation

Figure 1: Camembert representation of the gender of the teachers



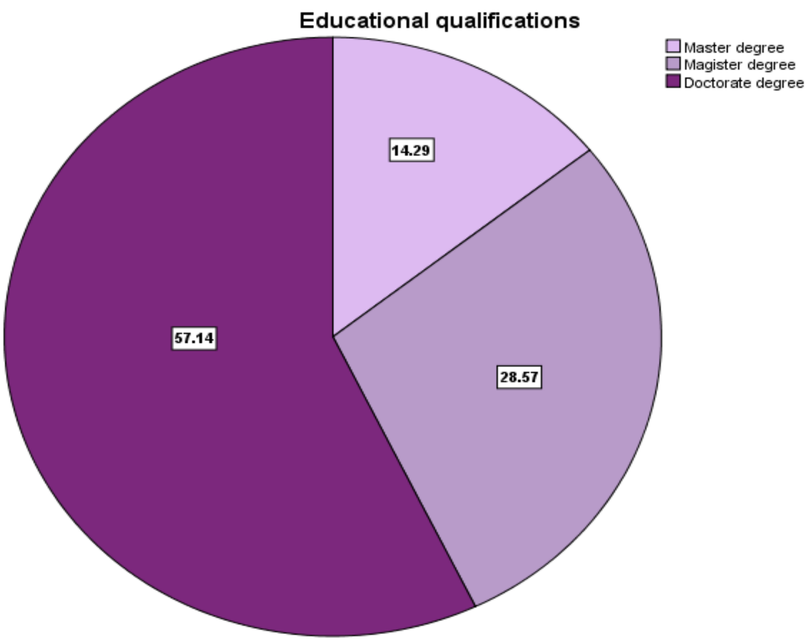
2) The educational qualifications of the teachers :

Table :Educational qualifications

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Master degree	1	14.3	14.3	14.3
	Magister degree	2	28.6	28.6	42.9
	Doctoratedegree	4	57.1	57.1	100.0
	Total	7	100.0	100.0	

- From this table **57.1%** of teachers have a doctorat degree , **28.6%** have a master's level and only **14.3%** have a master's degree with a total proportion of 100%
- The result is shown in the following graphic representation

Figure 2: Camembert representation of the educational qualifications of the teachers



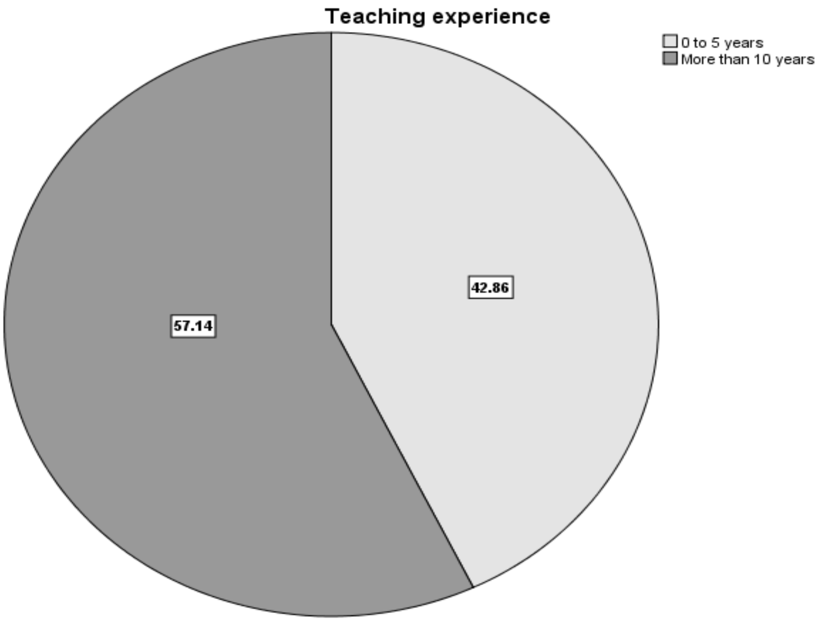
3) The teachingexperience

Table : Teachingexperience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0 to 5 years	3	42.9	42.9	42.9
	More than 10 years	4	57.1	57.1	100.0
	Total	7	100.0	100.0	

- From this table **57.1%(n=4)**of teachers have more than 10 years of the teaching experience and only **42.9% (n=3)** have à 0 to 5 years of experience
- The result is shown in the following graphic representation

Figure 3: Camembert representation of the teaching experience



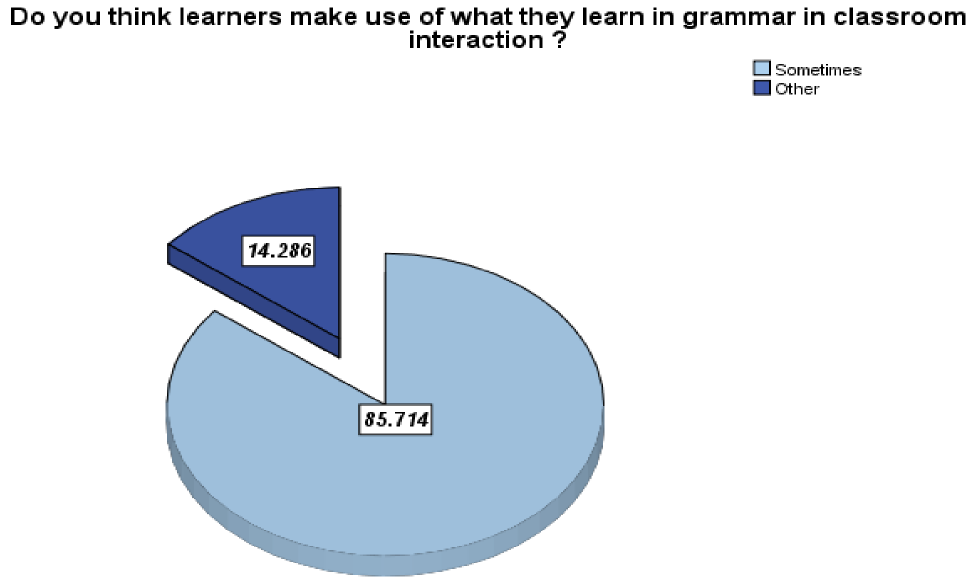
4) The use of grammar courses in classroom

Do you think learners make use of what they learn in grammar in classroom interaction?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Sometimes	6	85.7	85.7	85.7
	Other	1	14.3	14.3	100.0
	Total	7	100.0	100.0	

- From this table **85.7%** of teachers believe that they sometimes use grammar lessons
- The result is shown in the following graphic representation

Figure 4: Camembert representation of the use of grammar leçon



5) The use of request in classroom :

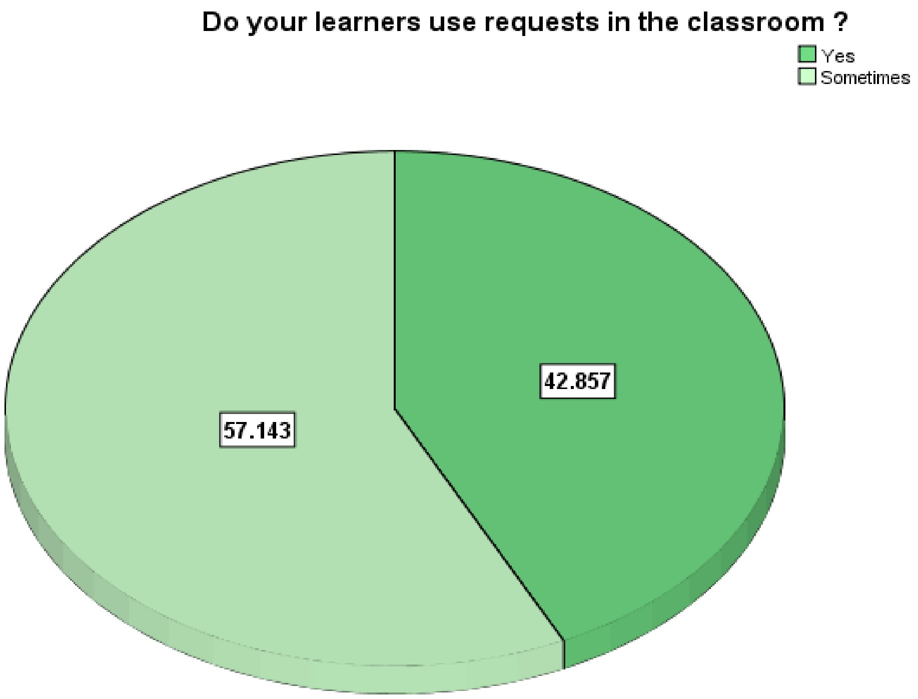
Table: Do your learners use requests in the classroom ?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	3	42.9	42.9	42.9
	Sometimes	4	57.1	57.1	100.0
	Total	7	100.0	100.0	

- from this table **57%(n=4)** of the teachers their students sometimes use the requests in the class and the others use them**(42.9% / n=3)**

- The result is shown in the following graphic representation

Figure 5: Camembert representation of the use of request in classroom



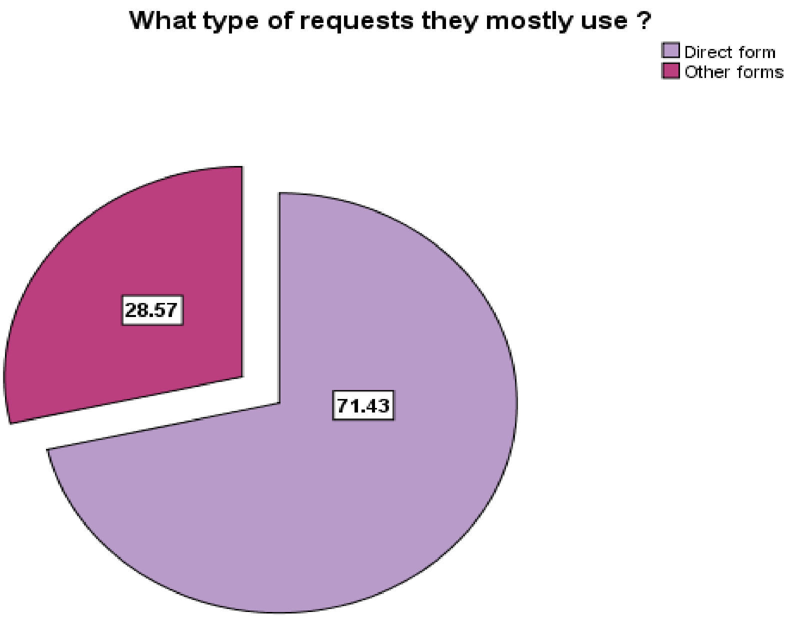
6) the type of request mostly used :

Table :What type of requests they mostly use ?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Direct form	5	71.4	71.4	71.4
	Otherforms	2	28.6	28.6	100.0
	Total	7	100.0	100.0	

- from this table **71.4%(n=5)**of the teachers their students use the direct request and **28.6%(n=2)**use the other form
- The result is shown in the following graphic representation

Figure 6: **Camembert representation of the most used request**



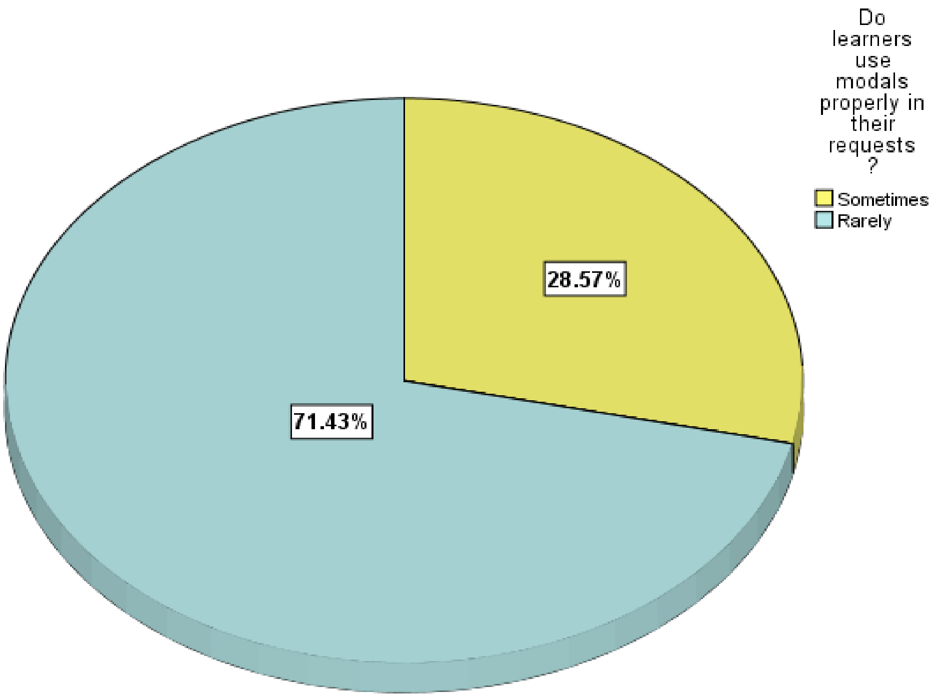
7) The use of modals in the requests :

Table: Do learners use modals properly in their requests?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Sometimes	2	28.6	28.6	28.6
	Rarely	5	71.4	71.4	100.0
	Total	7	100.0	100.0	

- From this table the most **(71.4% /n=5)**of the teachers their students rarely use the modals in their request
- The result is shown in the following graphic representation

Figure 7: Camembert representation of use of the modals request



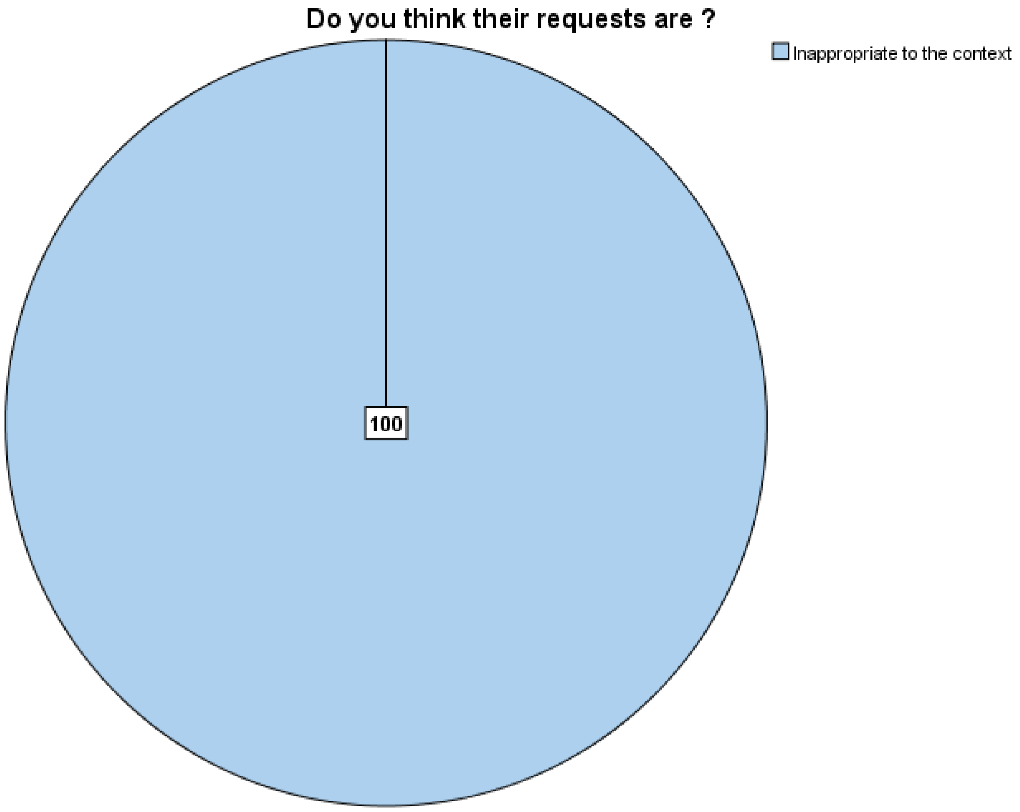
8) What do you think of their requests ?

Table :Do you think their requests are ?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Inappropriate to the context	7	100.0	100.0	100.0

- from this table **(100% /n=7)**all the students their requestare inappropriate to the context
- The result is shown in the following graphic representation

Figure 8: **Camembert representation of use of what teachers think for requests**



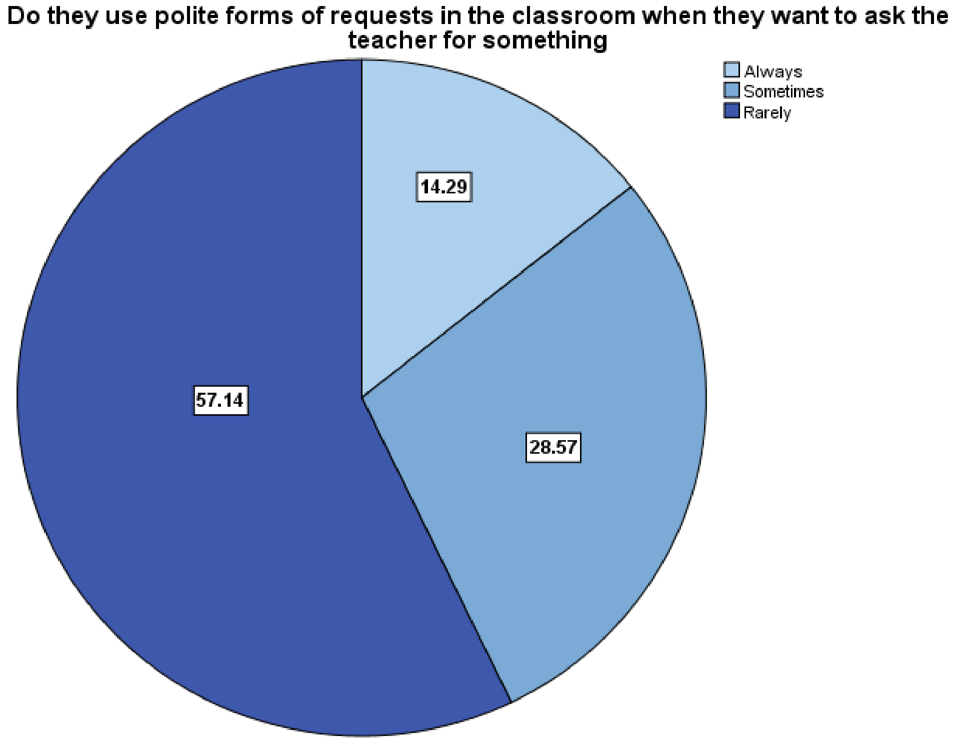
9) The use of polite form of request to ask the teachers :

Do they use polite forms of requests in the classroom when they want to ask the teacher for something?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Always	1	14.3	14.3	14.3
	Sometimes	2	28.6	28.6	42.9
	Rarely	4	57.1	57.1	100.0
	Total	7	100.0	100.0	

- from this table **(57.1% /n=4) of teachers** believe thatalmost students don't use the polite form in requests , **28.6%(n=2)**who sometimes use this type of request and 14.3 (n=1)who always uses them
- The result is shown in the following graphic representation

Figure 9: Camembert representation of use of thepolite form in request to ask the teachers :



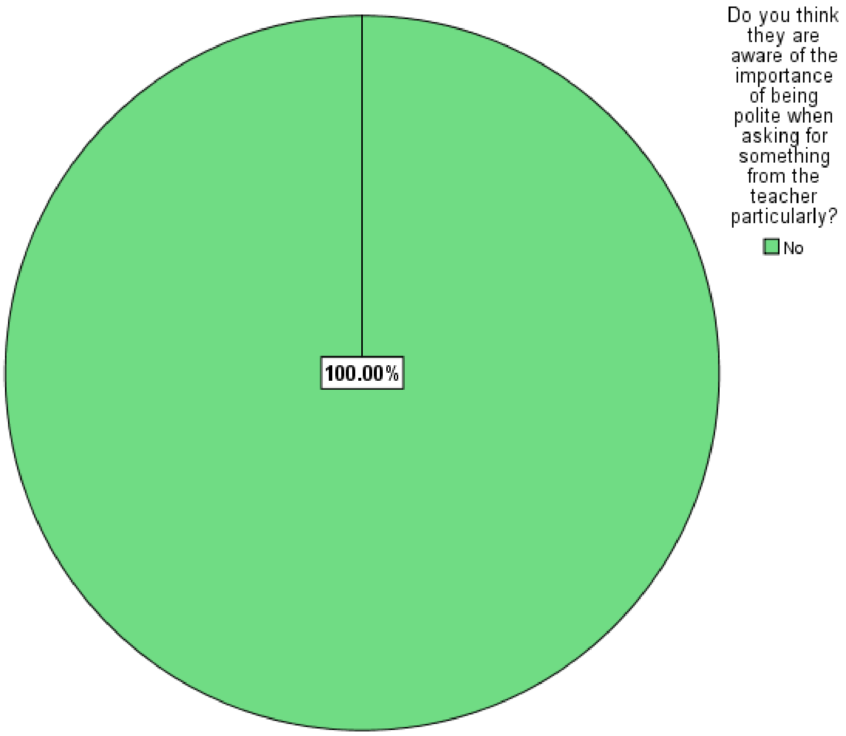
10) The importance of being polite when we asking the teachers :

Table :Do you think they are aware of the importance of being polite when asking for something from the teacher particularly?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid No	7	100.0	100.0	100.0

- from this table **all teachers** believe thatall students don't think that the polite in request is very important to ask teachers
- The result is shown in the following graphic representation

Figure 10: Camembert representation of use The importance of being polite when we asking the teachers



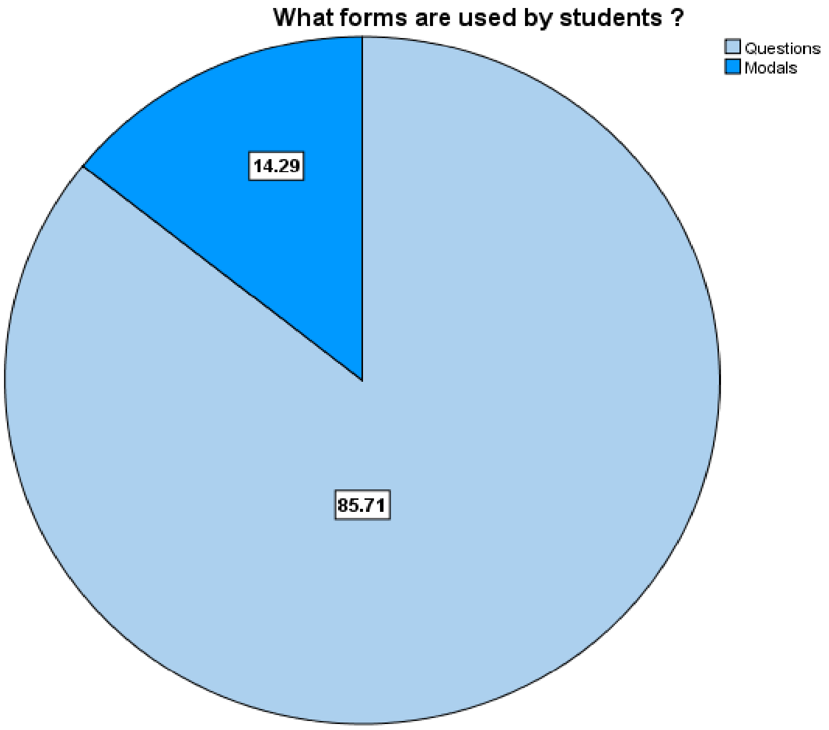
11) The form of request used by students

Table :What forms are used by students ?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Questions	6	85.7	85.7	85.7
	Modals	1	14.3	14.3	100.0
	Total	7	100.0	100.0	

- from this table teachers believe that **almoststudents**use the questions request and only **(14.3% /n=1)** use the modals
- The result is shown in the following graphic representation

Figure 11: Camembert representation of use of the modals request



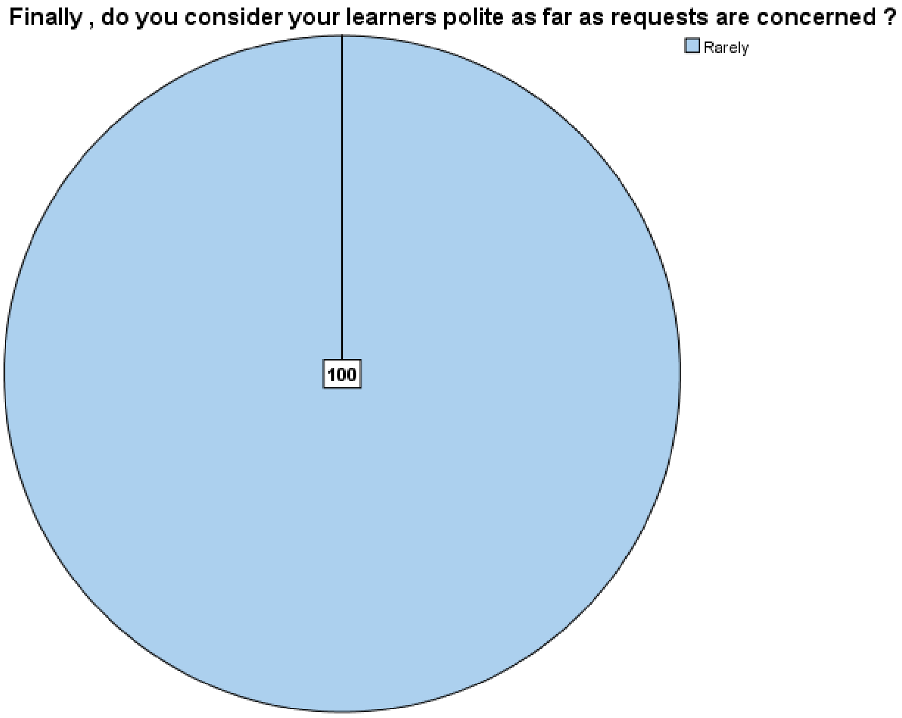
12) The use of the polite form studied in request

Table :Finally , do you consider your learners polite as far as requests are concerned ?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Rarely	7	100.0	100.0	100.0

- from this table teachers believe that **almost students they did not use the polite form studied in their request**
- The result is shown in the following graphic representation

Figure 12: Camembert representation of use of polite request



Appendix C

Lesson: Modal Verbs

Transaction 1

Review

Sub- transaction

1.1 What is a modal verb?

01-T: Well its modal verbs, we have said last session that modal verbs are like helping verbs or like

- The auxiliary verbs to do 'and 'to have'
- eh ….they are called helping verbs because they come next tothe main verb of the sentence and they help to add meaning to that main verb of the sentence.
- Clear ?

Initiation (starter + inform + comprehension check)

2-Ss**:** Yes, madam

Response (reply)

Sub- transaction

1.2 Modal verbs functions

3-T: We have said that many functions could be expressed using modals like; necessity, intention, permission, ability, suggestion, obligation, prohibition.

- Right?

Initiation (inform + elicit+ marker)

4-Ss: Yes!

Response (reply)

Sub-transaction

1.3What are the differences between auxiliary verbs and modal verbs?

5-T: let's look for what's the difference between auxiliary verbs and model verbs we have

- She did not come to the funeral …., and
- She could not come to the funeral.
- For the first sentence, it's an auxiliary verb 'to do' in the past so she didn't come to the funeral means that maybe she has chosen not to come she was able to come but she didn't come.
- So, it's just a negative sentence or a denial of coming.
- The second: she could not come to the funeral it means that she was not able to come as if she wanted to attend that funeral however, she was not able to.
- In order to show the lack of ability we used the model verb.
- Have you got the deference between auxiliary verbs and model verbs?

Initiation (starter+ inform +conclusion+ clue+ comprehension check)

6- Ss: Yes, madam.

Response (reply)

7- T: So model verbs help to add meaning to the main verb.

- Any questions?

Initiation continuity (conclusion + elicitation through question)

8-S1: Last time you have said... I can't just remember; you have said that they express meaning of cause or contrast…

Response (explain)

9-T: Expressing cause and contrast can't be using modal verbs because they need a whole phrase or sentence, conjunctive words or connecters like "because, however".

- These are words help to express the meaning of cause and contrast but model verbs help to express an additional meaning to the main verb for example here is the lack of ability.

- The meanings that could be expressed by model verbs can be expressed through different models and the same model can express different meanings so they don't have only one function or meaning.
- For example: He cannot be at home because I have just met him.
- Euuuh, unless you finish your homework, you cannot go to the cinema.
- So, it's the same model verb, but it has different meanings, what do you think of the two sentences?

Feedback (negative evaluation + clarification) + Initiation (inform +exploratory request)

10-S9: (Repeating the two sentences).

- It is logical they do not have the same sense.

Response (reply)

11-T: In the first sentence, it's logical because I have the evidence that he was not at home. What about the second one?

Feedback (accept+ inform) + Initiation (elicitation)

12- S2: It's Miss, conditional.

Response (bid+ reply)

13-T: Eh…. hum, not exactly, its prohibition (T writing on the board).

- So, different meanings could be expressed by model verbs and it depends on … yes!
- On what?

Feedback (negative evaluation +inform)

14-S5: the sentence.

Response (explain)

15-T: Yes, the context, then we said that the similar function or meaning can be expressed by different models for example:

- Can I help you?
- May I help you?

- It’s what?

Feedback (accept) + Initiation (inform + exploratory request)

16-S11: An offer, miss.

Response (reply+ bid)

17-T: Yes, exactly…..good!

- Eh! It’s an offer for help.
- Okay?

Feedback (acknowledge + marker) + Initiation (comprehension check)

18-Ss: Yes!

Response (reply)

Sub-transaction

1.4 Characteristics of modal verbs:

19-T: (T writing on the board)

- What have we said about the spelling and form of the verbs who can remember?
- Can the model verbs take the “ed” of the past and the “s” of the present?

Initiation (clue)

20- S9: They do not take the “s” of the present.

Response (explain)

21-T: Yes good, they do not take the‘s’ of the present is this the only exception?

Feedback (acknowledge) + Initiation (exploratory request)

22-S2: They are not followed by "to".

Response (reply)

23- T: Yes, that's right S2, but there is an exception eh , yes?

- What we’ve said about this last time?

Feedback (accept+ nomination + loop) +Initiation (exploratory request)

24- S1: Ought to

Response (reply)

25-T: eh

Eh yes! How we form questions?

Like the sentence: She could not come to the funeral, how we form questions with sentences that contain modals?

Feedback (loop+ accept) + Initiation (exploratory request)

26- S5: the inversion.

Response (reply)

27- T: Yeah, so the modal precedes the subject.

The negative form we just add the article 'not' after the model.

- What is the last note?
- Can we say: she could will not come?

Feedback (accept) + Initiation (exploratory request)

28- S12: No, future, eh

Response (reply + loop)

29- S9: Two modals can't be used!

Response (inform)

30-T: Yes, two modals can't be used at the same time,

- Yeah!
- Exactly, we cannot use two modals next to each other.
- Any questions till now?

Feedback (accept+ inform) + Initiation complete (exploratory request)

31-Ss: No, miss.

Response (inform+ bid)

Transaction 2

Possibility

32- T: Let's see some new examples for modals for type one (teacher writing at the same time on the board)

- We said: **may, can, could, might, shall, should, must, have to**…etc.; and **ought to** has similar function like **must** and **should**.
- It is used to give advice or to show obligation for example:
- Smoking can cause cancer.
- Uh, as if, someone who smokes a lot he can get cancer or not
- It is not how to say, if we omit can as if it's general truth however when we add can we mean the sense of Eh! Yes?

Initiation (inform + exploratory request)

33- S10: Possibility.

Response (inform)

34- T: Yes, possibility, someone who smokes can get cancer and may be others will not have cancer.

- Clear?

Feedback (accept+ inform+ comprehension check)

35- Ss: Yes!

Response (inform)

Transaction 3

Obligation

36-T: Now, let's see the second example (teacher reading the handout):

- You must stop when the traffic lights turn red. So, we've must.
- Eh what does it express?

Initiation (inform+ elicitation+ loop)

37- S3: Obligation.

Response (reply)

38- T: Eh, obligation yes,

- so it's" a must" it's like "you have to" as if you don't stop may be the carswill be crushed or something, in order to respect the traffic lights and the obligation of stopping when the lights turn red.
- Clear?

Feedback (accept+ inform) + Initiation (loop+ comprehension check)

39- Ss: Yes!

Response (inform)

Transaction 4

Advice / Order

40- T: Let's see the next sentence (Teacher reading the handout).

- You must not smoke in the hospital.
- So, it is obviously prohibition, it is obvious that smoking is not allowed in the hospital. (Teacher is reading from the handouts)
- It may rain tomorrow!
- It's possibility.
- Eh you should/ ought to revise your lessons.
- So, it is advice or how to say,
- If your mom telling you, you should revise your lessons, she is not really advising you right?

Initiation (inform+ elicitation+ starter+ loop)

41-S: it's an order.

Response (reply)

42-T: Yes! It’s an order but she uses you should to show that you have the choice but actually you don’t have it.

- So you have to revise your lessons otherwise you will fail.
- Right?

Feedback (accept+ inform) + Initiation (comprehension check+ conclusion)

43-Ss: Yes, miss!

Response (reply+ bid)

Transaction 5

Ability

44-T: So usually we use the term auxiliary for this, and these ones we use the term modals.

- These are different meanings communicated by those verbs.
- Eh we are going to present some of the functions, not all of them.
- Some of them and the modal verbs express that express those functions.
- You know what is ability?

Initiation (inform + metastatement + starter+ exploratory request)

45- S5: Yes

Response (inform)

46- S4: Yes miss. I am able to

Response continuity (inform)

47- S3: Yes. It means I can do something

Response (reply)

48- S1: I am able to or I can do something

Response continuity (consensus building)

49-T: Good.

- Now, let’s see how to we express ability.
- Eh, I have given few examples

- (T. Reads the 1st example) Emma is good with computers.
- She can write programs.
- Eh I have used the modal verb can.
- Eh we can also use is able to express ability.
- The difference between them is that she is able is more formal.
- Eh we have to make difference between what is formal and informal.
- So, when do we use informal English?

Feedback (evaluate) + initiation (inform + elicit+ marker+loop)

50- S2 : With friends.

Response (reply)

51- T: with friends, with relatives and so on.

- Clear?

Feedback (accept + explain) + initiation (comprehension check)

52- Ss: Yes miss.

Response (reply)

53- T: What about formal English? Where do we use formal English?

- With whom?

Initiation (exploratory request)

54- S5: With teachers

Response (explain)

55- S13: In meetings

Response continuity (reply)

56-T: Yes, with teachers, in meetings and so on.

- Done! So, eh I can use is able to refer to ability.
- The differences are able to, am able to and eh is able to are more formal than can.
- You can see here the modal verb the bare infinity. It helps this verb that's why some books call them helpful verbs.
- We have also other modal verbs like could. For example she could/ was able to play the piano

- Eh we use could, was able to, were able to, to talk about ability in the past, now I am not able, but in the past I was able ,
- These are some modal verbs we use to express ability.
- Clear?

Feedback (accept) +initiation continuity (comment +conclusion loop+ comprehension check)

57- SS: Yes miss.

Response (reply)

Transaction 6

Permission

58- T: Another communicative function is eh permission; it means eh how I ask you for permission or to express permission.

Initiation (inform)

59- T: We can use can, may, could. For example (T1 reads the examples one by one) Can I use your pen? Means do you permit me to use your pen.

Initiation continuity (comment)

60- T: May I see the letter?

- It is more formal.
- May I use your pen?
- The difference is that I classified them according to formality.
- So, the 1st example here eh Can I use you're pen? Is less formal.
- Now, this example: Could we borrow a letter?
- It is more polite that can.
- Is it OK?

Initiation (inform +loop+ comprehension check)

61- Ss: Yes it's clear.

Response (inform)

62- T: If I am speaking with a teacher I am going to say:

- May I use your pen?
- May I see your letter?

- Clear?

Initiation continuity (comment + comprehension check)

63- Ss: Yes

Response (reply)

64- T: Sometimes we use must to express permission.

- Look at this example Luggage must not be left here.
- It means I do not permit you to .There is no permission
- Do not put luggage here. So luggage must not be left here.
- Clear?

Initiation (starter+ inform + checking comprehension+ conclusion)

65- Ss: Yes

Response (reply)

66- T: Can, could, may, are more polite and formal.

- Eh, if I give the permission my answer will be yes. أسمح لك.
- Clear?
- If a student says can I use your pen?
- I reply of course you can.
- Yes?

Initiation (inform +loop+ comment+ comprehension check + information request)

67- Ss: Yes.

Response (reply)

Transaction 7

Suggestion

68- T: Now let's see another communicative function that modal verbs can express.

- It is suggestion
- Eh if I want to suggest something we use modal verbs eh for example, eh we have here a list of examples.
- Look at the examples on the board
- It's a movely day!
- Shall we / let's go for a walk.

- Eh, you could invite few friends around.
- The 3rd one: Why don't we have a look around the market?
- Eh so most them are interrogative sentences.
- Eh if you remember where we studied types of sentences.
- We said we can have an imperative sentence formed like a declarative sentence or euh an exclamatory sentence formed like an interrogative sentence and so on .
- Donc, shall we go for a walk.
- It sounds like a question.
- So we use an interrogative sentence with shall we to express suggestion.
- We can use could in a suggestion.
- Look here!
- Eh all these are modal verbs to express suggestion.
- Clear?

Initiation (inform + comment+ loop+ conclusion+ comprehension check)

69- Ss: Yes

Response (reply)

Transaction 8

Offer

70- T: Modal verbs can express an offer.

- When I offer something eh to express offer we use different expressions eh, for example,
- I can carry your bag, don't express ability but an offer, i.e.,
- I offer my help.
- Now look at this example.
- Shall we pay you the money? This context means an offer.
- Can I get a taxi for you? I' m offering also my help eh not ability but an offer.
- Would you like more coffee?
- Offering a drink. +
- Will you take more?

Initiation (inform+ elicit+ comment+ comprehension check)

71-T: En now, has a biscuit? It is less formal offer.

- Now we have invitation eh it means when you invite someone we use for instance:
- Would you?
- But will you is less polite.
- Another thing to add here, eh the use of the past is more polite than the use of the simple present eh like when we say come and have coffee with us euh it's an invitation too.
- Clear?

Initiation complete (inform +loop+ comprehension check)

72-Ss: It's clear.

Response (inform)

Transaction 9

Request

73- T: Well, the last communicative function is request. So, what is request first?

Initiation (metastatement+ elicit)

74- S4: Ask for something

Response (explain)

75- T: Good S5

- Eh when you ask someone to do something for you as you have said.
- For example, S5 asked me before to repeat explaining the difference between must and have to.
- It was a request but not a polite request eh that is why you have to follow me to learn about modal verbs.
- Ok?

Feedback (accept + comment) + initiation (directive + loop+ comprehension check)

76- Ss: Yes

Response (inform)

77-T: You have to use tow form polite requests.

- Eh we have two forms: interrogative forms and affirmative or positive forms.
- For interrogative form we use can or could and eh could is more polite than can euh .
- If you ask a question from your teacher or a stranger.

- Eh for example can you keep me informed?
- euh and here could you keep me informed ?
- the last one is more polite.
- We have other expressions that can be used to express requests for instance we have here.
- Do you mind waiting a moment this request is not polite at all.
- The second example can you wait a moment?
- Would you wait a moment or will you and would you like to wait a moment / May I /Can I/ Could I eh these expressions are used to form polite requests.
- Clear?

Initiation (inform + comment+ loop+ comprehension check)

78- Ss: Miss, can I request without the use of can and could?

Response (exploratory request)

79-T: Yes, we can ask for something in affirmative sentence.

I say shut the door.

Please .I can start the sentence by please.

Eh, please give me an example, an example, there is no could or would or can eh no modals are used

Feedback (accept + inform) + initiation (application request)

78- S16: Tow coffees, please

Response (reply)

79- T: How do we call this?

80-S12 yes?

Feedback (accept) + initiation (exploratory request)

81- S16: What? The example? a sentence !

Response (explain)

82-T: It Is not A Sentence simply because there is no verb, no subject and verb- but we consider it is a phrase.

Maybe you have seen that before in written expression

eh when we write a sentence like a phrase is an error, we call it sentence fragment.

Eh in conversation there is what we call sentence fragment.

It is not a sentence, but accepted in conversation eh and it is a request eh I may say I want two coffees please. It is not formal and I may say I would like two coffees. eh or I may say I would like that you prepare me two coffees and I may add please. Is it ok?

Feedback (disagree + clarification) + initiation (inform + comprehension request)

83- Ss: Yes.

Response (inform)

84T: Any question? Do you know all these things?

Initiation complete (information request)

85-Ss: Yes.

Response (reply)

86-Ss: What I am doing here?

- You know them and you don't practice them?

Initiation (elicitation +exploratory + information question)

87- Ss: Hahahaha (laugh) yes.

Response (inform)

88- S3: Because of our culture

Response (clarification)

89-T: Why?

- Our culture and religion taught us to do polite. Don't throw this on our culture

Feedback (neg-evaluation+ comment).

Appendix D

Lesson Plans

Softening Requests (Internal Modifications)

Level: Advanced

Length of activity: 60 minutes

Resources: Authentic requests collected in the target language.

Goals: To familiarise students with a variety of various strategies used by native speakers to soften their requests and to increase their understanding of how these structures are utilised by different speakers and in different settings within the speech community.

Procedure:

Warm-up stage

Students are asked to consider various requests to make when they are in need of assistance from someone they know.

-Students are questioned about who they would think of first in such scenarios.

-students offer suggestions based on the structures they have learnt.

Language input and pragmatic awareness raising:

A-View a still frame from the video with the title: It is time for plan B

a. Students make predictions about the context, the participants, and what will be said during the first viewing (gist)

B-Verify early projections: Inquire of Ss what occurred, who the participants were.

C- Individual cues were used on the second viewing.

a. Ss complete the gaps during/after the second viewing.
b. Address inconsistencies in clarity/comprehension/vocabulary

B-Third viewing using the prompts to verify replies

D-Contextual / participant / L1 & L2 pragmatics awareness raising

a. Discuss with Ss the probable repercussions of the "Scene 01" demands.

b. Ss L1 pragmatic awareness: In this scenario, what would be an acceptable reaction in your country/culture?
c. Ss replies should be written on the board under the "country" category.
d. Invite students to role-play the video's dialogue as it might occur in their respective cultures.
e. Students reword prompts to be more polite in their demands.
f. Presentation of rules and pragmatic language (Part 1: Basics)
   .Basic functions and strategies are described.
g. On the board, the teacher puts students' requests (from the warm-up exercise at the start of the session).
h. Students rephrase them to be more polite, incorporating the strategies taught throughout thesession. Assign them the task of underlining and labelling these strategies. Rewrite the video prompt using the strategies you have studied.
i. Instruct Students to determine which (if any) were used in their L1 replies in (b.) above.

Language Production through Communicative Practice

-Students are separated into pairs and each is given a table with proposed requests that learners should soften.

-Students are requested to submit their responses to the entire class for discussion and additional input.

-Numerous contextual factors are discussed to demonstrate their effect on the speaker's choice of linguistic form.

Materials

Disguised Requests

What they really mean?

Olivia:

Is it 10 o’clock already?

Claire

Is Olivia really asking about the time? After all, she did just check her watch.

Mark

This is a great party, I love telling my stories, did I tell you about my last camping holiday?

Olivia

No, I don’t think you did… Is it 10 o’clock already?

Mark

Well, yes, it is… anyway, so you wanted to hear about my camping trip….

Olivia

Have you got a long journey home?

Mark

No, you’ve been there – it’s not far. It won’t take me long to get home … anyway, we were staying in these tents…

Olivia

When were you thinking of leaving?

Mark

Leaving? Well, I'm going to call a taxi… so – I can stay a while yet. …anyway as I was saying, we were staying in these tents…

Olivia

Can you not take a hint? I need you to go home now. I’m tired… and I could not care less about your camping holiday!

Mark

Oh, um… Alright I’ll be leaving then….

Mark

I’m confused… why was Olivia so angry?

Claire

Well, the thing is you ignored all of her hints.

Mark

Hints?

Claire

The questions she was asking you. You weren't supposed to answer them.

Mark

No?

Claire

Olivia wasn't asking these questions to get information, she was asking them to highlight something – they were disguised requests. She asked about the time, his journey and the time that he planned to leave. He was supposed to think about these things, and realise that it was quite late, and that maybe she might want to go to sleep. This is less direct and considered more polite that just saying "Can you leave? I want to go to sleep". We can use questions like this in lots of different situations – and you'll see some more examples at the end of the programme.

Mark

So what should I do with these questions?

Claire

Answer the questions, but then demonstrate that you have understood the hint.

Mark

So, did I tell you about my last camping holiday.

Olivia

No, I don't think you did… is it 10 o'clock already?

Mark

Oh it is. Yes, it is getting a bit late?

Olivia

Yes, have you got a long journey home?

Mark

Well, it's not too far – but I probably should be getting home soon.

Olivia

And when were you thinking of leaving?

Mark

Soon… actually, I'll call a cab now.

Olivia

Thanks for coming. It was lovely to see you.

Olivia

Is there any coffee in that pot?

Mark

Is it cold in here?

Olivia

Is there anything else on?

Disguised requests

Practice

Which of these is a disguised request?

A Give me a chocolate.

B Do you mind if I take a chocolate?

C Are there any chocolates in that box?

Which of these is a disguised request?

A Could you turn that light on please?

B Does anyone else think it's a bit dark in here?

C Turn on the light.

Which of these is a disguised request?

A Can we leave now?

B Would you mind if we left now?

C Is it getting late?

Which of these is a disguised request?

A Could I use your pen?

B Would it be a problem if I usedyour pen?

C Is this your pen?

Pair Work

Request	**Modal (more polite)**	**Softeners even more polite)** **Add softeners**
Can you give me the book? **(ability)**		
Can I have the book? **(possibility/permission)**		
May I have the book?		
Will you give me the book? **(willingness)**		

Activity 1: Answer Key

Read the description of the situation below, then read the dialogue. In all three situations, Sandy (S) her husband Roger, and her sister Jessica (1) are eating dinner together.

Jessica has been living with sandy and Roger for serval months. A blank has been inserted where a request occurs. fill in the blank with an appropriate request for the situation in each of the following:

Situation 1:

Jessica always cooks dinner, and Sandy and Roger clean up, However, Sandy asks her sister to do the cleaning this evening.

S: Jessica...

J: Mm, What?

S: Do you think you could clean up tonight? Roger and I have to go out right after dinner. I'll cook and clean up tomorrow.

Situation 2:

Sandy and Roger 's babysitter has just called to say that she is sick and can't take care of Sandy and Rogers 3-year-old daughter Annie tomorrow. Sandy knows that Jessica plans to meet a friend tomorrow, but Sandy can't stay home from work, and neither can Roger. In this scene, Sandy asks her sister to stay home and take care of Annie.

S: Jessica...

J: Mm, What?

S: I know you have plans tomorrow, but is there any chance you could take care of Annie? the babysitter is sick and we can't miss work.

Situation 3:

Roger has never been happy about Jessica staying with them, and Sandy has finally begun to get tired of her sister's inconsiderate behavior. In this scene, Sandy asks her sister to find another place to live.

S: Jessica...

J: Mm, what?

S: I was wondering if it wasn't time for you to start thinking about finding a place of your own. I am sure you would be happier somewhere you can enjoy your privacy and independence.

Worksheet : Producing Requests

Read the description of the following situations. Then read the dialogue. In all three situations, Carl (C) and Alex (A) are high school students who know each other from classes they nave taken together. They are not close friends, but they often talk before class.

A blank has been inserted where a request occurs. Fill in the blank with an appropriate request for each situation. When you are finished, you can listen to the dialogue (available at http://www.tesolmedia.com/books/pragmatics) and compare your answers.

Situation 1: Carl and Alex are both in the classroom waiting for class to begin. Today is a major test, and Carl realizes that he doesn't have anything to write with. Carl asks Alex for a pen.

C: Hey Alex

A: Yeah

C: [write Carl's request to borrow a pen]

Situation 2: Carl and Alex are just leaving school. Alex is rushing, as he has told Carl that he has an appointment after school and he can't be late. To finish his homework, Carl desperately needs to borrow a book that Alex has put away in his backpack.

C: Hey Alex..

A: Yeah:

C: [write Carl's request to borrow the book]

Situation 3: Carl knows that Alex understands the material in the class. He also knows that Alex is extremely busy outside of class with work and family obligations. A major test is coming up, and Carl needs help. He wants to ask Alex to ask Alex to spend an evening helping him study for the test.

C: Hey Alex ...

A: Yeah?

C: [write Carl's request for Alex to help him study]

Worksheet 2: Looking for Similarities and Differences Across Cultures

1. Read the questions below and indicate yes or no.

In your culture would you usually ...	**Yes**	**No**
Ring up and tell your boss if you are going to be absent?		
tell your boss if you had a personal problem?		
call your boss by his or her first name?		
knock on the door before entering your boss's office?		

negotiate with your boss for more pay?		
negotiate with your boss for holiday leave?		

2. Compare your answers with others in the class.

3. Discuss the following questions:

(a) Are there any differences across different cultures?

(b) Are there differences across different types of jobs?

Worksheet 2: Answer Key

Note: It is normally expected that employees will telephone their supervisors if they are going to be absent, but how specifically they discuss particular personal problems will vary according to the kind of relationship they have. The tenor of communication in many workplaces in Australia tends to be informal (more so than in other English-speaking countries), so first names are often used, even with those higher in rank. We would recommend knocking on the door of the boss's office before entering, and feel that in many circumstances the timing of holiday leave might be negotiable. Whether or not pay rates can be negotiated will depend on whether there is a general industry or workplace agreement on such issues. There are likely to be differences in views and experiences among speakers from different cultural backgrounds.

Worksheet 4A: Stages of a Request Interaction-Request to a Boss

In the dialogue, Naomi makes her request in a number of stages. Listen to the dialogue (available at http://www.tesolmedia.com/books/pragmatics) and look at the table see what Naomi says in each of the stages. Next to the examples from the transcript of Naomi’s speech in the dialogue are notes on the language she used. Note that Naomi Brenda are interacting in an Australian context.

The following table presents the stages in a request interaction:

Stages	Example	Notes
Greeting	Hi Brenda .. have you got a minute?	In Australia workers often call each other by their first name, even the boss. This practice may vary in other English-speaking countries. "Have you got a minute“ makes the interruption seem less important.
Prerequest/ support move	You look like you've got a bit of a fun morning ahead... I've got a bit of that (i.e., paperwork) to do myself after lunch. I was wondering if I could talk to you about the latest roster you've just put up.	Naomi tries to establish rapport with Brenda by finding some common ground. The phrase "I was wondering if I could" makes the sentence less direct and the past tense makes it seem less direct and urgent.
The request	I was really hoping I could have the weekend free	The past and continuous forms have been used to make the request less direct in "I was hoping." The word "really is added to make the request stronger.
Reason	I just had a call from my mum last night and she and my dad are flying down to Melbourne next weekend.	Naomi gives a reason but not a lot of details as it's a personal matter.
Offer /support move	I just thought maybe I could swap the following weekend with Carla. I'm happy to do two in a row.	Naomi offers a possible solution to the | problem. This shows her willingness to take responsibility for her actions and to make it easier for Brenda.
Closing	That'll be great. Thanks Brenda	Thanks

Worksheet 4B: Stages of a Request Interaction-Request to a Colleague

1. Look at the dialogue that Sue, one of Naomi's colleagues, had with Brenda, the supervisor, earlier in the week. Look at how Sue stages her request.

Sue: Hello Brenda ... could I have a quick word with you please?

Brenda: Yes, sure... come in.

Sue: Now Brenda, I know we're pretty busy at the moment, but I haven taken any of my leave yet this year.

Brenda: Mmm.

Sue: So, I was wondering if I could take three weeks of my leave now... well starting next week when you do the new rosters.

Brenda: Oh Sue.. I know you have got the leave owing but it's really not a good time right now.

Sue: Yes, I understand that but I'm starting to feel very tired and so I'm making silly mistakes. I really need a break.

Brenda: Oh dear.. that's no good is it? Do you think you could wait for a couple of weeks ... then we'll have Jenny back?

Sue: Mmm...OK... well another two weeks is all right I guess if I know there's some light at the end of the tunnel!

Brenda: OK then Sue... if you fill out your leave forms today I'll sign them so we can get them in

Sue: Good thanks Brenda ... I'll get them to you by the end of the day.

2. Now put Sue's part of the dialogue into the table below.

Stages	**Sue says...**
Greeting	
Prerequest/support move	
Request	
Reason	
Offer /support move	
Closing	

Worksheet 4B: Answer Key

Stages	Sue says..
Greeting	Hello Brenda.
Prerequest/support move	Could I have a quick word with you please? Now Brenda, I know we're pretty busy at the moment, but I haven't taken any of my leave yet this year.
Request	So, I was wondering if I could take three weeks of my leave now
Reason	….but I'm starting to feel very fired and so I'm making silly mistakes. I really need a break.
Offer/support move	Mmm..OK...well another two weeks is all right I guess if I know there's some light at the end of the tunnel!
Closing	Good:. thanks Brenda... I'll get them to you by the end of the day.

Worksheet 6: Creating Softened Requests

Part 1: These grammatical structures can be used to "soften" requests For example:

- **Past-tense forms**
  For example, I wanted to ask you to finish the paperwork tonight.
- **Continuous forms**
  For example, I was wondering if you could give me any extra work.
- **Would like rather than**
  For example, I would like (I'd like) some extra help on the shift.

Part II: Using the softening forms above, write requests according to the instructions below.

1. Make requests using the words below and use the past-tense form to soften.

can / give / box

(a) ______________________________

want / talk / about my training

(b) ______________________________

wonder if / can leave / early tonight

(c) ______________________________

2. Make requests using these words and use the continuous form to soften them:

wonder / take a few days off

(a) ______________________________

hope / finish at 9:00 p.m.

(b) ____

3. Make requests using these words and use would like to soften them:

want / take tomorrow off

(a) ____

want / start a bit later in the morning

(b) ____

Worksheet 6: Answer Key for Part II

1. (a) Could you give me the box? (b) I wanted to talk to you about my training

(c) I wondered if I can leave early tonight?

2. (a) I am wondering if I can take a few days off. (b) I am hoping to finish at

9:00 p.m.

3. (a) I would like to take tomorrow off. (b) I would like to start a bit later in the morning

Worksheet 2: Identifying Request Directness Levels

Individually or in small groups, identify the following requests as either direct, indirect, or neither.

1. Turn off the television now! It's time for breakfast.
2. I'm asking you to turn off the television, son.
3. I would like to ask you to turn off the television now and come to breakfast.
4. You have to turn off that television, son.
5. I really wish you'd turn off that television.
6. How about turning off the television now?
7. Son, your breakfast is getting cold. Why don't you come into the kitchen and eat?
8. I don't want you to be late for school, son. Could you turn off the television now?
9. I don't know why I even bother to make breakfast for you.
10. I know that can't be the television I hear
11. You know how I feel about watching television in the morning.

12. I'm sorry I forgot to make breakfast today.
13. Oh! What's on television?
14. That's my favorite program, son.

Worksheet 2: Answer Key

1. direct; imperative
2. direct; explicit requesting verb
3. direct; hedged requesting verb
4. conventional indirect; intention derivable
5. conventional indirect; statement of wanting
6. conventional indirect; suggestion formula
7. conventional indirect; suggestion formula with external modification
8. conventional indirect; could you phrasing in question with external modification
9. nonconventional indirect; strong hint
10. nonconventional indirect; mild hint
11. nonconventional indirect; mild hint
12. neither
13. neither
14. neither

Worksheet: Self-Diagnosis Report Sheet

Evaluate your answer to each of the three dinner table situations using the following questions.

(Situation 1) Requesting sister to clean up

a. Your first answer
b. The answer you like best now.
c. Why?

(Situation 2) Requesting sister to stay home and watch Annie

a. Your first answer
b. The answer you like best now
c. Why?

(Situation 3) Requesting sister to move out

a. Your first answer
b. The answer you like best now
c. Why?

Worksheet 4: Answer Key

Any answers the students write are acceptable. The teacher can correct any grammatical or word-choice errors and comment on the appropriateness of the original and final choices, as well as the reasons expressed by the student (e.g., if the original request written by the student seems just as good as or better than the final choice, the teacher should point that out). Besides returning the worksheet with feedback, the teacher can look for recurring patterns in the students' responses and share frequently observed points with the whole class.

Appendix E

Pre-test

The following are eight situations. After reading the description of every situation, put down what you would say in each case. Sometimes, more than one answer is appropriate.

<u>Situation 1:</u>

You are sitting in the living room watching TV with your younger brother. It is a hot day; you want to ask him to run the air conditioner. What would you say?

………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………..……………………

<u>Situation 2:</u>

You are trying to sleep but you cannot, your neighbour makes too much noise. You want to ask him to turn the music down. What would you say?

………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………..……………………

<u>Situation 3:</u>

You are in the university; you seem to have misplaced your textbook, and you have a lecture in 30 minutes. You want to lend your classmate's copy. What would you say?

………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………..……………………

<u>Situation 4:</u>

You have just learned that you have to travel in the afternoon, and you want to inform your manager who has a meeting at the moment. What would you say?

………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………..……………………

<u>Situation 5:</u>

You are travelling for some days tomorrow, and suddenly you discover that the shower in your bathroom seems to be leaking. You call the company to request a plumber to fix it today. What would you say?

………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………..……………………

Situation 6:

You invite your friend for a meal in a new restaurant; you are not sure exactly where the restaurant is. So, you ask someone in the street to show you the way to this restaurant. What would you say?

……………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………..……………………

Situation 7:

You missed the registration for an interesting professional training, and you want to meet the organiser, whom you don't know before, to ask him to extend the deadline. What would you say?

……………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………..……………………

……………………………………………………………………..

Situation 8:

You have just received an essay back, and you want to discuss it with your professor, who has a busy schedule. You want to make an appointment to see him as soon as possible. What would you say?

……………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………