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Caught between Two Cultures: The Realization of Requests by Jordanian EFL Learners

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CAUGHT BETWEEN TWO CULTURES: THE REALIZATION OF REQUESTS BY

JORDANIAN EFL LEARNERS

A Dissertation

Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies and Research

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Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

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Title: Caught between Two Cultures: The Realization of Requests by Jordanian EFL
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This study contributes to the existing literature on teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) by investigating advanced Jordanian EFL learners' request speech act realization compared to that of native American English speakers, as well as the influence of Arabic, the learners' native language (L1), on learner realization. The study considered the two primary aspects of pragmatic competence: *performance* (pragmalinguistic knowledge) and *perception* (sociopragmatic knowledge). A multimethod data collection approach – (a) a discourse completion task (DCT) and (b) a scaled-response questionnaire (SRQ) – was employed to elicit performance and perception data from 132 participants divided into three groups: (a) 44 native speakers of Jordanian Arabic (JA), (b) 44 native speakers of American English (AE), and (c) 44 Jordanian EFL (JEFL) learners.

Results showed that although the JEFL study participants demonstrated a developmental pattern towards the use of American English norms of speech, they continued to be significantly influenced by their L1. On the pragmalinguistic level, the JEFL participants, following L1 pragmatic norms, were systematically more direct than were the AE participants. The JEFL participants also demonstrated negative pragmatic transfer in their choice of perspective and their limited use of conventions of means and

form within their employment of conventional indirectness. The JEFL participants' use of supportive moves and internal modifications showed completely opposite patterns; that is, whereas the JEFL participants' demonstrated excessive verbosity by using supportive moves significantly more than did the AE participants, they significantly underused internal modifications such as consultative devices, downtoners/hedges, and understaters compared to the AE participants.

On the sociopragmatic level, the JEFL and AE participants differed in regards to 4 of the 5 contextual variables that were investigated. The JEFL participants' negative pragmatic transfer was most evident in their perception of the variable of *the speaker's right to make the request*. Furthermore, the JEFL participants tended to assess variables differently than did both groups of native speakers, indicating that their sociopragmatic knowledge is still at the developmental stage.

Based on the findings, the study concludes with some pedagogical implications that could be implemented in the EFL context.

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INTRODUCTION

Hostess (to a foreign visitor who has given her a small present):

"Oh, you really shouldn't have!"

Visitor (anxious and puzzled): "But I. . . . Why not?"

(Riley, 1989, p. 236)

Overview

Never before has learning a second language been more crucial than in the era of globalization. Until recently, cross-cultural communication was restricted to a small proportion of the world population: heads of state and government officials, explorers, business people, and a limited number of tourists were the main travelers and visitors to foreign lands. The huge leap in transportation and communication technologies and the declining importance of political borders under free trade policies have dramatically increased the possibility of interaction and mobility among nations and people around the globe, figuratively shrinking the earth to a global village. More than ever in human history, countries are becoming more interdependent regarding business, academics, and politics. Within these open spaces, second language learning has acquired a significance beyond that of a personal goal; it has become an essential means of competing in the global market, securing employment in local markets, obtaining a quality education, and remaining abreast of scientific and cultural changes in a rapidly changing world.

Impelled by this demand on communicative abilities, second-language learning pedagogy has undergone a major paradigm shift, moving from a sole focus on form to a joint focus on both form and function. The introduction of *communicative competence* for language learning and testing (Canale & Swain, 1980) has involved a steadily growing

awareness that effectively learning a second language for a host of expressive and

communicative purposes demands more than memorizing vocabulary, mastering the rules

of grammar, and approximating native-like pronunciation; it also entails acquiring

pragmatic competence (Bachman, 1990) or *sociolinguistic competence* (Canale, 1983;

Canale & Swain, 1980).

Despite this awareness, research has demonstrated that even fairly advanced

learners can have considerable difficulty acquiring the rules of appropriate language

behavior, often leading them to experience a breakdown in communication known as

pragmatic failure (Beebe, Takahashi, & Uliss-Weltz, 1990; Bouton, 1994; Eisenstein &

Bodman, 1986; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996; Takahashi & Beebe, 1987; Thomas, 1983;

Wolfson, 1989). Beebe et al., Kasper and Blum-Kulka, Rose and Kasper, Thomas, and

Wolfson have pointed out that unlike grammatical errors, which are easily recognized

and often expected of language learners, pragmatic failure is more difficult to detect and

may well result in misjudgment in cross-cultural interaction. Wolfson elaborated,

> Each speech community has, as part of its collective wisdom, the unquestioned
>
> assumption that its own ways of speaking are the correct, proper, honest, and
>
> good ways. For this reason, even people whose occupations lead them to interact
>
> frequently with people of different cultural backgrounds are prone to regard
>
> sociolinguistic rule breaking as a manifestation of a flawed character, and if they
>
> have had what they see as a negative experiences with numerous members of a
>
> particular group, they are apt to stigmatize everyone who belongs to it. (p. 27)

Many who work with a second language, whether teachers, researchers, or students, have experienced or know of an interaction that resulted in cross-cultural pragmatic misunderstanding. Language instructors have often observed incidents in which miscommunication occurred between second-language and native speakers of a language, despite the exchange of seemingly perfect grammatical utterances, due to violation of different pragmatic rules. Consider the following example, provided by Gao and Ting-Toomey (1998):

Chinese: We're going to New Orleans this weekend.

American: What fun! I wish we were going with you. How long are you going to be there?

Chinese: Three days. [I hope she'll offer me a ride to the airport.]

American: [If she wants a ride, she will ask.] Have a great time.

Chinese: [If she had wanted to give me a ride, she would have offered it. I'd better ask somebody else.] Thanks. I'll see you when I get back. (p. 76)

In addition to confusion and disappointment, such exchanges can lead to negative stereotypes and cultural stigma. Rubin (1983) reported a compelling example regarding an Arab student visiting an American family for the first time. During his visit, the student was served some delicious sandwiches. When the host offered him more sandwiches, the Arab student refused. Much to his amazement, the host did not repeat the offer, and as a consequence, "the Arab student sat there, confronted by some lovely sandwiches which he couldn't eat" (p. 14). As an individual of Arab descent, the researcher of the current study can understand the confusion experienced by the student. As part of a larger system of etiquette, Arabs are taught to refuse food and drink

repeatedly, with the expectation that their host will repeat the offer more than once; indeed, if the offer is not repeated, the Arab individual questions the sincerity of the offer.

Cross-cultural pragmatic variation has led to much more catastrophic consequences. On April 17, 1996, *The New York Times* reported that pragmatic failure was the cause of an airline crash that killed 160 people. When an American crew requested assistance over the Andean mountains in Colombia, the Colombian air traffic controller misconstrued their request and failed to assist them, resulting in the crash. The air traffic controller's records showed he had "above average" grades on English proficiency tests, but clearly his classroom performance did not indicate acquisition of pragmatic competence (Hofmann, 2003). That incident was not unique. Saville-Troike (1985) described another airline crash caused by the pilot's misinterpretation of the air traffic controller's silence as a positive response to the pilot's request for permission to land. Clearly, the serious consequences of pragmatic failure demands improved understanding of the pragmatic needs of the second-language learner.

The recognition of the critical importance of pragmatics in learning a second language has led to the ascendancy of *interlanguage pragmatics* (ILP), the study of how nonnative speakers comprehend, develop, and produce speech acts. ILP researchers have examined, among other issues, apologies (e g., Maeshiba, Yoshinaga, Kasper, & Ross, 1996.; Rose, 2000; Trosborg, 1987), requests (e.g., Blum-Kulka, 1982; House & Kasper, 1987; Koike, 1989; Takahashi, 1996), refusals (e.g., Beebe et al., 1990; Houk & Gass, 1996), suggestions (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1990; Koike, 1996), expressions of gratitude (Eisenstein & Bodman, 1986, 1993), and complaints (e.g., Boxer, 1993; DeCapua, 1989; Murphy & Neu, 1996; Trenchs, 1995; see Blum-Kulka, House, &

Kasper, 1989; Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993; and Kasper & Rose, 2002 for reviews of speech act studies).

These early empirical studies have proven highly influential beneficial on both the cultural and pedagogical level. Rather than remaining dependent on individual observations and personal intuition, cross-cultural communication specialists now have sufficient data on certain cultures to account for some cross-cultural speech behavior differences and the difficulties that may arise during cross-cultural communication. On the pedagogical level, Robinson (1992) explained that "This body of cross-cultural speech act information has led to a growing understanding of the use of pragmatic knowledge in second language behavior" (p. 29), and that ILP research has helped ". . . language teachers to direct learner attention to pragmatic concepts and to identify areas where socially appropriate language use is problematic for second language learners" (p. 30).

Statement of the Problem

Currently, communicative competence is widely recognized as a major pedagogical goal in second/foreign language teaching and learning. Consequently, pragmatic instruction is becoming an important component in many English as a Second Language/English as a Foreign Language (ESL/EFL) curricula (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Bouton, 1994; Kubota, 1995; Rose & Ng, 2001; Takahashi, 2001). However, the integration of pragmatic components into language instruction should not be based merely on theoretical needs assessment or native/nonnative speakers' intuition but rather the results of systematic research using empirically established procedures.

Speech acts have traditionally been a major problematic area for the second language learner. Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) described speech acts as "one of the most compelling notions in the study of language use" (p. 1). Billimyer (1990) argued that a major difficulty faced by nonnative speakers in acquiring pragmatic competence is that "speech acts are complex and highly variable, and require that the non-native speakers understand the multiple functions each serves" (p. 2). This variability, according to Cohen (1996a), contributes to speech acts serving as

> an area of continual concern for language learners since they are repeatedly faced
>
> with the need to utilize speech acts such as complaints, apologies, requests, and
>
> refusals, each of which can be realized by means of a host of potential strategies.
>
> (p. 383)

In addition, language instructors and learners must remain aware that speech acts vary in both conceptualization and realization across languages and cultures due to deep-seated differences in cultural conventions and assumptions (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Cohen, 1996a, 1996b; Houck & Gass, 1996; Lyuh, 1992; Wierzbicka, 1991; Wolfson, 1989).

An overview of current ILP studies reveals that to date, ILP researchers have only investigated nonnative speakers from a limited number of cultural and linguistic backgrounds, mainly English, Danish, Hebrew, German, Japanese, Spanish, and increasingly, Korean language backgrounds. Although these studies have been important on a cultural and pedagogical level, their narrow scope raises serious questions about the generalizability of their results to other languages. Hence, it is requisite to extend the scope of ILP research to encompass the study of more languages and cultures. This expansion would provide teachers and curriculum designers with empirically

established knowledge on the pragmatic needs of learners from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. In addition, such research would help resolving "one of the central problems of second language acquisition research, viz., which aspects of nonnative language development are universal and which are language-specific" (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 10).

Jordanian EFL/ESL learners are one of these understudied groups. In general, there is a consensus that ILP research is still an underdeveloped area in Arabic (Al-Issa, 1998; Bataineh, 2004; Jarbou, 2002). Except for one ILP study (i.e., Al-Issa's 1998 study of refusals), the majority of studies that included identifiable Arab participants have been conducted from a cross-cultural perspective (e.g., Bataineh, 2004; Nelson, El-Bakry, & Al-Batal, 1996, 2002; Nelson, Carson, Al-Batal, & El-Bakry, 2002). There are, however, a few existing ILP studies that either included some Arab learners as part of a diverse pool of participants or did not specify the Arab participants' countries of origin (e.g., Bodman & Eisenstein, 1988; Cohen & Olshtain, 1993; Scarcella, 1979; Umar, 2004). The latter concern highlights a common misconception: Although the Arab world spans two continents and consists of 23 countries with a combined population of approximately 325 million people, many researchers appear to assume that the Arab world, as a whole, shares the same speech behavior. As Feghali (1997) noted, research on Arab cultural-communication patterns has been "rooted in brief and dated anecdotes" and "applied to all peoples in the region" (p. 369). Al-Issa (1998) elaborated, "It would be a mistake to assume that a Saudi student from Riyadh, a Lebanese student from Beirut, a Jordanian student from Amman and a Moroccan student from Rabat would share the same characteristics in their discourse behaviors despite the fact that they are all Arabs" (p. 14).

Clearly, there should be a more accurate specification of the Arab population sample used in cross-cultural pragmatic studies; otherwise, "findings may be misleading and their generalizability may be questioned" (p. 14).

Thus, what we know about Jordanian EFL learners pragmatic abilities is undoubtedly minimal. Obviously, this contradicts the prominent role played by pragmatics in communicative language teaching and testing. As a researcher concerned with EFL teaching and curriculum development in the Jordanian context, I see a crucial need for a systematic line of ILP research to identify potential problems and offer educated solutions to the pragmatic challenges faced by Jordanian second-language learners. The decision to focus on the speech act of request is not without significance; to date, no study has investigated the difficulties that Jordanian EFL learners may encounter while performing requests in English or any other language.

Requests are among the most commonly used speech behaviors in everyday interaction, which renders their mastery vitally important to the communicative and pragmatic competence of the second language learner. Requests have been shown to be particularly problematic for ESL/EFL learners. Although the main categories of request (direct, conventionally indirect, and nonconventionally indirect) exist in different languages, there are considerable cross-cultural and linguistic differences in the preferred form of a request in a given situation (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Ellis, 1992). Ellis emphasized that the existence of linguistic and cultural differences "calls for a considerable linguistic and sociolinguistic knowledge on the part of the learner" (p. 6) to avoid pragmatic failure.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

Empirical ILP research on second language learner performance, perception, and development of pragmatic knowledge provides crucial input for pedagogical decisions regarding curricula development, learning activities, and testing techniques. Accordingly, this study fills an important gap in the ILP literature by investigating advanced Jordanian EFL learners' request speech act realization compared to native American English speakers, as well as the influence of native language (L1), Arabic, on learner realization.

This investigation considers both aspects of pragmatic competence: *production/performance* (*pragmalinguistic knowledge*) and *perception* (*sociopragmatic knowledge*). To achieve this goal, the study addressed two main research questions. The formulation of these questions was based on a major assumption in ILP research. That is, second/foreign language learners' performance and perception of an illocutionary act is influenced by their L1 and often deviate from L2 rules of speech which can cause pragmatic failures (see Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989; Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993; and Kasper & Rose, 2002 for reviews of speech act studies).

Research Question 1

How does the performance of requests speech act by Jordanian EFL learners compare to that of American English native speakers and Jordanian Arabic native speakers?

This question s divided to the following subquestions:

1. How does the use of the level of directness in requests speech act by Jordanian EFL learners compare to that of American English native speakers and Jordanian Arabic native speakers?

2. How does the use of conventional indirectness in requests speech act by Jordanian EFL learners compare to that of American English native speakers and Jordanian Arabic native speakers?

3. How does the use of supportive moves in requests speech act by Jordanian EFL learners compare to that of American English native speakers and Jordanian Arabic native speakers?

4. How does the use of internal modifications in requests speech act by Jordanian EFL learners compare to that of American English native speakers?

5. How do the social variables of (a) social power (higher, equal, and lower) and (b) social distance (familiar and unfamiliar) influence Jordanian EFL learners' use of *level of directness*, *supportive moves*, and *internal modifications* compared to that of American English native speakers and Jordanian Arabic native speakers?

6. Is there L1 influence (i.e., negative pragmatic transfer) in Jordanian EFL learners' performance of requests?

The second main research question investigates the other end of the continuum—*perception*. Differing perception of the weight and values of social variables (e.g., right, obligation, and power) has shown to be another area of cross-cultural variation that may influence speech act production (Bergman & Kasper, 1993; Blum-Kulka & House, 1989; Kasper &Dahl, 1991; Mir, 1995; Olshtain, 1989; Shimamura, 1993). It is essential to establish how members of different cultures perceive these social variables and how these perceptions are reflected in their output strategies. Investigation into these factors can provide explanations of and further insights into Jordanian EFL learners' requestive behaviors.

Research Question 2

How does Jordanian EFL learners' perception of social factors compare to that of

American English native speakers and Jordanian Arabic native speakers?

This question is divided to the following subquestions:

1. How does the sociopragmatic assessment of the degree of familiarity between

the speaker and the hearer, the degree of power the speaker has over the hearer, the

difficulty of making a request, the right to make the request, and the hearer's obligation

to comply with the request by Jordanian EFL learners compare to that of American

English native speakers and Jordanian Arabic native speakers?

2. Is there negative pragmatic transfer in Jordanian EFL learners' perception of

social variables?

Significance of the Study

This study is significant for three reasons:

First, to the researcher's knowledge, no researchers have investigated the

difficulties that Jordanian EFL learners may encounter when performing the speech act of

request in English or any other language. Hence, this study fills an existing gap in

interlanguage pragmatics research and lays a foundation for more studies that focus on

Jordanian ESL/EFL learner speech act production, comprehension, and development.

Second, this study has the potential to benefit language teachers and ESL/EFL

curriculum and textbook designers. Language teachers can use the findings to anticipate

and thus reduce the incidence and severity of situations wherein learners experience

cultural and language miscommunication that leads to communication breakdown.

Textbook designers can use the findings to design better materials to incorporate into

ESL/EFL curricula, thus remedying the underrepresentation of pragmatic knowledge of a target culture in current ESL/EFL textbooks (Bradovi-Harlig, 1996; Bouton, 1994; Kasper, 1997; Rose, 1997).

Third, Feghali (1997) lamented that discussions of Arabic communication style have been "rooted in brief and dated anecdotes" (p. 369). Instead of depending solely on anecdotal literature and ungrounded speculation, this empirical study can provide cross-cultural communication specialists and those involved in teaching and learning Arabic as a second/foreign language with solid data to better understand Arabic communication patterns and style.

Definition of Significant Terms

Interlanguage pragmatics refers to "the study of nonnative speaker's comprehension, production, and acquisition of linguistic action in L2" (Kasper, 1998, p. 184).

Pragmalinguistics refers to "the more linguistic end of pragmatics" (Leech, 1983, p.11); that is, the resources for conveying communicative acts and interpersonal meanings, such as directness and indirectness, and the linguistic means that intensify or soften communicative acts (e.g., "sorry" vs. "I'm really devastated").

Pragmatics refers to "the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication" (Crystal, 1997, p. 301).

Pragmatic competence refers to the speaker's knowledge of the rules of appropriateness and politeness, which dictate the manner in which the speaker understands and formulates communicative action.

Pragmatic failure refers to "misunderstanding due to failure to express or interpret intended meaning using linguistic (or non-linguistic) as well as contextual or 'real world' knowledge" (Beebe & Zhang-Waring, 2001, p. 8).

Pragmatic transfer refers to "the influence exerted by learners' pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production, and learning of L2 pragmatic information" (Kasper, 1992, p. 207).

Request refers to "an illocutionary act whereby a speaker (requester) conveys to the hearer (requestee) that he/she wants the requestee to perform an act, which is for the benefit of the speaker" (Trosborg, 1995, p. 187).

Sociopragmatics refers to "the sociological interface of pragmatics" (Leech, 1983, p. 10) and is related appropriate social behavior (Thomas, 1983). That is, the appropriateness of what is said in relation to social distance, social power, rights and obligations, and the degree of imposition involved in a particular act.

Speech acts refer to "the basic or minimal units of linguistic communication" (Searle, 1969, p.16), such as requesting, thanking, complaining, and complimenting.

Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation contains five chapters. Chapter 1 provides an introduction that includes a statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the research questions, the significance of the research, and the definition of significant terms. Chapter 2 introduces ILP research and reviews the literature on pragmatics and communicative competence,

speech act theory, politeness theory, and pragmatic transfer theory. Chapter 2 also

reviews the data collection methods used in ILP research and surveys prior research on

requests, focusing on ESL/EFL learners' realization of requests. Chapter 3 presents the

research methodology, including the rational for choosing the participants and description

of the data collection method, procedures, and analysis. Chapter 4 reports the findings of

the study. Chapter 5 discusses the findings, summarizes the study; draws conclusions;

presents the study's theoretical, methodological, and pedagogical implications; and

proposes directions for future research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter presents a selected review of theoretical and empirical studies related to the speech act of request. The chapter begins with a discussion of the concept of ILP followed by an overview of pragmatics within the general framework of communicative competence. The chapter then introduces speech act theory based on the framework presented by Austin and Searle before discussing politeness theory and the concept of pragmatic transfer. After introducing data collection methods in ILP research, the chapter concludes with a discussion of selected empirical studies that address the realization of requests from ILP perspective.

Interlanguage Pragmatics

The term *interlanguage* was first coined by Selinker (1972) to refer to both "the internal system that a learner has constructed at a single point in time ('an interlanguage') and to the series of interconnected systems that characterize the learner's progress over time" (as cited in Ellis, 1994, p. 350). *Interlanguage pragmatics* (ILP) is considered a second-generation hybrid derived from two research traditions: second-language acquisition (SLA) and pragmatics (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993). ILP researchers investigate second-language learner comprehension, production, and development of linguistic action (Kasper, 1998). Because early interlanguage studies focused mainly on formal aspects of learner speech acts (i.e., phonology, morphology, and syntax), ILP was a relatively neglected area of SLA until about 15 years ago. The current interest in ILP research reflects a major paradigm shift in SLA and second-language teaching and

learning from a grammatical or structural approach to a communicative approach in which understanding the target cultures' sociolinguistic rules is essential.

<center>Pragmatics in Communicative Competence</center>

Researchers have defined *pragmatics* in various ways, reflecting their different theoretical orientation and research goals. In a much-cited definition, Crystal (1997) defined pragmatics as

> the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication. (p. 301)

Pragmatic competence was defined by Koike (1989) as the speaker's knowledge of the rules of appropriateness and politeness, which dictate the manner in which the speaker understands and formulates communicative action. Pragmatic competence is better understood within the wider notion of *communicative competence* introduced by Hymes (1972) and further developed into a language teaching pedagogy (Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980) and a method for language testing (Bachman, 1990). Hymes' development of the concept of communicative competence was a reaction against the limitations of Chomsky's (1965) linguistic theory. Within his concept of generative grammar, Chomsky divided linguistic theory into two aspects: *linguistic competence* and *linguistic performance*. Whereas competence is concerned with tacit knowledge of linguistic rules, mainly those related to grammar, held by an ideal speaker-listener in a given language, performance is perceived as the actual application of this knowledge in production and comprehension.

<center>16</center>

Hymes (1972) was among the first researchers to point out that the competence-performance distinction provides no place for contextual appropriateness and thereby ignores the sociolinguistic factors that determine the appropriateness of an utterance in a given context. Thus, a competent speaker requires not only a tacit knowledge of the manner of forming grammatical sentences but also sociolinguistic knowledge that encompasses "when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner" (p. 277). Hymes further illustrated the importance of pragmatic knowledge by relating the example of a child who has the ability to always understand and produce perfectly grammatical sentences in a given language:

> Consider now a child with just that ability. A child who might produce any sentence whatever—such a child would be likely to be institutionalized: even more so if not only sentences, but also speech or silence was random, unpredictable. (p. 277)

Hymes' (1972) concept of communicative competence typified a shift from the study of language as a system in isolation to the study of language as communication. Based on his conceptualization, two influential models of communicative competence with clear pedagogical applications were developed by Canale (1980) before being revised by Swain (1983) and, a decade later, by Bachman (1990). Although the models use different terminology, both include pragmatic competence as a major component in their design. In a modified version of Canale and Swain's (1980) model, Canale (1983) subsumed four subcomponents under communicative competence: *grammatical competence, discourse competence, strategic competence,* and *sociolinguistic competence.* Grammatical competence refers to the mastery of the language code and

encompasses syntactic, morphosyntactic, phonological, and lexical elements. Discourse competence refers to the ability to combine ideas in order to make them formally cohesive and functionally coherent. Strategic competence refers to the communication strategies employed to handle breakdowns in communication and make communication effective. Sociolinguistic competence refers to the ability of the speaker to both use and understand language appropriately according to context, participant status, interaction purpose, norms, and conventions.

Whereas pragmatic competence is represented in Canale's (1983) model as sociolinguistic competence, Bachman's (1990) model of communicative language ability represents pragmatic competence as a competence in its own right. Bachman's model divides language competence into *organizational* and *pragmatic competence*. Organizational competence includes *linguistic competence* (comparable to Canale's concept of grammatical competence) and *textual competence* (comparable to Canale's concept of discourse competence). Pragmatic competence includes both *illocutionary competence*, the ability to express and understand the illocutionary force of language functions, and *sociolinguistic competence*, knowledge of social rules of appropriateness. Bachman's (1990) distinction between illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence echoes Leech's (1983) and Thomas's (1983) division of pragmatics into *pragmalinguistics* and *sociopragmatics,* respectively (see pp. 10-11). Both aspects were investigated in the current study, the former by the use of a discourse completion task (DCT) and the latter by a scaled-response questionnaire (SRQ) designed to test learners' sociopragmatic assessment of a number of social variables known to affect language use.

Speech Act Theory

One major component of pragmatic competence is the production and perception of *speech acts* and their appropriateness within a given context. The idea of speech acts has its origins in the philosophy of language based on the framework presented by Austin (1962) in his seminal work *How to Do Things With Words* and further developed by Searle (1969, 1975, 1976). Both Austin and Searle contend that the minimal unit of human communication is not a linguistic expression but rather the performance of certain types of acts (e.g., requesting, apologizing, promising, and thanking). Austin observed that actual use of language did not correspond with the prevailing logical positivist doctrine that argued that "unless a sentence can, at least in principle, be *verified* (i.e., tested for its truth or falsity), it was strictly speaking *meaningless"* (Levinson, 1983, p. 227). Austin's premise that "*in* saying something we are doing something" (p. 12) constitutes the basis of speech act theory. That is, by saying "I promise," one is not only stating a fact that can be verified as either true or false but also performing an act of promising; in other words, utterances are in themselves acts.

Austin (1962) maintained that all utterances perform *locutionary*, *illocutionary*, and *perlocutionary* acts simultaneously: "The locutionary act . . . which has a *meaning*; the illocutionary act which has a certain *force* in saying something; the perlocutionary act which is *the achieving of* certain *effects* by saying something" (p. 120). For example, in the utterance, "It's hot in here," the locutionary act is the speaker's statement about the temperature in a certain location. At the same time, it is possibly an illocutionary act with the force of a request for the door to be opened. It becomes a perlocutionary act when someone is persuaded to go and open the door.

It is the second aspect of all utterances—the illocutionary act—that has been the focus of Austin's attention over the course of his research and is currently a focus of ILP research. Within this framework, Austin (1962) classified illocutionary acts into five categories: *verdictives,* acts giving of a verdict or judgment (e.g., to convict, diagnose, or appraise); *exercitives,* acts exercising power, right, or influence (e.g., to appoint, order, or advise); *commissives,* acts assuming obligation or the fulfillment of an undertaking (e.g., to promise, agree, or guarantee); *behabitives,* acts adopting an attitude (e.g., to apologize, compliment, or complain); and *expositives,* acts clarifying reasons or arguments and/or expounding views (e.g., to reply, argue, or illustrate).

Drawing on Austin's (1962) notion that a theory of language is a theory of action, Searle (1969, 1975, 1976) further refined and developed Austin's illocutionary acts into *speech act theory*. Based on his belief that speaking a language was "engaging in a rule-governed form of behavior" (p. 16), Searle (1969) attempted to systematize and formalize Austin's ideas. One of Searle's most important contributions to speech act theory was his identification of *felicity conditions,* those conditions that must exist for the successful performance of an illocutionary act. Searle argued that speech acts are subject to four types of felicity conditions—*preparatory conditions, sincerity conditions, propositional content conditions,* and *essential conditions*—and provided examples of these rules for the nine speech acts of requesting, promising, asserting, questioning, thanking, advising, warning, greeting, and congratulating. For example, he outlined the felicity conditions for requests in the following passage:

Propositional content: Future act A of H.

Preparatory condition:

1. H is able to do A. S believes H is able to do A.

2. It is not obvious to both S and H that H will do A in the normal course of events of his own accord.

Sincerity condition: S wants H to do A.

Essential condition: Counts as an attempt to get H to do A.

(p. 66)

Claiming that Austin's taxonomy was based on illocutionary verbs rather than illocutionary acts, which resulted in too much intercategory overlap and too much intracategory heterogeneity, Searle (1976) further revised Austin's illocutionary act classification. Searle classified speech acts into five categories:

1. Representatives, which commit the speaker to the truth of the expected proposition (e.g., asserting, concluding);

2. Directives, which are attempts by the speaker to get the addressee to do something (e.g., requesting, questioning);

3. Commissives, which commit the speaker to some future course of action (e.g., promising, threatening, offering);

4. Expressives, which express a psychological state (e.g., thanking, apologizing, complimenting, welcoming);

5. Declarations, which affect immediate change in the institutional state of affairs and which tend to rely on elaborate extralinguistic institutions (e.g., christening, declaring war).

Although the classification is not immune from criticism, Flowerdew (1988) reported that Searle's speech act taxonomy "has been the most widely accepted of those produced to date" (p. 71).

Searle's (1975) distinction between *direct* and *indirect speech acts* has greatly influenced speech act research. In a direct speech act, there is a transparent relationship between form and function, as when an imperative is used to make a request (e.g., "Give me a glass of water"). In an indirect speech act, "one illocutionary act is performed indirectly by way of performing another" (p. 60); that is, the illocutionary force of the act is not derivable from the surface structure. For example, when a man says, "Let's go to the movies tonight" and a woman replies, "I have to study for an exam," the woman is not merely making a statement about a future obligation but also refusing or rejecting a proposal, even though her statement does not contain an overt or covert expression of rejection. Contrary to direct speech acts, indirect speech acts require "mutually shared factual background information of the speaker and hearer, together with an ability on the part of the hearer to make inferences" (p. 61).

Speech act theory has been criticized by several researchers, including Gajaseni (1994), Geis (1995) Levinson (1981, 1983), Mey (2001), and Wierzbicka (1991). One of their major criticisms pertains to the notion of universality versus cultural specificity. Whereas some (e.g., Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969, 1975) have argued that speech acts operate by universal pragmatic principles, others (e.g., Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989b; Green, 1975; Wierzbicka, 1991) have observed that speech acts tend to vary in their conceptualization and verbalization across cultures and languages. Wierzbicka asserted that since its inception, speech act theory has "suffered from astonishing ethnocentrism" (p. 25). Because its conclusions have primarily been based on observation of English language speakers, Wierzbicka argued that many theorists are under the fallacy "that what seems to hold for the speakers of English must hold for 'people generally'" (p. 25).

Geis (1995) criticized speech act theory for its exclusive dependency on "intuitive assessments of isolated, constructed examples" (p. 1) that limit its application to conversational analysis. Geis pointed out that if the theory is to be of empirical and theoretical interest, it "must be embedded in a theory of conversational competence that is grounded in naturally occurring and experimentally derived conversational data" (p.1). According to Gajaseni (1994), studying isolated speech acts does not allow for consideration of the context in which they are spoken; theory alone cannot fully explain how an utterance such as "well done" can be either a compliment or a sarcastic remark. Gajaseni also pointed out that speech act theory assigns a single act to each isolated utterance (i.e., specifying if an act is a request, promise, or refusal), ignoring the fact that in many cases utterances are ambiguous and might thus convey any of a number of illocutionary forces. For example, the utterance, "There are some dirty dishes in the sink" could be an act of informing, requesting, or complaining.

In spite of its limitations, speech act theory has had much influence on research into the functional aspects of pragmatic theory. As such, it remains the most commonly used framework in the study of ILP and cross-cultural pragmatics.

<center>Politeness Theory</center>

Any discussion of speech act performance inherently invokes notions of *politeness*, defined as "one of the constraints on human interaction, whose purpose is to consider others' feelings, establish levels of mutual comfort, and promote rapport" (Hill, Ide, Ikuta, Kawasaki, & Ogino, 1986, p. 149). Over the past 2 decades, several researchers (e.g., Brown & Levinson, 1987; Fraser, 1990; Lakoff, 1973, Leech, 1983) have attempted to explain interactional conventions of language use according to

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different notions of politeness. Of these approaches, Brown and Levinson's (1987) face-saving view "has attained canonical status, exercised immense influence, and is still the model against which most research on politeness defines itself" (Harris, 2003, pp. 27–28).

To fully understand Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory, one must first consider Grice's (1975) influential work on the *cooperative principle* (CP) and its conversational maxims. Grice argued that because conversationalists are rational individuals who share common goals, their conversations are governed by a CP that entails one should "make your contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged" (p. 45). Four maxims are associated with the CP:

1. Maxim of Quantity: Make your contribution as informative as is required; do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

2. Maxim of Quality: Do not say what you believe to be false; do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

3. Maxim of Relation: Be relevant.

4. Maxim of Manner: Avoid obscurity of expression; avoid ambiguity; be brief; be orderly.

Grice pointed out that violating or "flouting" one or more of the maxims signals the use of *conversational implicatures,* defined as "non-explicit messages intended by the speaker to be inferred by the hearer" (Fraser, 1990, p. 222). For example, providing a scholarship recommendation letter that reads, "Ms. Jones always arrives on time and takes copious notes" violates the maxim of relevance and leads to the implicature that the speaker does not think highly of Ms. Jones.

Arguing that a strong motivation against violating conversational maxims is to ensure politeness, Brown and Levinson (1987) connected politeness to Goffman's (1967) notion of *face*. Goffman defined face as "the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself" (as cited in Brown & Levinson, p. 61) and divided it into the concepts of *negative face* and *positive face,* which reflect two basic and universal desires or wants. Negative face refers to one's desire that "his actions be unimpeded by others" (p. 62) whereas positive face refers to one's desire to be approved and liked by others. In the course of interaction, face can "be lost, maintained, or enhanced, and must be constantly attended to" (p. 61).

Even though individuals are motivated to support others' positive and negative face, human interaction often requires that one makes requests, disagrees, complains, or criticizes others. Brown and Levinson (1987) argued that certain kinds of acts are intrinsically face-threatening acts (FTAs); that is, some acts by their nature run contrary to the face wants of the hearer and/or speaker. The authors summarized the four kinds of face threatening act (FTAs) as follows:

1. Acts threatening to the hearer's negative face, that is, the claim to privacy, freedom of action, and other elements of personal autonomy (e.g., requesting, ordering, advising, or threatening).

2. Acts threatening to the hearer's positive face, that is, the self-image and the self-respect a person has (e.g., complaining, criticizing, or disagreeing).

3. Acts threatening to the speaker's negative face (e.g., accepting an offer or accepting thanks).

4. Acts threatening to the speaker's positive face (e.g., apologizing or accepting compliments).

(pp. 65–68)

The vulnerability of face entails that it is in the interlocutors' best interest to maintain each other's face and act in a manner that indicates this intention. Brown and Levinson (1987) asserted that an individual faced with the possibility of performing an FTA can choose from a set of five superstrategies, shown in Figure 1.

Lesser

1. Without redressive action, baldly

On record

2. Positive politeness

Do the FTA

With redressive action

4. Off record

3. Negative politeness

5. Don't do the FTA

Greater
(Estimation of risk of face loss)
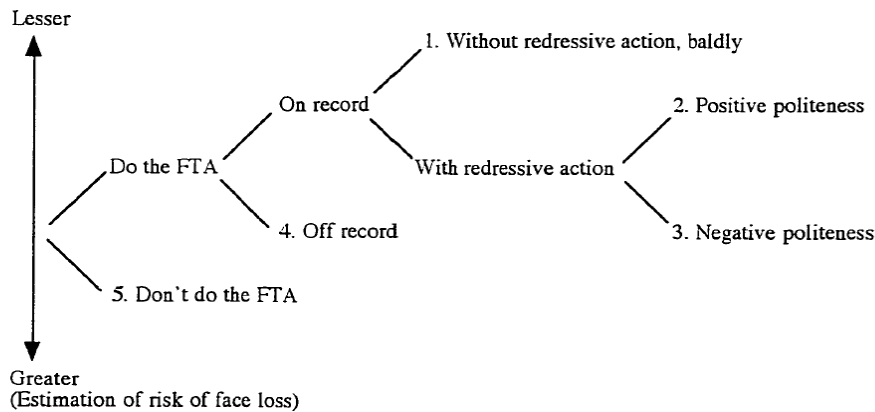
Figure1. Possible FTA strategies (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 60).

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), the first decision that the speaker must make is whether to perform the FTA. If the speaker decides to perform the FTA, he or she can use a *bald-on-record, off-record,* or *on-record strategy.* Bald-on-record strategies are usually performed by means of a direct speech act in which the speaker's communicative intention is unambiguous and concise (e.g., "Shut the door"). Off-record strategies, on the other hand, are usually performed by means of an indirect speech act in which the speaker's communicative intention is ambiguous and vague. Off-record strategies include metaphors, understatements, rhetorical questions, and hints (e.g., "It seems cold in here"). On-record acts with redressive action can emphasize either *positive politeness strategies* or *negative politeness strategies.* Positive politeness strategies, which are used to satisfy the listener's desire to be liked or acknowledged,

include expressions of agreement, exaggeration, intimacy, or solidarity (e.g., "How about shutting the door for us?"). Negative politeness strategies, which are used to signal deference to the listener's freedom of action, include questioning, hedging, and the use of conventionally indirect expressions (e.g., "Could you shut the door?").

The strategy that an individual chooses to employ depends upon the FTA's *weightiness* (W), which is the aggregate weight of 3 independent and culturally sensitive variables: the social distance (D) between the speaker and listener, the relative power (P) of the listener over the speaker, and the ranking (R) of the imposition of the act itself. Brown and Levinson (1987) determined the formula for W to be $Wx = D(S,H) + P(H,S) + Rx$. As the formula illustrates, increases in the act's D, P, and R result in corresponding increases in the threat to face. Thus, the more an act threatens a speaker or listener's face, the more likely a speaker would be to opt for a higher numbered strategy (see Figure 1).

Although it remains the most influential theory of politeness to date, face-saving theory is not without criticism. Brown and Levinson (1987) reported that the universality of face wants, especially negative face, has been contested by a number of researchers. Wierzbicka (1991) pointed out that the conceptual framework introduced by Brown and Levinson "reflects clearly the authors' specific anglocentric perspective" (p. 68). Several researchers (e.g., Gu, 1990; Hill et al., 1986; Ide, 1989; Matsumoto, 1988, 1989) have argued that negative face concerns related to preserving one's independence and autonomy are based largely on the high value placed on individualism in European and American cultures. However, independence and autonomy are not as basic to human relations in East Asian cultures. For example, Matsumoto (1988) pointed out that what is most significant to the Japanese is not independence but rather their position in relation to

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others within the group and their degree of acceptance by others. Contrary to Brown and Levinson's politeness framework, loss of face for the Japanese means "the perception by others that one has not comprehended and acknowledged the structure of the group" (p. 405).

Another major criticism relates to the linear relationship Brown and Levinson (1987) proposed between directness and politeness: They assumed that an increase in indirectness would result in an increase in politeness. In her study of requests in English and Hebrew, Blum-Kulka (1987) found out that although nonconventional indirect strategies (e.g., hints) were assessed as more indirect than conventionally indirect strategies, they were also assessed as less polite. According to Blum-Kulka, the Israeli participants believed that the noncommittal character of hints indicated insincerity and thus impoliteness on the part of the speaker.

The intent of this study is not to prove or disapprove a particular politeness theory or principle; instead, it focuses on Meier's (1997) notion of *appropriateness*, the degree to which second-language learners are capable of producing and understanding the value of a certain illocutionary act while taking the target culture's norms into consideration. The researcher chose this focus for the current study because "the most useful working definition of politeness for second/foreign language pedagogy is that of appropriateness" (p. 24).

Interlanguage Pragmatic Transfer

Interlanguage transfer is not pragmatic specific; in fact, early transfer studies in second language acquisition centered largely on linguistic aspects such as grammar, phonology, and lexicon (see Gass & Selinker, 1992; Odlin, 1989). The advent of

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pragmatics as a major component of communicative competence called for expanding the scope of interlanguage transfer research to include transfer on the pragmatic level. Currently, the nature of *pragmatic transfer* and its influence on second language acquisition is a major area of investigation in ILP research. Its popularity is based on two well-established assumptions: language learners' comprehension and production of linguistic action is influenced by their L1 pragmatic knowledge and their pragmatic failures are often caused by their reversion to L1 pragmatic conventions (see Kasper, 1992; Maeshiba et al., 1996; Takahashi, 1996).

Pragmatic transfer is defined by Kasper (1992) as "the influence exerted by learners' pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production, and learning of L2 pragmatic information" (p. 207). Within this framework, Kasper differentiates between *positive pragmatic transfer* and *negative pragmatic transfer*. Positive pragmatic transfer facilitates language acquisition such that "language specific conventions of usage and use are demonstrably non-universal yet shared between L1 and L2" (p. 212). For instance, learners have been shown to successfully transfer conventionally indirect strategies for requests into English from Hebrew (Blum-Kulka, 1982), German and Danish (Faerch & Kasper, 1989; House & Kasper, 1987), and Japanese (Takahashi & DuFon, 1989). Negative pragmatic transfer, on the other hand, often leads to miscommunication when L1-based pragmatic conventions are "being projected onto L2 contexts and differing from the pragmatic perceptions and behaviors of the target community" (Kasper, 1992, p. 213). Because of its potential for pragmatic failure, more attention has been focused on negative pragmatic transfer.

Drawing on Leech (1983) and Thomas's (1983) classification of pragmatics (see p. 19), Kasper (1992) divided pragmatic transfer into *pragmalinguistic transfer* and *sociopragmatic transfer.* Negative pragmalinguistic transfer is related to how learners' use of conventions of means and form affects the illocutionary force and politeness value of their utterances (see Beebe et al., 1990; Bodman & Eisentsein, 1988; House & Kasper, 1987). For instance, House and Kasper (1987) found that German and Danish ESL learners' frequent employment of direct imperatives and nonemployment of indirect preparatory questions used by English native speakers are influenced by their native language norms. Negative sociopragmatic transfer has been observed in learners' perception of interlocutors' relative social power (see Beebe et al., 1990; Takahashi & Beebe, 1993) and assessment of whether performing a linguistic action is socially appropriate (see Robinson, 1992). For example, in their investigation of Japanese ESL learners' performance of the speech act of correction, Takahashi and Beebe (1993) observed that Japanese ESL learners transferred their Japanese style-shifting patterns into English by selecting different strategies depending on the speakers' social status in relation to the hearer. The same style shifting was observed in Beebe et al.'s (1990) study of Japanese ESL learners' performance of the speech act of refusal. However, several studies also found cases of *nontransfer*; that is, cases where pragmatic transfer was expected but did not occur (see Bergman & Kasper, 1993; House, 1988; Maeshiba et al., 1996).

The perception that certain pragmatic features are universal rather than culturally specific and dependent on learner familiarity with the situation has led several researchers to believe that there are some restrictions on *transferability*, the conditions necessary for

transfer to occur (Bodman & Eisenstein, 1988; House & Kasper, 1987; Olshtein, 1983; Robinson, 1992). House and Kasper (1987) pointed out that Danish learners at a high-intermediate proficiency level perceived the mitigating function of the Danish negative marker *ikke* as language specific and therefore avoided transferring it to IL English. Similarly, Robinson's (1992) verbal protocol study of refusals indicated that female Japanese ESL learners tend to be relatively direct in refusing their American interlocutors' offers and requests because they view directness as being more acceptable in American culture than in their native culture.

A major concern in pragmatic transfer research is the methodology used to establish the absence or presence of pragmatic transfer. Kasper (1992) argued that the great majority of pragmatic transfer studies had not established a sound method of measuring pragmatic transfer before attempting measurement. Therefore, most claims of transferability were "based on an informal estimation of the similarity and differences of the percentages by which a particular category (semantic formula, strategy, or linguistic form) occurs in the L1, L2, and IL data" (p. 223; see also Beebe et al., 1990; Olshtain, 1983; Takahashi & Beebe, 1993). As Kasper (1992) pointed out, statistical procedures should be employed for a more precise estimation of similarity to provide evidence for the occurrence or nonoccurrence of pragmatic transfer.

A goal of the current study is to investigate whether pragmatic transfer is operative on the *pragmalinguistic* and *sociopragmatic* levels. *Pragmalinguistic transfer* focuses on the use of request strategies, internal modifications, and external modifications. In investigating sociopragmatic transfer, both performance and perception were taken into account. Measurement of performance focused on the use of

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pragmalinguistic features in relation to the two contextual factors of social status and distance. *Perception* investigates, in addition to social power and distance, pragmatic transfer in contextual factors (i.e., right, obligation, and difficulty) that cannot be investigated by examining learners' performance. Following Kasper's (1992) recommendation, tests of significance were used to establish the occurrence negative pragmatic transfer or the lack there of (see pp.79-80).

Data Collection Methods in Interlanguage Pragmatics

The validity of any discipline is predicated upon the assumption that its data collection methods are amply understood and condoned (Cohen, 1996b; Kasper, 2000). Because pragmatics is relatively a new field, most of its practitioners were initially educated in diverse and better-established research traditions, such as anthropology, sociology, psychology, and linguistics. Their diverse academic backgrounds, in addition to the complexity of speech act realization, have made data collection methodology a hotly debated issue in cross-cultural and ILP research (Cohen, 1996b).

Kasper and Dahl (1991) divided data-collection methods in pragmatics research into the categories of (a) production-based methods (observation of authentic discourse and use of discourse completion tests [DCTs] and role plays) and (b) perception/comprehension-based methods (the use of multiple-choice and scaled-response instruments and interviews). This section discusses the advantages and disadvantages of authentic discourse, DCTs, and role plays, the most commonly used methods in ILP research, as well as the advantages of using combined data-collection methods.

Observation of Authentic Discourse

Observation of authentic discourse involves collecting spontaneous data in naturally occurring settings. Manes and Wolfson (1981) argued, "an ethnographic approach is the only reliable method for collecting data about the way compliments, or indeed, any other speech act functions in everyday interaction" (p. 115). Manes and Wolfson (1981), Wolfson, (1986, 1989), and Wolfson, Marmor, and Jones (1989) affirmed that observation of authentic discourse data gives researchers the opportunity to not only explore the linguistic strategies used in realizing a given speech act but also the social contexts that warrant the use of the speech act under study. Beebe and Cummings (1996) pointed out that authentic data fully represents a number of interactive features of authentic conversations, such as negotiation, turn-taking mechanisms, repetition, elaboration, and the psychological aspects of interactions (e.g., feeling, hedging, and the depth of emotion).

In spite of the advantages of using naturally occurring data, various scholars (e.g., Beebe & Cummings, 1996; Blum-Kulka et. al, 1989; Kasper & Dahl, 1991; Rintel & Mitchell, 1989) have reported that it has considerable limitations. In practice, it is highly unlikely that the speech act under study occurs sufficiently frequently or predictably to collect a large amount of data. As such, collecting a corpus of naturally occurring data may take an unreasonable amount of time. In addition, in a real-life situation it is almost impossible that a desired speech act would occur in the same context and with same relationship between interlocutors as that desired by the researchers (Beebe & Cummings, 1996). Because the variables (e.g., power, status, and age) in naturally occurring data are unsystematic and can rarely be held constant for

cross-cultural comparison, naturally occurring data are of little significance for ILP

studies that require comparable data across and within groups. As a result, most ILP

researchers use controlled data elicitation methods, two of the most common being

discourse completion tasks (DCTs) and *role plays*.

<center>*Discourse Completion Tasks*</center>

DCTs are "written questionnaires including a number of brief situational

descriptions, followed by a short dialogue with an empty slot for the speech act under

study" (Kasper & Dahl, 1991, p. 9). The DCT was first developed by Levenston and

Blum (1978) to study lexical simplification and was later adapted by Blum-Kulka (1982)

for investigating the speech act realization of native and nonnative Hebrew speakers. The

widespread use of the DCT as a data-collection method began after its broad use in the

Cross-Cultural Speech Act Research Project (CCSARP), which compared the speech act

behaviors of native speakers of a variety of languages with the behavior of learners of

these languages. The DCT used in the CCSARP, which consisted of sixteen situations,

eight requests, and eight apologies, was translated into a variety of languages.

Most DCTs are either *closed* or *open-ended*. Although both formats require

participants to read each situation, whether in their native or second language, before

writing the response they think fits the given context, the formats differ in the presence or

absence of the hearer's response (i.e., a rejoinder). In a closed format, originally used by

Blum-Kulka (1982) and in the CCSARP, the discourse is structured by providing a space

for the speech act followed by a rejoinder. Consider the following example given for

eliciting an apology:

(a) At the college teacher's office

A student has borrowed a book from her teacher, which she promised to return today. When meeting her teacher, however, she realizes that she forgot to bring it along.

Teacher: Miriam. I hope you brought the book I lent you.

Miriam_____

Teacher: Ok, but please remember it next week. (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 14)

In an open-ended DCT, the situation is followed by a space for the participant to write a speech act without being followed by a rejoinder. Consider the following example:

(B) A birthday present

It's your birthday, and you are having a few friends over for dinner. A friend brings you a present. You unwrap it and find a blue sweater.

You say:_____

(Eisenstein & Bodman, 1993, as cited in Kasper, 2000, p. 327)

DCTs are the most widely used data-collection method in cross-cultural and ILP research. In their review of the data-production methods used in 35 ILP studies, Kasper and Dahl (1991) found that 11 studies used DCTs as the only data collection method, and an additional 8 studies used them as one means of collecting data. DCTs have been used to study, among other speech acts, requests (Blum-Kulka, 1982; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1986; House & Kasper, 1987), complaints (Olshtain & Weinbach, 1987), refusals (Beebe et al., 1990; Takahashi & Beebe, 1987), and suggestions (Banerjee & Carrell, 1988).

The popularity of DCTs has both a theoretical and practical basis. DCTs allow for the control of different contextual variables related to a given context (e.g., age, gender,

or power), thus permitting researchers to investigate the influence of each variable on the production of the speech act under study (Cohen, 1996c; Houck & Gass, 1996, Rintell & Mitchell, 1989; Wolfson, 1989). Additionally, the consistency of the situation created by the use of DCTs allows for cross-cultural and ILP comparisons and the collection of very large amounts of data within a relatively short period. Unlike collection of authentic data and use of role plays, use of DCTs does not require cumbersome and error-prone transcription (Rintell & Mitchell, 1989). Affirming that the DCT is "a highly effective research tool" (p. 80), Beebe and Cummings (1996) argued that DCT use enables researchers to (a) create an initial classification of semantic formulas and strategies that will likely occur in natural speech; (b) study the stereotypical, perceived requirements for socially appropriate responses; (c) gain insight into social and psychological factors that are likely to affect speech act performance; and (d) ascertain the canonical shape of speech acts in the minds of speakers of the target language.

Like all methods used in the collection of sociolinguistic data, DCT use also has drawbacks. One major disadvantage is the difficulty in determining whether what participants write on the DCT is representative of what they say in natural conversation (Rintell & Mitchell, 1989). When attempting to respond in writing as if speaking, participants may produce shorter and more formal responses than they would in natural conversation (Cohen, 1996c; Rintell & Mitchell, 1989). Furthermore, DCTs are not designed to elicit data on the features specifically associated with oral interaction, such as turn taking, prosody, and speaker-listener coordination (Beebe & Cummings, 1996; Cohen, 1996c; Kasper, 2000, 2002).

Role Plays

Role plays are defined as "a social or human activity in which participants 'take on' and 'act out' specified 'roles,' often within a predefined social framework or situational blueprint (a 'scenario')" (Crookall & Saunders, 1989, as cited in Kasper & Rose, 2002, p. 86). Role plays are classified as either *open* or c*losed* based on the participant's involvement and degree of interaction (Kasper & Dahl, 1991; Sasaki, 1998). In a closed role play, the participants are given a short description of a situation that specifies the setting, power relationship, and degree of familiarity between the interlocutors. The participants are then asked to respond to the situation without expecting a response from the hearer. A closed role play is thus identical to a DCT except in calling for an oral rather than a written response. Consider the following example:

> You are applying for a very good part-time job in an American company. You are at the job interview with the office manager (a male). The manger asks you to fill in a form. You don't have a pen, and need to borrow a pen from the manager.
> You:
> (Sasaki, 1998, p. 480)

Open role plays, on the other hand, specify the situation, interlocutor roles, and the communicative goals of the interaction. The outcome of open role plays is not predetermined but rather left to evolve based on the course of the interaction. The following is an example of an open role play:

Informant A:

You ask a neighbor you do not know very well to help you move some things out of your flat with his/her car since you have not got a car and you have not got anyone else to ask since everyone you know appears to be on holiday and you have no money either to hire someone who can help or to arrange transport. You see your neighbor on the street. What would you say to him/her?

Informant B:

You are on the street. A neighbor you do not know very well comes to talk to you. Respond to him/her.

(Marquez-Reiter, 2000, p. 187)

The freedom permitted by open role plays allow them to be rich sources of data and "allow examination of speech act behavior in its full discourse context" (Kasper & Dahl, 1991, p. 19). More specifically, role plays "represent oral production, full operation of the turn-taking mechanism, impromptu planning decisions contingent on interlocutor input, and hence negotiation of global and local goals, including negotiation of meaning (in the SLA sense of the term), when required" (p. 19). Another major advantage of role plays is that unlike methods attempting to collect natural data, role plays are replicable and contextual factors (e.g., social status, social distance, and gender) can be controlled, allowing for cross-cultural and ILP comparison (Takahashi & DuFon, 1989). Open role plays are considered to occupy a position midway between DCTs and closed role plays, on one end of the spectrum, and authentic discourse, on the other end (Houck & Gass, 1996; Kasper & Dahl, 1991). As a result, role plays, both closed and open, have become the second-most often used data collection

method in ILP research. They have been used to study, among other speech acts, apologies (Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; Trosborg, 1995), requests (Scarcella, 1979; Trosborg, 1995; Walters, 1980), refusals (Widjaja, 1997), and expressions of gratitude (Eisenstein & Bodman, 1993).

Nonetheless, the use of role plays as data collection methods is not without drawbacks. Role plays might seem to share some features with authentic discourse, but there is no guarantee that the interaction in a role-play situation resembles that in a real-life situation (Houck & Gass, 1996; Kasper & Dahl, 1991; Rintell & Mitchell, 1989). The presence of recording equipment might also influence the interaction between interlocutors in a role-play situation. Stubbs (1983) argued that recording might make participants uncomfortable and thus incline them to develop certain verbal strategies for dealing with recording equipment to sound more polite or accommodating. Furthermore, role plays are "cumbersome to administer and time consuming in both their administration and analysis" (Houck & Gass, 1996, p. 48). Kasper and Dahl (1991) estimated that 1 hour of audio taped data takes up to 10 hours to transcribe, and even longer if the transcription includes the recording of prosodic features and measured pauses

Combined Data Collection Methods

The previous section explained that due to the difficulty of obtaining natural data, most researchers use one of two main elicitation methods (DCTs or role plays) rather than attempting to collect naturally occurring data. Each method has its advantages and disadvantages, and no single approach is immune from criticism. To account for the drawbacks associated with each method, various scholars (e.g., Beebe & Cummings, 1996; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Cohen, 1996; Rose & Ono, 1995) proposed

combining more than one data-collection method for use in speech act studies. The prospective design, as suggested by Kasper and Dahl (1991), could be as follows: (1) two or more data collection methods "may have equivalent status in the study, yielding complementary information on the research question at hand", and (2) one method could be used to collect the primary data and "another method having the subsidiary function of . . . helping the interpretation of the primary data" (p. 24). The logistical difficulties associated with employing two equivalent methods, whether an authentic data-collection method and a DCT or a role play and a DCT, lead researchers to use combined data-collection methods primarily for explicit comparison of different data-collection methods (e.g., Beebe & Cummings, 1996; Hartford & Bardovi-Harlig, 1992; Rintell & Mitchell, 1989; Sasaki, 1998).

The second option, a combination of production data (authentic discourse, DCTs, and role plays) with subsidiary techniques/metapragmatic judgment tasks (i.e., scaled-response questionnaires, multiple-choice questions, and interviews) is an attractive option to many ILP researchers (e.g., Eisenstein & Bodman, 1986; House, 1988; Suh, 1998; Takahashi & DuFon, 1989). Eisenstein and Bodman (1986) used a DCT and interviews in their comparison of expressions of gratitude by advanced ESL learners with different language backgrounds to native English speakers. The interviews revealed that some nonnative speakers expressed unfamiliarity with some of the situations included in the DCT, which influenced their speech production, and described some items as involving uncomfortable or embarrassing situations. The authors concluded that ease or difficulty of particular items appears to be due to the following factors: (a)

linguistic complexity, (b) subject familiarity with the situation, and (c) cultural

disorientation.

Like Eisenstein and Bodman (1986), Takahashi and DuFon (1989) used

interviews as supplementary data sources to role plays. Their study investigated the

requestive strategies used by Japanese ESL learners at the beginning, intermediate, and

advanced levels using baseline data adopted from Takahashi (1987). Overall, the

interviews proved to be important data sources, providing insight into the indirect

requestive behavior of Japanese ESL learners.

In her investigation of apologies produced by German nonnative English

speakers and native speakers of English and German, House (1988) combined a

DCT with a 3-point scaled response questionnaire designed to assess the weight of

dominance and distance, offender likelihood to apologize, addressee expectation of

an apology, offender obligation to apologize, and the imposition involved in the

apology. In general, House found the contextual ratings to be helpful in explaining

the situational and contextual use of apology strategies. The use of apology formulae

was found to be positively correlated with obligation, the use of intensifiers to be

negatively correlated with dominance, and no relationship found between

expressions of responsibility and any of the context factors. Suh (1998) used a DCT

and a scaled-response questionnaire to investigate the requestive speech-act

realization (production and perception) of Korean ESL learners compared to native

American English speakers. Whereas the DCT showed that the Korean ESL learners

deviated from the norms of native speakers by consistently using more supportive

moves and limitations in the range of downgraders, the scaled-response

questionnaire showed that the learners approximated the native speakers' ability to assess the situational factors (familiarity, social power, and degree of imposition) in most situations.

Both interviews and scaled-response tasks can provide crucial data for furthering understanding of speech-act production patterns. The choice of method depends on the knowledge sought by the researcher. Kasper (2000) explained,

> Interviews are useful and often indispensable when the research goal is to establish the cultural meanings that communicative practices have for community members. . . . [But] if the research goal is to establish communicative practices (as opposed to what members believe these practices to be), interviews are the wrong choice. (p. 334)

Because the second major research question of the current study is concerned with measuring Jordanian EFL learners' perception of contextual factors, a response-scaled questionnaire was an appropriate method of complementing the production data (see chapter 3).

Speech Act of Requesting

According to Searle's (1976) classification, a request is categorized as a "directive" speech act "whereby a speaker (requester) conveys to a hearer (requestee) that he/she wants the requestee to perform an act, which is for the benefit of the speaker" (Trosborg, 1995, p. 187). Adding another dimension, Blum-Kulka (1991) described requests as being "pre-event" acts that intend to affect the hearer's behavior as opposed to "post-event" acts such as apologies and complaints. According to Blum-Kulka, "The motivational, intentional source of a request is the requestive goal, which speakers strive

to achieve with maximum effectiveness and politeness" (p. 257). These goals may vary

from the least coercive (e.g., requests for permission, information, and goods) to the

most coercive (e.g., requests for action).

The most effective way to perform a request is to be bluntly direct (e.g., "Give

me the book" or "Close the window"). However, directness can conflict with politeness

(Brown & Levinson, 1987; Leech, 1983). Thus, from a sociolinguistic viewpoint,

requests are considered FTAs (Brown & Levinson, 1978, 1987) that place both the

requestee's negative face (his/her desire to remain unimpeded) and the requester's

positive face (his/her desire for approval) at risk. The high social stakes of requests for

both the speaker and hearer call for considerable "redressive action" or "face work" to

make the request sound more polite and less imposing, typically through the use of

mitigating devices that demand advanced pragmatic knowledge of the target culture on

the part of the learner.

General Characteristics of Requests

Several researchers (e.g., Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989; Ervin-Tripp,

1976; Searle, 1975; Trosborg; 1995) have attempted to develop coding schemes for

analyzing requests. However, the scheme developed for the CCSARP remains the

most profound as well as the most adapted in request studies (Blum-Kulka, House,

& Kasper, 1989). Designed to investigate the speech acts of requests and apologies

across a range of languages and cultures, the CCSARP investigated native speakers of

Danish, three dialects of English (American, Australian, and British), Canadian

French, German, Hebrew, and Argentinean Spanish and nonnative speakers of

English, German, and Hebrew. Data were collected via a DCT that consisted of 16

situations (8 requests and 8 apologies). The DCT situations were designed to represent all possible combinations of the 2 variables of social distance and social dominance.

The CCSARP resulted in the identification of the different linguistic resources that speakers use as part of a requestive sequence, namely the *head act*, *perspective*, *supportive moves* (also called *external modifications* by Faerch and Kasper [1984] and Trosborg [1995]), and *internal modifications*. The head act can be manifested in one of nine directness levels: (a) *mood derivable* (e.g., "Leave me alone"); (b) *performatives* (e.g., "I'm asking you to leave"); (c) *hedged perfomatives* (e.g., "I would like to ask you to give your presentation next week"); (c) *obligation statements* (e.g., "You'll have to move that car"); (d) *want statements* (e.g., "I really wish you'd stop bothering me"); (e) *suggestory formulae* (e.g., "How about cleaning up?"); (f) *query preparatory* (e.g., "Would you mind moving your car?"); (g) *strong hints* (e.g., "The kitchen is a mess"); and (g) *mild hints* (e.g., "You've been busy here, haven't you?"). Requestive strategies can vary in terms of perspective, depending on whether a speaker emphasizes the role of the hearer ("Can *you* do it?"), the role of the speaker ("Can *I* have it?") the role of both ("Can *we* start cleaning now?"), or neither ("*It* needs to be clean").

Whereas the head act is obligatory in performing requests, speakers have the choice of whether to include supportive moves and internal modifications to minimize the imposition of a request or make the request more effective. Supportive moves can precede or follow the head act and might include strategies such as *checking availability* (e.g., "Do you have a minute to talk?"), getting the speaker to precommit to the request (e.g., "Could you do me a favor?"), and giving an explanation or *grounder* for the request (e.g., "I missed class yesterday"). Internal modifications, which can mitigate or aggravate

the force of a request, are also optional, but unlike supportive moves, attached to the head act. Internal modifications include *consultative devices* (e.g., "*Do you think* I could. . . ."), *downtoners* (e.g., "Will you be able *perhaps* to drive me?"), and hedges (e.g., "Could you *kind of* let me borrow your notebook?"; for a detailed description of the coding scheme see pp. 71-79).

Variables Affecting Requests

A major assumption in speech act studies is that speech behavior is directly related to the assessment of a set of contextual variables (Bergman & Kasper, 1993; Blum-Kulka & House, 1989; Brown & Levinson, 1987; Kasper, 1989). A classic example is the relationship Brown and Levinson drew between the additive weightiness of power, distance, and degree of imposition and the choice of a certain politeness strategy. The literature on requestive speech acts differentiates between *context external factors* and *context internal factors*. Context external factors include social power, social distance, and the participants' rights and obligations whereas context internal factors include the degree of imposition and the goal of the request. Consequently, the observed variation in realizing a certain speech act between speakers of different cultures may well be the result of each speaker assigning different values to contextual variables, which may in turn determine, in the case of requests, the directness level and type and amount of external and internal modifications (Blum-Kulka & House, 1989; Kasper, 1989).

Interlanguage Studies on Requests

In an early ILP study, Blum-Kulka (1982) investigated the requestive behavior of Hebrew foreign language learners by collecting data from three groups of

participants: 44 English-speaking students learning Hebrew who served as the experimental group, 32 native speakers of Hebrew as the L2 control group, and 10 native speakers of English as the L1 control group. The three groups responded to 17 DCT items, 9 of which required a request realization. The DCT results revealed that (a) the requestive strategies chosen by learners differed significantly from those chosen by native speakers in any given situation; (b) Hebrew social norms appeared to allow for more directness in social interaction than did American norms; and (c) whereas the Hebrew learners preferred indirect strategies (indicating negative pragmatic transfer), the Hebrew native speakers preferred more direct strategies.

Blum-Kulka's (1982) study showed the importance of making a distinction between conventions *of* language and conventions *about* language; that is, although the Hebrew learners had the same access to the same strategies as did the Hebrew native speakers, the learners' lack of knowledge regarding social conventions led them to deviate from Hebrew social norms. A major factor in such deviation was the learners' transfer of indirectness from their L1, illustrating that the use of indirectness in situations where blunt requests are expected might cause a request "to lose its effectiveness" (p. 35).

As the first study to both empirically establish the negative transfer effect from an L1 and the first to adapt a DCT to pragmatics research, Blum-Kulka's (1982) study was very significant. However, it only dealt with strategy type, leaving the use of other features in learners' interlanguage uninvestigated. To fill this research gap, House and Kasper (1987) analyzed the request production of Danish and German EFL learners and native speakers of Danish, British English, and German. Analyzing the data in

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terms of level of directness and internal and external modifications, the researchers found that native British English speakers relied heavily on preparatory strategies (e.g., "Can you . . . ?"). Although both German and Danish learners of English chose various levels, ranging from the most direct (e.g., imperative) to the least direct (e.g., hints), German learners used more direct strategies than did Danish learners due to the influence of German language social norms.

House and Kasper (1987) categorized internal modifications as either *syntactic downgraders* (e.g., interrogative or conditional structures) or *lexical/phrasal downgraders* (e.g., politeness markers, consultative devices, or downtoners). Both Danish and German learners used fewer syntactic downgraders than did native English speakers, whereas the Danish learners tended to use more and German learners fewer lexical/ phrasal downgraders than did the native English speakers. Although both groups of English learners used markedly more supportive moves than did the English native speakers, this tendency to use "too many words" was not attributed to pragmatic transfer.

Nonnative speaker overuse of supportive moves and underuse of internal modifications have been supported by several studies conducted within the CCSARP framework (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1986; Edmondson & House, 1991; Faerch & Kasper, 1989; Rintell & Mitchell, 1989). Edmondson and House (1991) claimed that this behavior (known as the "waffle phenomenon") seems to be a characteristic of second language learners irrespective of their first language. Moreover, Blum-Kulka and Olshatain (1986) claimed that nonnative speaker overindulgence in words carries the potential for pragmatic failure by creating "a lack of appropriateness which might cause the hearer to react with impatience" (p. 175). Nonetheless, these results should be

interpreted with caution because they are based on studies of learners with closely related native languages and cultures.

Investigating Korean ESL learners' request realization in terms of directness level and external modifications, Kim (1995) collected data through the administration of an oral DCT to 15 native American English speakers, 15 Korean ESL learners, and 10 native Korean speakers. All of the participants responded to six request situations that varied in terms of the interlocutors' role relationships (dominance or social distance), interlocutors' rights and obligations, and degree of imposition. The results indicated negative pragmatic transfer from Korean when asking a boss to leave work early and asking a child to go to sleep. Both native Korean speakers and ESL learners were more indirect than were English native speakers when requesting to leave work early but more direct when requesting that a child go to sleep.

In another study of Korean ESL learners' request realizations, Suh (1999) used a DCT to collect data from 30 native American English speakers, 30 Korean ESL learners, and 30 native Korean speakers. The author's results revealed the complex nature of learners' interlanguage. The learners and native English speakers used conventionally indirect strategies for 65% and 78%, respectively, of their requests, which, when the percentages were compared, indicated that the learners were making progress towards the L2 sociolinguistic norms. However, the learners chose direct level (29%), which was more often than the English native speakers (21%), moving toward the Korean native speakers (40%), which implied the effects of the L1 transfer. Negative transfer was also apparent in the use of perspective. The learners

showed the most preferred choice of hearer-oriented requests (71%), being more similar

to the Korean native speaker group (77%) than the English native speaker group (54%).

The use of such requestive behaviors by the learners suggests that they were developing

L2 pragmatic competence while remaining under L1 influence. Contrary to the findings

of Kim's (1995) study but similar to the findings of the CCSARP studies, the learners

showed an overuse of supportive moves, thus deviating from both their L1 and L2. The

learners employed consistently more supportive moves than did the two native speaker

groups across all situations.

Employing a DCT, Hill (1997) compared the requests of 60 university-level

Japanese EFL learners at three different levels of English proficiency to native British

English speakers. He found that although the low-proficiency learners relied heavily on

the use of direct requests, they began using fewer direct requests as their L2 proficiency

increased. He also found that the learners increased their use of both internal and

external modifications as their English proficiency increased but continued using fewer

modifications than did native speakers. However, Hill's macrolevel observation of

developmental patterns, such as directness, internal modification, and supportive moves,

concealed the presence of microlevel elements, such as lack of development and

regression, in certain subcategories. For example, the learners at all proficiency levels

overused the "want strategy" (the use of "I want to" and "I would like to") and

underused the permission strategy (the use of "May I?"). Learners at a high level of

proficiency greatly increased and subsequently overused their use of willingness

strategies (the use of "Would you?"). The same trend applied to internal modifications

and supportive moves. Thus, without examining more closely the use of specific subcategories within a given strategy, analysts may arrive at incorrect conclusions.

Research on requests has revealed that language learners seem to have access to the same repertoire of requesting strategies (e.g., level of directness, internal modification, and supportive moves) as native speakers. Yet, the manner in which these features are organized and affected by social variables (e.g., social power, social distance, and obligation) is subject to cultural filters which "reflect different cultural values, or at least different hierarchies of values" (Wierzbicka, 1991, p. 69). Cultural values from native language clearly influence and are reflected in learners' interlanguage, such as in the transfer of indirect strategies to the interlanguage of native English speaker learners of Hebrew (Blum-Kulka, 1982), the transfer of direct strategies from Korean to the interlanguage of Korean ESL learners (Kim, 1995), and the transfer of willingness strategies from Japanese to the interlanguage of Japanese ESL learners (Hill, 1997). Deviations from both the L1 and L2 are also culture specific: For example, Japanese EFL learners use less supportive moves whereas German and Danish learners use more.

<center>Speech Acts in Arabic: Where Are We?</center>

Jarbou (2002) lamented, "The whole area of speech act theory is still at its very beginnings in Arabic language" (p. 26). Except for Al-Issa's 1998 study of refusals, the little research that has addressed Arabic and Arab speakers, although relatively recent, has been cross-cultural in nature (e.g., Bataineh, 2004; Nelson, El-Bakry, et al., 1996, 2002; Nelson, Carson, et al., 2002), thus not directly focusing on second language learners. The majority of studies compared different varieties of Arabic with American English, apparently due to the status of English as the second major language (after

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Arabic) taught and used throughout the Arab world. The results of these studies indicate

marked cross-cultural variation between the different varieties of the Arabic language and

American English.

In one study, Al-Issa (1998) investigated pragmatic transfer within the

performance of the speech act of refusal by Jordanian EFL learners. Using a DCT to elicit

data from 50 Jordanian Arabic native speakers, 50 Jordanian EFL learners, and 50 native

American English speakers, the researcher found evidence of pragmatic transfer in the

Jordanian EFL learners' responses in four different areas: (a) the frequency of semantic

formulas, (b) the choice of semantic formulas, (c) the average number of semantic

formulas, and (d) the specific content of semantic formulas. Bataineh's (2004) study of

Jordanian and American apology strategies showed clear cross-cultural variation.

Jordanians tend to produce more statements of remorse (e.g., "Sorry, forgive me"),

promises not to repeat an offense (e.g., "This won't happen again"), and invocations of

God's (Allah's) name (e.g., "May Allah compensate you") when trying to apologize.

Americans, on the other hand, tend to blame others as well as themselves when trying to

apologize for the committed offense. Nelson, El-Bakary, et al.'s (1996) study comparing

complimenting behavior in Egyptian Arabic and American English revealed that

Egyptian compliments tend to be longer and include more similes and metaphors (e.g.,

"You look like a bridegroom today") than do their American English equivalents.

Despite the potential value of cross-cultural studies on native Arab speakers, these

studies have little interpretative capacity to explain the linguistic and cultural behavior of

second language learners. Their limitations arise largely from the nature of

"interlanguage" as a developing system that might borrow from both the L1 and L2 or

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even deviate from both systems and take a pattern of it own (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Ellis, 1994; Selinker, 1972; Trosborg, 1995).

<center>*Requests by Arab EFL Learners: More Problems*</center>

To the researcher's knowledge, Umar's 2004 study, which compared the request strategies and internal modifications of 20 advanced Arab EFL learners (graduate students in linguistics) to 20 native British English native speakers, was the only attempt to examine requests performed by Arab EFL learners. The Arab learners came from various cultural backgrounds, namely Sudanese, Saudi Arabian, Egyptian, and Bahraini backgrounds. The participants responded to nine DCT situations that varied in terms of social distance (acquaintance or stranger) and social power (high, equal, or low). Two major questions guided the study:

1. When advanced Arab learners of English perform the speech act of requesting, do their request strategies differ from those used by native speakers of English?

2. Does pragmatic transfer exist in the choice of the request strategy, lexical items, and content of the semantic formulas used by the advanced Arab learners of English?

Umar (2004) found that the Arab learners tend to use more direct strategies than do native British English speakers, a tendency most obvious when addressing addressees of lower status. For example, in the "taxi driver situation," the Arab learners used requests such as "Stop driving like this" or "Drop me here please" whereas native English native speakers used requests such as "Would you mind driving more carefully, please?" According to Umar, the high level of directness used by Arab learners is due to pragmatic

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transfer from Arabic, which allows a higher level of directness with close friends and addressees of lower status.

Umar (2004) also found that because the Arab learners' use of internal modification is markedly lower than that of the native English speakers, the native speakers' requests sound more polite and tactful. The author concluded that because Arab learners might deviate from the requesting behavior of native English speakers, "students should be implicitly and explicitly instructed to observe the role of social distance and social power in performing request. Learners of English should also be taught the proper syntactic and semantic techniques to modify their requestive acts" (p. 82).

Although Umar's (2004) study was an important attempt to address the pragmatic concerns of Arab EFL learners, it suffered from three major limitations. First, the study did not touch on two major aspects of requests—supportive moves and perspective—thus leaving these aspects for other researchers to investigate. Second, it failed to use a method that would thoroughly address one of its major research concerns—the influence of pragmatic transfer on learners' requests performance. According to Ellis (1994) and Kasper and Dahl (1991), the only way pragmatic transfer could be investigated is by collecting data from three sources: the L1, the L2, and IL. Because Umar did not include L1 data, his findings of pragmatic transfer were not founded on empirical results and thus speculative. Third, the Arab participants in Umar's study came from five different Arab countries. This manner of collective grouping has been strongly criticized by several Arab researchers (e.g., Al-Issa, 1998; Feghali, 1997) and is not in accordance with ILP research, which stresses the importance of taking participant sociocultural and regional differences into account. For example, ILP research differentiates between the different

varieties of English (American, Australian, or British), and Spanish (Argentinean or Mexican).

The paucity of pragmatic research on Arab EFL/ESL learners and the methodological shortcomings associated with the few existing studies are significant pedagogical concerns that require further attention. A major assumption of this study is that second/foreign language learners often apply their rules of speaking to the target language, which may carry different social significance within the target language. This investigation of Jordanian EFL learners' requests aims to introduce a new perspective into ILP research, which until recently investigated and compared "the East" and "the West" without focusing attention on "the Middle."

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This chapter presents the methodology used to investigate Jordanian EFL

learners' request speech-act realization (production and perception) compared to that of

native American English speakers and native Jordanian Arabic speakers. A multimethod

data collection approach – (a) a discourse completion task (DCT) and (b) a scaled-

response questionnaire (SRQ) – was employed to elicit performance and perception data

from 132 participants divided into three groups. In the remainder of this chapter, the

selection of participants is presented first, followed by a detailed description of the data

collection instruments including the rationale for selecting the instruments, development,

and piloting of the instruments. Next, data collection procedures are introduced. The

coding scheme, statistical analyses, and developing interrrater reliability are also

discussed.

Participants

The investigation of learners' L2 pragmatic abilities should involve the collection

of three comparable sets of data: (a) samples of the target language as performed by L2

learners, (b) samples of the target language as performed by native speakers, and (c)

samples of the target language as performed by L1 native speakers (Ellis, 1994; Kasper &

Dahl, 1991). Ellis argued that collecting these three sets of data allows the researcher "to

determine to what extent learner performance differs from native-speaker performance

and whether the differences are traceable to transfer from the L1" (p. 162). Kasper and

Kasper and Dahl suggested that because participants' responses in cross-cultural and ILP

speech-act realization studies seem to cluster around specific subcategories, "30 subjects per undivided sample" (p. 16) who respond to a DCT is a sufficient sample to answer most ILP speech-act realization questions (see also Bergman & Kasper, 1993; Maeshiba et al., 1996).

Adopting this canonical design and aiming to increase the reliability of results, 132 participants divided into three groups took part in this study: (a) 44 native speakers of Jordanian Arabic (JA), (b) 44 native speakers of American English (AE), and (c) 44 Jordanian EFL (JEFL) learners. The AE participants were recruited from Indiana University of Pennsylvania (IUP) and the JA and JEFL participants from Yarmouk University (YU) in Jordan. All the participants were undergraduate students between the ages of 19 and 24. The AE group consisted of 22 males and 22 females with a mean age of 19.8. The JA group consisted of 21 males and 23 females with a mean age of 20.4. The AE and JA participants came from a variety of majors that included political science, education, journalism, math, physics, criminology, history, and communication media. Because the design of the DCT situations required that the participants had prior experience in a university setting, first-year students did not serve as AE and JA participants. It was assumed that their unfamiliarity with the setting would result in their production of unrepresentative responses.

The JEFL group consisted of 22 males and 22 females with a mean age of 21.6. To avoid the possibility of multiple proficiency levels among the JEFL participants, only third- and fourth-year English majors participated in this study. Participants' living abroad experience was also accounted for. Cross-cultural communication researchers (e.g., Clyne, Ball, & Neil, 1991; Gumperz, 1982) have shown that while under the influence of

the target language and culture, nonnative speakers living abroad may no longer abide by their home cultural norms when using their L1. Based on this finding, potential participants who had lived abroad for 3 or more months were excluded from the sample pool.

Instruments

No one data collection method is immune from criticism. As noted by Bardovi-Harlig (1999), "To look for a super method—a one-size-fits-all variety—is to look for a phantom" (p. 238). Thus, several researchers (e.g., Beebe & Cummings, 1996; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Kasper & Dahl, 1991; Rose & Ono, 1995; Wolfson et al., 1989) have advocated the use of a multimethod approach in cross-cultural and ILP speech act studies. Kasper and Dahl suggested,

> One method can be employed to collect the primary source of data, with data
> collected by means of another method having the subsidiary function of
> developing the instrument for the primary data collection or helping with the
> interpretation of the primary data. (p. 24)

Following these recommendations, three data collection instruments were utilized: (a) a background questionnaire (BQ) to elicit demographic data, (b) a DCT to elicit performance data (i.e., pragmalinguistic knowledge), and (c) a SRQ to elicit perception data (i.e., sociopragmatic knowledge).

Background Questionnaire

One major concern in cross-cultural and ILP studies is the participants' comparability within and between groups. All the participants in this study answered questions regarding their age, gender, native language, major, education, academic level, and experience living abroad. In addition to providing demographic data on the research

participants, the BQ acted as a filtering mechanism that allowed the researcher to automatically exclude potential participants who did not meet the outlined inclusion criteria (see the section on the participants) from the sample pool (see Appendixes C and D).

<p align="center">*Discourse Completion Task*</p>

Performance data for this study was collected via an open-ended questionnaire in the form of a DCT. The DCT consisted of 12 situational descriptions that specified a setting in addition to the interlocutors' power and distance relative to each other. Each situation is followed by a blank space in which the participants must provide the appropriate linguistic form of the speech act under consideration as though they were the speakers engaging in real-life interaction (see Appendixes E and F).

Rationale for Using a DCT

Ideally, the investigation of speech phenomena should be based on the analysis of naturally occurring data. Nonetheless, the demands for cross-cultural comparability in this study ruled out the option of using a natural data collection method in favor of using a DCT, a more controlled data elicitation method (see chapter 2 for a thorough discussion). The DCT, the most widely used data collection instrument in cross-cultural and ILP research (Kasper & Dahl, 1991), is a practical method that meets the demand for cross-cultural comparability (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Rintell & Mitchell, 1989; Trenchs, 1995) and allows for control over contextual variables (e.g., distance, power, and gender). By doing so, the DCT provides a consistent body of data that allows for investigation of the influence of these variables across cultures and situations. Beebe and Cummings (1996) noted that the DCT has been shown to be a highly effective tool for gathering large

amounts of data quickly; creating an initial classification of semantic formulas and strategies that are likely occur in natural speech; studying the stereotypical, perceived requirements for a socially appropriate response; gaining insight into social and psychological factors that may affect production; and ascertaining the canonical shape of speech acts in the minds of speakers.

Moreover, in their study of gratitude by native and advanced level nonnative speakers of English, Eisenstein and Bodman (1986) found that the use of a DCT helps eliminate the anxiety and nervousness that normally afflict nonnative speakers when tested orally (see also Bergman & Kasper, 1993). Eisenstein and Bodman explained that if learners are not able to provide native-like responses in low-pressure situations, such as responding to a DCT, "it would be more unlikely that they would be able to function more effectively in face-to-face interactions with their accompanying pressures and constraints" (p. 169). A DCT therefore elicits responses that can be considered "a measure of what native and nonnative speakers consider to be normal linguistic behavior" (p. 169).

The choice of a DCT was also conditioned by its suitability to answering the study's research questions. Kasper (2000) emphasized the effectiveness of a DCT when the purpose of the study is to "inform about speakers' pragmalinguistic knowledge of the strategies and linguistic forms by which communicative acts can be implemented and about their sociopragmatic knowledge of the context factors under which particular strategic and linguistic choices are appropriate" (p. 329). Kasper also noted that if, on the other hand, the focus of the research is on conversational interaction and the sequencing of communicative action in conjunction with turn taking, researchers should employ

more interactive data elicitation procedures, such as role playing. Because one major purpose of this study was to explore learners' performance—that is, their pragmalinguistic knowledge and the influence of social factors on performance—it was concluded that the use of a DCT would be the most effective method.

Development of the DCT

Several scholars (e.g., Eisenstein & Bodman, 1986; Mir, 1994; Rose, 1992) noted that nonnative speakers may feel uncertain whether their responses are appropriate in a study using a DCT if they have had no previous experience in DCT situations. Unlike the DCT used in the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP), which Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) explained was intended to reflect situations "of the type expected to be familiar to speakers across *Western* [italics added] cultures" (p. 14), the DCT for this study was designed to ensure that all situations were comparable across two different cultures and based on familiar real-life occurrences experienced by the study population; that is, situations experienced by undergraduate college students. To this end, I started the development of the DCT with natural observation of the study population, as had Al-Issa (1998) in his study of refusals and Eisenstein and Bodman (1986) in their study of expressions of gratitude. As a teaching assistant in the IUP English Department and student advisor at the IUP American Language Institute, I had sufficient access to the participants to observe them outside the classroom (e.g., in the library or cafeteria). Hence, I based my formulation of most of the situations on my direct experience with students (e.g., paper extension, borrowing an article or book) or my observation of students' requestive behavior (e.g., borrowing notes, or joining a study group).

Furthermore, I conducted a comprehensive review of the types of DCTs that other researchers (e.g., Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Hill, 1997; Huang, 1996; Hudson, Detmer, & Brown, 1995; Mir, 1994) had used in their studies. This literature review proved crucial in confirming and supplementing the situations from the naturalistic phase. In addition, examining different DCT designs helped me avoid constructing situations that would be controversial in many Middle Eastern countries due to different sociocultural norms (e.g., asking someone for a date or serving as the president of a skiing club) or highly imaginative because they required participants to assume unfamiliar roles (e.g., bank manager, bookstore owner, or army general).

The design of each situation was based on systematic variation of two culturally sensitive social variables, *social power* (P) and *social distance* (D), which have both been shown to be significant variables in determining speech-act behavior in cross-cultural pragmatics research (Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Brown & Levinson, 1987; Hudson et al., 1995). Social power refers to the power of the speaker over the hearer and was treated as ternary-valued: the speaker could have more power than the hearer (+P), the speaker and the hearer could have equal power (=P), or the speaker could have less power than the hearer (–P). Social distance refers to the degree of familiarly between the interlocutors and was treated as binary-valued: the interlocutors either knew each other (–D) or did not know each other (+D). The combinations of social power and social distance resulted in six possible combinations: (–P, +D), (=P, +D), (+P, +D), (–P, -D), (=P, –D), and (+P, –D). To increase the reliability of the data, the DCT included two situations for each variable combination, which resulted in 12 DCT situations.

In order to confirm that each situation was authentic and cross-culturally comparable in both cultures, the DCT was discussed with three native American English speakers and three Jordanian EFL learners studying in the United States. Both groups confirmed that these situations were very likely to occur in their respective cultures and indicated that they could imagine finding themselves in these situations. These results were further confirmed by the pilot study results (see the piloting the instrument section). Table 1 clarifies the final version of the DCT according to the variable combinations.

Table1

DCT Situations Based on Social Variables

Situation	Social power (status)	Social distance (familiarity)
1. Paper extension	S < H (–P)	+D
2. Copying a notebook	S = H (=P)	+D
3. Posting an announcement	S > H (+P)	+D
4. Borrowing an article	S < H (–P)	–D
5. Using a computer	S = H (=P)	–D
6. Cancelling a tutoring session	S > H (+P)	–D
7. Adding a course	S < H (–P)	+D
8. Joining a study group	S = H (=P)	+D
9. Helping carry books	S > H (+P)	+D
10. Using a course book	S = H (=P)	–D
11. Playing someplace else	S > H (+P)	–D
12. Writing a recommendation	S < H (–P)	–D

Note. S = speaker, H = hearer, P = social power, D = social distance.

The following is a description of the DCT situations based on the six variable combinations:

1. (–P, +D): Situations 1 and 7

S1: A student asks a professor whom he/she does not know for an extension on a paper.

S7: A student asks a professor whom he/she does not know to add a course.

2. (=P, +D): Situations 2 and 8

S2: A student asks another student whom he/she does not know to copy his/her notebook.

S8: A student asks another student whom he/she does not know to join a study group.

3. (+P, +D): Situations 3 and 9

S3: A professor asks a student whom he/she does not know to post an announcement.

S9: A professor asks a student who he/she does not know to help carry books to the office.

4. (–P, -D): Situations 4 and 12

S4: A student asks a professor whom he/she knows to borrow an article.

S12: A student asks a professor whom he/she knows to write a recommendation letter.

5. (=P, –D): Situations 5 and 10

S5: A student asks his/her roommate to use her/his computer.

S10: A student asks his/her roommate to borrow his/her course book for a semester.

6. (+P, –D): Situations 6 and 11

S6: A university students asks a high school student whom he/she knows to postpone a tutoring session.

S11: A university students asks junior high school students whom he/she knows to play away from his/her window.

The design of the DCT sought to minimize some of the shortcomings of the DCT used by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) in their study of requests and apologies in the CCSARP. To avoid biasing subjects' response choice, the word *request* was neither used in the situation descriptions nor in the instructions for completing the DCT (Beebe & Takahashi, 1989). Another major difference is that the situations in this DCT did not include a rejoinder (i.e., the hearer's response). Rintell and Mitchell (1989) and Rose and Ono (1995) noted that the hearers' responses may influence and limit the range of participants' responses. That is, the participants may choose responses that correspond with the hearer's responses provided in the DCT instead of what they would truly say in such situations, as would occur in the following example taken from the CCSARP:

At the University

Ann missed a lecture yesterday and would like to borrow Judith's notes.

Ann:_____

Judith: Sure, but let me have them back before the lecture next week.

(Blum-Kulka et al., p. 14)

In contrast, this example from my DCT would elicit a response that reflects what the participants would truly say in such a situation:

Borrowing a Notebook

You are taking a course in "Politics." Last week, you had a bad cold and missed very important classes. You see one of your classmates in the library. You have never spoken with this classmate before but you know that he/she is an excellent

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student, and you want to copy his/her notebook. You go to your classmate and say. . . .

Moreover, unlike the DCT used in the CCSARP, gender in the current DCT was not specified and left neutral; because Jordanian culture poses restrictions on male-female interaction, some situations with the gender variable indicated might have been unauthentic and thus cross-culturally incomparable. In addition, previous researchers (e.g., Blom & Gumperz, 1972; Wolfson, D'Amico-Reisner, & Hubert, 1983) found that native speakers' intuitions about others' language use might not be always reliable. For this reason, the study's participants were asked to assume the roles in the DCT situations and respond accordingly, not how they think someone else would respond in the given situation.

The DCT (i.e., the 12 situations) was first constructed in English by the researcher. To produce a cross-culturally equivalent Arabic version of the DCT, a back translation technique was used (Behling & Law, 2000). The researcher, a native speaker of Arabic, translated the English version into Arabic. Then, a professional translator did a back translation of the instrument into English. A native speaker of English checked the reliability of the translation by comparing the original English version with the back-translated version. Finally, two bilingual doctoral students majoring in composition and TESOL verified the two versions for cross-linguistic comparability.

Scaled-Response Questionnaire

To measure native and nonnative speakers' perception of speech acts (their metapragmatic knowledge), researchers have traditionally used two types of metapragmatic assessments: (a) *pragmalinguistic assessments*, which determine "how

learners assess strategies of communicative action and their linguistic realizations in terms of appropriateness, politeness, and other attributes" (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p. 100), and (b) sociopragmatic assessments, which measure the values and weights of the social and contextual variables that influence linguistic choices, such as social status, social distance, rights, and obligations (Blum-Kulka & House, 1989; Kasper & Rose, 2002). In the following example, item 1 is used to elicit pragmalinguistic assessment whereas item 2 is used to elicit sociopragmatic assessment:

> In a school cafeteria, you are having lunch with your classmates after class. You would like your meal to be a bit spicier, so you look for a pepper shaker and see that a classmate is using it. You say . . .
>
>> 1. Could I have that after you? not appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 appropriate
>>
>> 2. Is it your right to make the request to your classmate in this situation? absolutely 1 2 3 4 5 not at all (Shimamura, 1993, p. 73)

Since the second research question examined Jordanian EFL learners' perception of contextual factors (i.e., sociopragmatic knowledge) compared to that of native American English speakers and native Jordanian Arabic speakers, a SRQ was designed to elicit sociopragmatic assessments from all the participants. As described by Kasper and Rose (2002), SRQs are the most commonly used tools for obtaining this type of sociopragmatic data, and have been used by several researchers (e.g., Mir, 1995; Olshtain, 1989; Shimamura, 1993). The SRQ in this study presented the same 12 situations presented in the DCT followed by questions that asked the participants to rate the following 5 contextual variables using a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 to 5 (see Appendixes G and H): (a) the degree of familiarity between the speaker and the

hearer, (b) the degree of social power the speaker has over the hearer, (c) the difficulty of making the request, (d) the right of making the request, and (e) and the hearer's obligation to carry out the request. The following is one of the situations presented in the SRQ:

Situation 5

You have been sharing an apartment with a roommate for six months now. While you were working on your assignments, your computer stopped working. You want to use your roommate's computer and finish your assignments.

1. How much familiarity is there between the speaker and the hearer in this situation? no familiarity 1 2 3 4 5 high familiarity

2. How much power does the speaker have over the hearer in this situation in this situation? no power 1 2 3 4 5 high power

3. How difficult is making the request in this situation?
not difficult 1 2 3 4 5 very difficult

4. How much right does the speaker have in making the request in this situation? no right 1 2 3 4 5 strong right

5. What is the hearer's obligation in carrying out the request in this situation? no obligation 1 2 3 4 5 strong obligation

Piloting the Instruments

After thoroughly considering and discussing the design and content of the scenarios, a pilot study was conducted to test the data collection instruments (the BQ, DCT, and SRQ) with a group similar to the actual population of this study. The responses of the JA and JEFL participants might not be the same as the responses of Arab or

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Jordanian ESL learners studying in the United States would be due to the influence of American culture. The pilot study was conducted with this consideration and the following goals in mind:

1. To determine the authenticity and the familiarity of the situations to the participants of both cultures.

2. To ensure that the participants clearly understood the instructions in both languages and experienced no confusion regarding the manner of performing the tasks.

3. To ensure that the design and wording of the scenarios were comprehensible and caused no confusion, especially to the Jordanian EFL learners.

4. To ensure that the scenarios were successful in yielding the speech act under study, the act of requesting, and not any other speech acts.

5. To estimate the time required for task completion and plan the main data collection procedures accordingly (Al-Issa, 1998; Marquez-Reiter, 2000).

Fifteen participants—5 American English students from IUP, 5 Jordanian EFL learners, and 5 Jordanian Arabic native speakers from YU— took part in the pilot study. All the participants were instructed to complete the BQ, respond to the 12 DCT scenarios, and answer the SRQ. In addition, a semistructured interview was conducted with each participant to gain feedback on the instruments. This feedback led to several changes to the final versions of the instruments, particularly the wording of situation 8 ("Joining a Study Group"), as it was observed that EFL learners used the wording of the scenario in formulating their responses:

Situation 8

You are having trouble understanding your (Mathematics) course. You hear that some of the course students have formed a study group to prepare for the midterm exam. You have never spoken with those students before but you decide to <u>ask them if you could join the study group</u> (modification: talk to them about joining the study group). You approach one of study group students and say . . . .

Two participants, one from the AE and one from the JA group, responded by indicating what they would say or do in a certain situation, not what they would actually say (e.g., "*In this situation, I would explain my situation to the professor and ask him/her to add me to the section*"). To avoid such responses, it was decided to include an example to show how to respond to situations (see Appendixes E and F).

One major concern was the time that the participants needed for completing the instruments, especially the JEFL participants. Kasper and Dahl (1991) noted that the time required to complete the instruments should not exceed 30 minutes; otherwise, the participants may become fatigued and therefore not fully able to attend to the task. All the participants not only completed the instruments in less than 30 minutes but also noted that all the situations were familiar, as they reflected their daily interactions. Therefore, it was determined that the instruments would reliably collect the type of data needed for this research. The final versions of the instruments were modified accordingly and were further checked by the researcher and another bilingual doctorate student of English for accuracy and cross-cultural comparability.

Data Collection Procedures

A colleague who is an applied linguist and a current instructor of English administered the study instruments to the JA and JEFL groups at YU and the researcher administered the study instruments to the AE group at IUP. Through e-mail and telephone contact, the researcher ensured that the instructor understood the data collection protocol. After asking for permission to visit classes, the instructor visited English and liberal studies classes at YU while the researcher visited liberal studies classes at IUP. The students were invited to participate in a cross-cultural pragmatic study without mentioning the word *request* to avoid biasing their answers, emphasizing participant confidentiality and the right to withdraw from the study at any time. The students who agreed to participate were given an informed consent form (see Appendixes A and B) to read and sign and the BQ to complete (in Arabic for the JA and JEFL groups and English for the AE group). Then, the participants were asked to read the instructions on how to complete the DCT and SRQ, emphasizing that they should not give their ideal responses but rather responses that reflected those that they used in everyday interaction. After ensuring that all the participants understood the nature of the task, they were instructed to complete the DCT and SRQ.

Coding Scheme

Data from the DCT were analyzed using the CCSARP request coding scheme developed by Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper (1989). The CCSARP coding scheme has been used in most cross-cultural and ILP request studies, including those studying Japanese and English (Hill, 1997), Spanish and English (Mir, 1994), and Korean and English (Suh, 1998). The coding scheme was further modified and other coding schemes

were consulted (House & Kasper, 1981, 1987; Mir, 1994; Trosborg, 1995), mainly

regarding the classification of external and internal modifications, to better reflect the

responses performed by the specific population of this study.

In accordance with the CCSARP coding scheme, the *discourse sequence*, defined

as the entire utterance(s) supplied by the participant in the blank space after the scenario,

constituted the unit of analysis. The CCSARP identified different linguistic resources that

speakers might include as part of the request sequence. For example, in the phrase "John,

my computer stopped working, do you think I could borrow yours?" the linguistic

resources include an alerter (John), a supportive move ("my computer stopped working"),

an internal modification ("do you think"), and the request proper or head act ("I could

borrow yours"). In addition, a request can differ in relation to the request perspective.

Level of Directness

The first step in the analysis was to identify the *head act*, which Blum-Kulka et al.

(1989) defined as "that part of the sequence which might serve to realize the act

independently of other elements" (p. 17). The CCSARP scheme identifies nine semantic

formulas/strategies to realize the head act, arranged to reflect a decreasing level of

directness from the most direct (mood derivable requests) to the least direct (mild hints).

Following the CCSARP, the nine request strategies were categorized into three levels of

directness: (a) *direct strategies* (mood derivable, explicit performative, hedged

performative, and locution derivable requests as well as want statements), (b)

conventionally indirect strategies (suggestory formulas and query preparatory strategies),

and (c) *nonconventionally indirect strategies* (strong and mild hints). Table 2 defines the

strategies by directness level and provides examples of each type.

Table 2

Classification of Request Strategies

Strategy	Definition	Examples
Direct		
1. Mood derivable	The grammatical mood of the locution conventionally determines its illocutionary force as a request. The prototypical form is the imperative.	"Please, *play* football away from my window." "*Post* this on the classroom door."
2. Explicit performative	The illocutionary intent is explicitly named by the speaker by using a relevant illocutionary verb.	"I *ask* you to give more time, just a few days, to complete the paper."
3. Hedged performative	The illocutionary verb denoting the requestive intent is modified by modal verbs or verbs expressing intention.	"I'*d like to ask* you to give me an extension on my paper."
4. Locution derivable	The illocutionary intent is directly derivable from the semantic meaning of the locution.	"I *have to* cancel to cancel our class." "You *ought to* play away from here."
5. Want statement	The utterance expresses the speaker's desire that the event denoted in the preposition is realized.	I *need to* use your computer real quick." "I *want to* borrow your management book." "I *hope* you can write a letter of recommendation for me."
Conventionally indirect		
6. Suggestory formula	The illocutionary intent is phrased as a suggestion by means of a framing routine formula.	"*How about* Wednesday?" "*Let's* reschedule for Wednesday."

Table 2 (continued)

Strategy	Definition	Examples
7. Query preparatory	The utterance contains reference to a preparatory condition for the feasibility of the request, typically one of ability, willingness, or possibility, as conventionalized in the given language.	"*Is it possible* to write me a letter of recommendation?" "*Can* you help me carry these books?" "*Would* you lend me your notebook?"
Nonconventionally indirect		
8. Strong hint	The illocutionary intent is not immediately derivable from the locution; however, the locution refers to relevant elements of the intended illocutionary or propositional act. Unlike preparatory strategies, hints are not conventionalized and thus require more inference activity on the part of the hearer.	If the intent is getting the hearer to lend a computer: "Are you using your computer?"
9. Mild hint	The locution contains no elements of immediate relevance to the intended illocution or proposition, thus putting increased demand for contextual analysis and knowledge activation on the interlocutor	If the intent is getting the hearer to postpone a tutoring session: "I'll be really busy with some of my work this Monday."

Use of Conventionally Indirect Requests

Because conventionally indirect requests were found to be the most frequently used requests among the three groups of participants, it was subject to a more detailed investigation according to two aspects: *subcategories* (i.e., conventions of means and form) and the *request perspective*.

Subcategories of Conventionally Indirect Requests

In accordance with Blum-Kulka (1989) and Mir (1994), conventionally indirect was further classified into the following subcategories or conventions of means:

1. *Ability* (e.g., "Can/could you give me an extension?")

2. *Permission* (e.g., "Can I use your laptop?")

3. *Possibility* (e.g., "Is there any way you can give me an override?")

4. *Willingness* (e.g., "Would you mind writing me a letter of recommendation?")

5. *Suggestion* (e.g., "How about if we postpone the meeting till Wednesday evening?")

Request Perspective

Another source of variation within conventionally indirect requests is the choice of perspective, which can signify social and cultural meaning. Based on the research of Blum Kulka (1989), request perspective was classified into the following categories:

1. *Speaker-oriented requests* (e.g., "Can/Could *I* postpone the meeting?")

2. *Hearer-oriented requests* (e.g., "Can/Could *you* give me a hand?")

3. *Inclusive requests* (e.g., "Can/Could *we* get together to study?")

4. *Impersonal requests* (e.g., "*How about* meeting next week*?*")

Supportive Moves

The analysis also considered participants' use of *supportive moves* or *external modifications*, which can be used either before or after the head act to modify the head act externally. The CCSARP coding scheme classified supportive moves as either *mitigating* or *aggravating* supportive moves. Because this study's DCT situations

differed from those in the CCSARP, many supportive moves that were reported in the

CCSARP (e.g., threats and insults) were not observed. Moreover, the current

classification scheme included the coding of supportive moves (e.g., small talk, self-

introduction, and affective appeal) that were not coded in the CCSARP or as part of

Trosborg's (1995) coding schemes. Table 3 classifies the supportive moves that were

coded in this study.

<div align="center">*Internal Modifications*</div>

The last components of the DCT that was analyzed were *internal modifications*,

which are used to modify the head act internally. The CCSARP coding scheme

differentiates between two types of internal modifications: *downgraders* that mitigate the

force of the request and *upgraders* that add intensity to the request proper (see Table 4).

However, unlike speech acts such as complaints and apologies, requests do not typically

include upgraders; therefore, only the use of downgraders was examined. The

classification of internal modifications was based upon the research of Blum-Kulka et al.

(1989), House & Kasper (1981, 1987), and Trosborg (1995).

Table 3

Classification of Supportive Moves

Strategy	Definition	Examples
1. Preparator	The speaker prefaces the request by announcing that he/she will make a request by asking about the hearer's availability, asking for the hearer's permission to make the request, stating that the speaker has a problem, or stating that the speaker needs the hearer's help.	"Hey, *you had this management class, right*? I was hoping . . . ." "*I need a favor*, you are one of the few professors . . . ." "*Are you busy?* I was just wondering . . . ."
2. Grounder	The speaker gives reasons, explanations, or justifications for his/her request	"*I wasn't in class the other day because I was sick,* so I was wondering if I could borrow your notes."
3. Getting a pre-commitment	By negating a potential refusal before making a request, the speaker tries to commit the hearer before describing what the speaker wants the hearer to do.	"*Can you do me a favor?* I need you to post a sign on the door."
4. Disarmer	The speaker tries to remove any potential objections the hearer might raise upon being confronted with the request.	*"I know this is short notice,* but I'm backed up with work."
5. Promise of reward	The speaker offers a reward to increase the likelihood of the hearer's compliance with the request.	"Can I borrow your management book? *I'll buy you dinner.*"
6. Imposition minimizer	The speaker tries to reduce the imposition placed on the hearer by his/her request	"I was wondering if it were possible to borrow your notes**.** *I will return them in an orderly fashion."*

Table 3 (continued)

Strategy	Definition	Examples
7. Sweetener	The speaker tries to increase the likelihood of the hearer's compliance by complimenting the hearer or expressing exaggerated appreciation of the hearer's ability to comply with the request.	*"Today's class was great.* Would I be able to borrow the article you got the information from?"
8. Small talk	The speaker establishes a social bond with the hearer to pave a smooth path for issuing the incoming request.	"Hello sir, *how are you today?* May I ask you for a little help, sir?"
9. Appreciation	The speaker expresses his/her appreciation for the hearer's compliance with the request before it is performed.	"I (would) appreciate it." "Thank you.", "Thanks."
10. Self-introduction	The speaker introduces him/herself to the hearer before he/she makes a request.	"Hello, *my name is . . .* I was wondering if . . ." "Hey, *I'm in your politics class.* I was sick . . ."
11. Affective appeal	The speaker invokes the hearer's emotions or refers to the positive outcome of the request.	"I need to take a course in psychology in order to graduate. *Please help me to add it."*
12. Apology	The speaker apologizes to the hearer before making the request.	"*I'm sorry* I can't give you the lesson on Monday."

Table 4

Classification of Internal Modifications

Strategy	Definition	Examples
1. Politeness marker	An optional element added to a request to encourage cooperative behavior.	"Can I *please* have an extension on this paper?" "*Please* play somewhere else."
2. Play-down	A syntactic device used to tone down the perlocutionary effect that an utterance is likely to have on the hearer. It is usually in the past tense but contains a present time reference, a durative aspect marker, and negation.	I *wanted* to see if you could write me a recommendation letter." "I *was wondering* if I could join your study group."
3. Conditional clause	The requester distances his/her request from reality by adding a conditional clause.	". . . *if you have time.*" ". . . *if it doesn't bother you.*" ". . . *if you don't mind.*"
4. Subjectivizer	An element by which the speaker explicitly expresses his/her subjective opinion via the state of affairs referred to in the proposition, thus lowering the assertive force of the request.	"I think," "I suppose," "I'm afraid," "In my opinion," "I wonder" "*I wonder* if you can help me with my paper."
5. Embedding	The requester prefaces his/her request with a clause in which the request is embedded, thereby conveying his/her attitude toward the request by expressing hope, delight, thanks, etc. The embedding often occurs in connection with a conditional clause.	*"It'd be great* if you could put this on the door." *"I would really appreciate it* if we could delay our study session to another day."

Table 4 (continued)

Strategy	Definition	Examples
6. Understater	An adverbial modifier by means of which the speaker underrepresents the state of affairs denoted in the proposition.	"A little bit," "a few," "a little," "a second," "a minute," "a day," "a while" "Would you mind keeping it down a *little bit?*" "If you have *a minute,* could you help me with this stuff?"
7. Appealer	A discourse element, such as a tag, intended to appeal to the hearer's understanding.	"Okay," "right," "Don't you think?" "Will you?" "Aren't we?" "I need your computer to finish my assignments, *okay?*"
8. Downtoner/hedge	An adverbial sentence modifier that underrepresents the state of affairs or avoids a precise prepositional specification.	"Just," "possibly," "maybe," "simply," "perhaps," "rather," "kind of," "sort of," "quite," "somehow," "and so on," "some," "any," "more or less" "Could you *possibly* go somewhere else to play?" "Can you please help me out *just* this once?" "Is there *any* way I could get an extension?"
9. Consultative device	An element by means of which the speaker seeks to involve the hearer and bid for his/her cooperation.	"Would you mind if . . . ?" "Do you think . . . ?" "*Would you mind if* I studied with you guys?" "*Would you mind* lending me a hand?" "*Do you think* you can set me up with a letter of recommendation?"

Statistical Analysis

The Analysis was performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 16.0) and the Excel software program. The chi-square test, the most appropriate test for analyzing frequency data (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991), was performed on the DCT data to examine the degree of similarity and difference within the three groups' requestive behavior (i.e., level of directness and use of conventionally indirect strategies, perspective, and external and internal modifications). The Mann-Whitney test, a test of the nonparametric analysis of variance, was performed to examine the average level of directness used by the AE, JEFL, and JA participants in relation to social power and social distance, the 2 social variables employed in the DCT design. The Mann-Whitney test was chosen rather than an ANOVA because the directness data did not adhere to the assumption of normality required to perform parametric tests (e.g., ANOVAs and t-tests). One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed on the SRQ data to examine the three groups' sociopragmatic perception of contextual factors (i.e., the degree of difficulty, the degree of right, and the degree of obligation). The ANOVA was chosen for this examination because researchers have found it the appropriate statistical technique to use when examining the significance of group differences for one continuous dependent variable and one discrete independent variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

As suggested by Kasper (1992), the following criteria were used to establish the occurrence or absence of negative pragmatic transfer. *Negative pragmatic transfer* was operational if there was a significant statistical difference in the frequency of a certain pragmatic feature between the JA and AE groups and between the JEFL and AE groups and no statistically significant difference between the JA and JEFL groups. *Positive*

pragmatic transfer was operational if there was no statistically significant difference in the frequencies of a pragmatic feature between the L1, IL, and L2. The probability level for statistical significance was set at $p < .05$, the standard in the applied linguistics field (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991).

<div align="center">Coding Reliability</div>

A second rater coded 20% of the DCT data from each group to ensure the consistency of the implementation of the coding scheme. A native American English speaker who is an ESL instructor with 20 years of EFL experience coded the two sets of English data, the AE and JEFL data, whereas a native Jordanian Arabic speaker, a doctoral student with 5 years of EFL experience, coded the JA data. Prior to beginning the coding, a training session was conducted with the raters to familiarize them with the coding scheme and allow them to practice coding some data to ensure their comprehension of the task. After they had coded the data, a discussion session was conducted to review results. The interrater reliability was high; most interrater disagreements were resolved through discussion and review of the definitions in the coding manual.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the study in two main sections, each of which addresses one of the research questions. The first section discusses the JEFL, AE, and JA participants' performance of requests based on the results of the DCT, beginning with an analysis of level of directness before proceeding to a detailed analysis of conventional indirectness. The first section concludes by discussing the mitigation devices the participants used in their performance of requests (i.e., supportive moves and internal modifications). The second section presents the participants' sociopragmatic assessment of the 5 contextual variables of (a) degree of familiarity between the speaker and the hearer, (b) degree of social power that the speaker has over the hearer, (c) difficulty of making the request, (d) right of making the request, and (e) obligation to carry out the request.

A major part of the analysis of performance and perception data was conducted on the social categorical level, combining the 12 DCT situations into six social categories based on the systematic variation of social power (P) and social distance (D). The combination of the 2 variables yielded six social categories: category 1 (–P, +D), which includes situations 1 (paper extension) and 7 (adding a course); category 2 (=P, +D), which includes situations 2 (copying a notebook) and 8 (joining a study group); category 3 (+P, +D), which includes situations 3 (posting an announcement) and 9 (helping carry books); category 4 (–P, –D), which includes situations 4 (borrowing an article) and 12 (writing a recommendation); category 5 (=P, –D), which includes situations 5 (using a computer) and 10 (using a course book); and category 6 (+P, –D), which includes

situations 6 (cancelling a tutoring session) and 11 (playing someplace else; see pp. 61-64).

Further, the following criteria were used to establish the occurrence of negative pragmatic transfer in both performance and perception data. Negative pragmatic transfer was operational if there was a significant statistical difference in the frequency of a certain pragmatic feature between the JA and AE groups and between the JEFL and AE groups and no statistically significant difference between the JA and JEFL groups.

Performance of Requests

Level of Directness

One of the major concerns in this study was Jordanian EFL learners' *level of directness* compared to that of native American English speakers and native Jordanian Arabic speakers. According to Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper (1989), directness refers to "the degree to which the speaker's illocutionary intent is apparent from the locution" (p. 278). Blum-Kulka (1987) and Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) demonstrated that speakers across several languages use three main levels of directness: (a) *direct strategies*, which include mood derivable, explicit performative, hedged performative, and locution derivable strategies in addition to want statements; (b) *conventionally indirect strategies*, which include suggestory formula and query preparatory strategies; and (c) nonconventionally indirect strategies, which include strong and mild hints (see pp. 73-74).

The three groups of participants were in agreement regarding their *preference* of strategy; that is, all three preferred conventionally indirect strategies followed by direct strategies followed by nonconventionally indirect strategies. However, chi-square pair

comparisons revealed significant differences in the three groups' *use* of direct strategies and conventionally indirect strategies (see Table 5).

Table 5

Percentage, Raw Frequency, and Chi-Square Values of Level of Directness by Group

Level of directness	AE		JEFL		JA		AE - JEFL χ^2	AE - JA χ^2	JEFL - JA χ^2
	N	%	*N*	%	*N*	%			
D	60	(11.3)	172	(32.2)	228	(43.2)	54.069*	98.000*	7.840*
CI	447	(84.0)	345	(64.6)	284	(53.8)	13.136*	36.346*	5.916*
NCI	25	(4.7)	17	(3.2)	16	(3.0)	1.524	1.976	0.030
Total	532		534		528		0.004	0.015	0.034

Note. D = direct, CI = conventionally indirect, NCI = nonconventionally indirect, AE = native American English speakers, JEFL = Jordanian EFL learners, JA = native Jordanian Arabic speakers.

*$p < 0.05$

The JEFL group used direct strategies (e.g., "*Help* me carry these books, please" or "*I need* you to post this announcement") significantly less (32.2%) than did the JA group (43.2%) and significantly more than did the AE group (11.3%). The groups' use of conventionally indirect strategies (e.g., "*Can I* add the course?" or "*Is it possible* to borrow your notebook?") showed a trend opposite to that of their use of direct strategies; the JEFL group used conventionally indirect strategies significantly more (64.6%) than did the JA group (53.8%) and significantly less than did the AE group (84.0%). The JEFL participants' use of both direct and conventionally indirect strategies indicates a developmental pattern towards AE norms of speech while still under the strong influence

of Jordanian Arabic (L1) norms. However, claims of negative pragmatic transfer cannot be made since one major condition, that of no significant difference between the JEFL and JA groups, was not applicable.

The results (see Table 5) appear to indicate a relatively high overall level of directness in the performance of request speech acts in the JA and JEFL groups compared to the AE group. To confirm these findings, the mean level of directness for each group was compared within the six social categories by calculating the average directness for each group on a scale from 1 to 9 corresponding to the nine request strategies (see pp.73-74), with mood derivable request being *the most direct* (1) and mild hint being *the least direct* (9). Thus, the lower the average number, the more direct the group. Mann-Whitney pair comparisons of the mean rank of directness revealed significant differences in all six social categories (see Table 6).

As shown in Table 6, the JEFL group approximated the target culture's (the AE group's) mean directness level in two categories. In categories 3 and 5, the JEFL groups' mean directness ($MR = 71.39$ and 69.15, respectively) was not significantly different from that of the AE group ($MR = 82.56$ and 81.57, respectively) but significantly less than that of the JA group ($MR = 45.5$ and 48.78, respectively). Regarding the other four social categories, the JEFL group was significantly more direct than was AE group in category 1 ($MR = 59.33$ and 83.84, respectively), category 2 ($MR = 58.12$ and 87.74, respectively), category 4 ($MR = 62.52$ and 87.40, respectively), and category 6 ($MR = 61.60$ and 85.45, respectively). Interestingly, all the social categories for which the AE and JEFL groups had significant differences between them (i.e., categories 1, 2, 4, and 6) met the criteria for the occurrence of negative pragmatic transfer. That is, they all

Table 6

Mann-Whitney Comparisons of Mean Directness Levels by Group in the Six Social

Categories

Social category	AE MR	JEFL MR	JA MR	AE - JEFL Z	AE - JA Z	JEFL - JA Z
C1 (–P, +D)	83.84	59.33	53.64	–3.559*	–3.725*	–0.459**T**
C2 (=P, +D)	87.74	58.12	56.33	–4.642*	4.935*	–0.903**T**
C3 (+P, +D)	82.56	71.39	45.56	–1.787	–4.419*	–3.758*
C4 (–P, –D)	87.40	62.52	48.78	–3.896*	–5.327*	–1.637**T**
C5 (=P, –D)	81.57	69.15	49.58	-1.861	4.125*	–2.717*
C6 (+P, –D)	85.45	61.60	52.44	–3.472*	–4.164*	–1.430**T**

Note. C = category, P = social power, D = social distance. AE = native American English speakers, JEFL = native Jordanian EFL learners, JA = native Jordanian Arabic Speakers. C1 = S1: paper extension and S7: adding a course, C2 = S2: copying a notebook and S8: joining a study group, C3 = S3: posting an announcement and S9: helping carry books, C4 = S4: borrowing an article and S12: writing a recommendation, C5 = S5: using a computer and S10: using a course book, C6 = S6: cancelling a tutoring session and S11: playing someplace else. **T** indicates the occurrence of negative pragmatic transfer. *$p < 0.05$

indicated statistically significant differences between the JA and AE groups and between the JEFL and AE groups and the absence of statistically significant differences between the JA and JEFL groups (see Table 6).

The results shown in Tables 5 and 6 indicate that the JEFL and JA participants' tendency towards higher levels of directness compared with the AE participants is not dependent on the characteristic of the situation but is rather a systematic pattern throughout most of the social categories. Curiously, this pattern also persists in categories 1 and 4, where the speaker has less social power relative to the hearer (–P). This Jordanian (JA and JEFL) tendency for greater directness contradicts the linear relationship assumed to exist between indirectness and politeness (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Leech, 1983). Consider the following examples from the JEFL and JA participants in –P situations:

1. "I have lots of homework and won't be able to finish, so *I need to postpone my final paper*" (S1, JEFL # 2).

2. "Hello doctor, I'm applying for the master program**,** *I want you to write a recommendation letter*" (S12, JEFL # 25).

3. marHaba duktoor, law samaHt *biddi minnak maqaalit -iddiin wiθθaqaafa* la?innu -lmawdhuu3 3ajabni kθiir

   "Hello professor, *I want the Religion and Culture article* because I really liked the topic . . . " (S4, JA, #3).

Directness by Contextual Variables

The mean directness level was further investigated in relation to social power and social distance. As shown in Table 7, Mann-Whitney pair comparisons of +P vs. =P, +P vs. –P, and =P vs. –P indicated that the JA

Table 7

Mann-Whitney Comparisons of Influence of Social Power on Average Level of Directness by Group

Group	+P MR	=P MR	–P MR	+P/= P Z	+P/–P Z	=P/–P Z
AE	50.39	75.41	73.70	–3.160*	–2.961*	–0.253
JEFL	52.77	76.99	69.74	–2.889*	–2.180*	–0.995
JA	49.28	67.23	82.99	–3.914*	–2.429*	–2.172*

Note. AE = native American English Speakers, JEFL = Jordanian EFL learners, JA = native Jordanian Arabic speakers. (+P) = speaker has more social power than hearer (S > H), (= P) = speaker and hearer have equal social power (S = H), (–P) = speaker has less social power than hearer (S< H). *MR* = Mean rank.

*$p < 0.05$

participants significantly shifted their directness level according to the three power relations. Specifically, they were most direct in high power situations (+P), where the speaker has more power than the hearer, followed by equal power situations (=P), where the speaker and hearer have equal power, and least direct in low power situations (–P), where the speaker has less power than the hearer (see Table 7).

In contrast, the AE and JEFL groups showed a similar trend in shifting their directness according to social power. Both groups were significantly more direct in high power situations than in either equal power or low power situations. Contrary to the JA participants, both the AE and JEFL participants used the same level of directness in equal power and low power situations.

Table 8 shows that familiarity did not seem to be a significant factor in social distance (i.e., familiarity) for the JA participants, who used the same level of directness more or less equivalently, whether requesting from familiar or unfamiliar interlocutors. Conversely, both the AE and JEFL participants were significantly more direct when requesting from familiar than from unfamiliar interlocutors.

Table 8

Mann-Whitney Comparisons of Influence of Social Distance on Average Level of Directness by Group

	Familiar	Unfamiliar	Familiar–Unfamiliar
Group	*MR*	*MR*	*MR*
AE	36.67	52.33	–3.012*
JEFL	38.86	50.14	–2.078*
JA	43.10	45.90	–0.515

Note. AE = native American English speakers, JEFL = Jordanian EFL learners, JA = native Jordanian Arabic speakers. Familiar = speaker and hearer know each other, unfamiliar = speaker and hearer do not know each other. *MR* = Mean rank.

*$p < 0.05$

Summary of Level of Directness

This section has presented the findings regarding the three groups' level of directness. Within this general question, the occurrence of negative pragmatic transfer and the influence of contextual variables were also explored. Overall, the JEFL participants used more direct strategies and less conventionally indirect strategies than did the AE participants. The influence of the L1, negative pragmatic transfer, was most

apparent in the JA and JEFL participants' tendency towards higher levels of directness compared with the AE participants. As for the influence of contextual variables, the JEFL participants were similar to the AE participants in adjusting their level of directness according to social power and social distance. The following section presents a detailed analysis of the three groups' use of conventionally indirect requests.

<div align="center">*Use of Conventional Indirectness*</div>

The findings (see Tables 5 and 6) indicate that in the majority of situations, the three groups prefer conventionally indirect to direct and nonconventionally indirect requests. This finding supports Blum-Kulka's (1989) claim that conventional indirectness is manifested across several languages, indicating that its use is universal. Because the JEFL participants used conventionally indirect requests in 64.6% of the study situations, they appear to exhibit a developmental pattern between that of the JA participants, who used conventionally indirect requests in 53.8% of the situations, and the AE participants, who used conventionally indirect requests in 84.0% of the situations. Based on this finding, further analysis was conducted to determine whether the JEFL participants' macro-level development towards the speech norms of native American English speakers is also prevalent in their use of conventionally indirect strategies and their request perspective.

Conventionally Indirect Request Strategies

The categorization of conventionally indirect strategies followed Mir's (1994) and Blum-Kulka's (1989) coding schemes, particularly Blum-Kulka's distinction between *conventions of means* and *conventions of form*. Blum-Kulka defined conventions of means as "the kinds of sentences that are standardly used as indirect requests" (p. 41).

For example, a main convention of means in English is that a speaker can initiate a request by questioning the hearer's ability, as in the request "Can you give me your book?" On the other hand, conventions of form specify the linguistic forms and the exact wording used, such as the choice to ask "Can you?" rather than "Are you able to?" or "Would you be able to?" The analysis revealed five conventions of means: *ability* (e.g., "Could you . . . ?" or "Would you be able . . . ?"), *permission* (e.g., "Can I . . . ?" or "May I . . . ?"), *possibility* (e.g., "Is it possible . . . ?" or "Would it be possible . . . ?"), *willingness* (e.g., "Will you . . . ?" or "Would you mind…?"), and *suggestion* (e.g., "How about . . . ?").

As shown in Table 9, the three groups of participants differed in their preferred conventions of means. Whereas the AE participants preferred permission strategies, the JEFL participants preferred possibility strategies and the JA participants preferred ability strategies. Most importantly, Chi-square pair comparisons revealed significant differences in their use of ability, permission, possibility, and willingness strategies (see Table 9).

The JEFL participant's use of conventions of means did not follow a specific pattern. Negative pragmatic transfer in their performance was only apparent in their use of willingness strategies (e.g., "*Do you mind* if I borrow your book?"). Both the JEFL (8.1%) and JA (6%) participants used willingness significantly less than did the AE participants (25.7%). The JEFL participants' use of ability (e.g., "*Can you* help me with these books?") and possibility (e.g., "*Is it possible* to delay our meeting?") strategies took a different pattern from the two native speakers' groups. Whereas the JEFL participants used ability strategies (55.7%) significantly more than did the AE (19.2%) and JA

(11.3%) participants, the JEFL participants tended to use possibility strategies (0.6%)

significantly less than did the AE (15.4%) and JA (48.6 %) participants. Contrary to this

Table 9

Percentage, Raw Frequency, and Chi-Square Values of Conventions of Means by Group

Convention of means	AE		JEFL		JA		AE - JEFL χ^2	AE - JA χ^2	JEFL - JA χ^2
	N	%	N	%	N	%			
Ability	86	(19.2)	192	(55.7)	32	(11.3)	40.417*	24.712*	114.286*
Permission	172	(38.5)	120	(34.8)	87	(30.6)	9.260*	27.896*	5.261*
Possibility	69	(15.4)	2	(0.6)	138	(48.6)	63.225*	23.000*	132.114*
Willingness	115	(25.7)	28	(8.1)	17	(6.0)	52.930*	72.758*	2.689**T**
Suggestion	5	(1.1)	3	(0.9)	10	(3.5)	0.500	1.667	3.769
Total	447		345		284		13.136*	36.346*	5.916*

Note. AE = native American English speakers, JEFL = Jordanian EFL learners, JA =

native Jordanian Arabic speakers. **T** indicates the occurrence of negative pragmatic

transfer.

p < 0.05

finding, the JEFL participants' use of permission strategies (34.8%; e.g., "*Could I*

borrow your notebook?") seems to show a developmental pattern towards the target

culture's norms while still under the influence of the L1; specifically, they used

permission strategies significantly more than did the JA participants (30.6%) and

significantly less than did the AE participants (38.5%).

Closer examination also revealed substantial differences in the preferred linguistic

forms used by the three groups (see Table 10).

Table 10

Percentage and Raw Frequency of Conventions of Form by Group

Convention of form	AE		JEFL		JA	
	N	%	*N*	%	*N*	%
Ability						
Can you . . .?	38	(8.5)	141	(40.9)	31	(10.9)
Could you . . .?	43	(9.6)	51	(14.8)	0	(0.0)
Would you be able . . .?	5	(1.1)	0	(0.0)	0	(0.0)
Permission						
Can I . . .?	87	(19.5)	78	(22.6)	89	(31.3)
Could I . . .?	62	(13.9)	7	(2.0)	0	(0.0)
May I . . .?	13	(2.9)	35	(10.1)	0	(0.0)
Would I be able . . .?	10	(2.2)	0	(0.0)	0	(0.0)
Possibility						
Is it possible/okay . . .?	27	(6.0)	2	(0.6)	96	(33.8)
Would it be possible/okay…?	16	(3.6)	0	(0.0)	0	(0.0)
Is there any way . . .?	26	(5.8)	0	(0.0)	41	(14.4)
Willingness						
Will you . . .?	2	(0.4)	13	(3.8)	15	(5.3)
Would you . . .?	23	(5.1)	8	(2.3)	0	(0.0)
Would you mind . . .?	44	(9.8)	6	(1.7)	0	(0.0)
Do you mind . . .?	46	(10.3)	1	(0.3)	2	(0.7)
Suggestion						
How about . . . ?	3	(0.7)	2	(0.6)	7	(2.5)
Let us	2	(0.4)	1	(0.3)	3	(1.1)
Total	447		345		284	

Note. AE = native American English speakers, JEFL = Jordanian EFL learners, JA = native Jordanian Arabic speakers.

Table 10 shows that the AE participants tended to make use of a wide range of linguistic forms in relatively similar proportions. Their most frequently used forms were "Can I . . . ?" (19.5%), "Could I . . . ?" (13.9%), "Do you mind . . . ?" (10.3%), "Would you mind . . . ?" (9.8%), and "Could you . . . ?" (9.6%). The following are some examples taken from the AE data:

4. "Hey, *can I* borrow your course book for this semester?" (S10, AE # 23).

5. "*Do you mind* if we meet Wednesday night instead?" (S6, AE # 12).

6. "*Would you mind if* I studied with you guys?" (S8, AE # 28).

Conversely, the JEFL participants largely centered their use of conventions on two or three linguistic forms they used in a different order of preference than did the AE participants, most notably "Can you . . . ?" (40.9 %) and, to a lesser extent, "Can I . . . ?" (22.6%) and "Could you . . . ?" (14.8%). Interestingly, this difference is not transfer induced because the JA participants' use of conventions of form in requests such as "Is it (possible/okay) . . . ?" (33.8%), "Can I . . . ?" (31%), and "Is there (any) way . . . ?" (14.4 %) tended to differ from that of the AE and JEFL participants. Thus, the JEFL participants' performance in terms of conventions of means and form is best described as *interlanguage specific*. The following are examples taken from the JA and JEFL data:

7. "Can you give me extra time?" (S1, JEFL # 3).

8. "*Can I* borrow your management book?" (S10, JEFL # 35).

9. "*Could you* please play somewhere else?" (S11, JEFL # 1).

10. *mumkin* duktoor ta3Tiini muwaafaqa ?adhiif -ilmaadda 3indak
    "Professor, *is it possible* to give me your approval to add this course?" (S7, JA #12).

11. *bagdar* ?asta3iir daftarak saa3it zaman
     "*Can I* borrow your notebook for an hour?" (S2, JA #16).

12. *fii majaal* ?andham lilmajmuu3a tab3atku
     "*Is there a way* I can join your study group?" (S8, JA #26).

Request Perspective

The choice of perspective presents an important source of variation in requests. In making a request, a speaker may choose to emphasize the role of the speaker (e.g., "Can *I* postpone the meeting?"), the role of the hearer (e.g., "Can *you* give me a hand?"), the role of both interlocutors (e.g., "Can *we* study together?"), or neither interlocutor (e.g., "*How about* meeting next week?"; Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989, p. 19). Hence, a request strategy can be speaker oriented, hearer oriented, inclusive, or impersonal. Furthermore, according to Blum-Kulka (1989), request perspective can be used as a mitigating device. Since requests are face threatening, avoiding naming the agent (i.e., using non-hearer-oriented perspectives) of the action can soften the impositive force of a request and reduce its level of coerciveness.

Contrary to their use of conventions of means and form, the JEFL participants' perspective showed marked L1 influence. Table 11 shows that the JEFL and JA participants shared a preference for hearer-oriented perspective ($n = 222$ and $n = 181$, respectively) over nonhearer-oriented perspective ($n = 123$, $n = 103$, respectively). The AE participants, on the other hand, clearly preferred nonhearer-oriented ($n = 245$) over hearer-oriented ($n = 202$) perspective. Chi-square pair comparisons of each type of perspective revealed significant differences in the use of all four perspectives (see Table 11) .

Table 11

Percentage, Raw Frequency, and Chi-square Values of Perspective by Group

Perspective	AE N	AE %	JEFL N	JEFL %	JA N	JA %	AE - JEFL χ^2	AE - JA χ^2	JEFL - JA χ^2
Speaker orientated	205	(45.9)	118	(34.2)	92	(32.4)	23.433*	42.993*	3.219**T**
Hearer orientated	202	(45.2)	222	(64.3)	181	(63.7)	0.943	1.151	4.171*
Inclusive	21	(4.7)	3	(0.9)	8	(2.8)	13.500*	5.828*	2.273**T**
Impersonal	19	(4.3)	2	(0.6)	3	(1.1)	13.762*	11.636*	0.200**T**
Total	447		345		284		12.188*	34.774*	5.916*

Note. AE = native American English speakers, JEFL = Jordanian EFL learners, JA = native Jordanian Arabic speakers. **T** indicates the occurrence of negative pragmatic transfer.

*p < 0.05

Table 11 indicates that the JEFL participants approximated the speech norms of the target language only when they used hearer-oriented perspective. Whereas there was no significant differences between the JEFL ($n = 222$) and the AE ($n = 202$) groups, both used hearer-oriented perspective significantly more than did the JA group ($n = 181$). On the other hand, the JEFL participants' use of speaker-oriented ($n = 118$), inclusive ($n = 3$), and impersonal ($n = 2$) perspectives was approximately similar to that of the JA participants ($n = 92$, $n = 8$, and $n = 3$, respectively) and significantly less than that of the AE participants ($n = 205$, $n = 21$, and $n = 19$, respectively), indicating that negative

pragmatic transfer was operational in the JEFL participants' use of speaker-oriented, inclusive, and impersonal perspectives.

Summary of Conventional Indirectness

This section has investigated the three groups' use of conventional indirectness as it pertained to conventions of means and form, the request perspective, and the occurrence of negative pragmatic transfer. Overall, the JEFL participants' use of conventions of means and form tended to deviate from that of both the AE and JEFL participants, leading them to develop a specific interlanguage pattern of their own. The JEFL participants' use of perspective showed an opposite pattern; the JEFL and JA participants' preference for hearer-oriented to nonhearer-oriented perspective, as well as their use of individual perspectives, indicated the presence of negative pragmatic transfer. The following section presents a detailed analysis of the three groups' use of supportive moves.

Supportive Moves

Supportive moves, utterances used to mitigate or aggravate the force of a request, can be manifested at the clause or sentence level and precede or follow the head act. The categories of supportive moves were developed based on Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper (1989) and Trosborg (1995) coding schemes. However, new categories were added (e.g., small talk, affective appeals, and self-introductions) based on the responses of current study participants. Because aggravating supportive moves (threats and insults) did not occur in this study, only mitigating supportive moves were addressed. The final coding revealed that the study participants used 12 supportive moves: preparators, grounders, pre-commitments, disarmers, promises of reward, imposition minimizers,

sweeteners, small talk, expressions of appreciation, self-introduction, affective appeals, and apologies.

Overall Use of Supportive Moves

Table 12 indicates that the JEFL participants ($n = 601$) used supportive moves significantly more than did the AE participants ($n = 532$) and significantly less than did the JA participants ($n = 738$), indicating both native and target language influence. Further, chi-square pair comparisons of the six social categories revealed significant differences in categories 3, 4, and 5.

As shown in Table 12, the JEFL participants' use of supportive moves followed three different patterns. In category 3, the JEFL participants' use of supportive moves (6.2%) was significantly less than that of both the AE (11.8%) and JA (9.2%) participants. In category 4, the JEFL participants occupied a midway position, using supportive moves (18.3%) significantly more than did the AE participants (12.0%) but significantly less than did the JA participants (21.7%). As previously discussed, this pattern indicates progress towards the target culture's norms while still under the influence of the L1. The criteria for the occurrence of negative pragmatic transfer were met in category 5; while there were no significant differences between the JA (13.1%) and JEFL (14.5%) groups, both groups used supportive moves significantly more than did the AE group (11.1%).

Table 12

Percentage, Raw Frequency, and Chi-Square Values of Total Number of Supportive

Moves in the Six Social Categories

Social category	AE		JEFL		JA		AE - JEFL	AE - JA	JEFL - JA
	N	%	N	%	N	%	χ^2	χ^2	χ^2
C1 (–P, +D)	137	(25.8)	141	(23.5)	161	(21.8)	0.004	1.613	1.769
C2 (=P, +D)	116	(21.8)	117	(19.5)	142	(19.2)	0.004	1.117	2.837
C3 (+P, +D)	63	(11.8)	37	(6.2)	68	(9.2)	8.495*	2.495	10.573*
C4 (–P, –D)	64	(12.0)	110	(18.3)	160	(21.7)	10.256*	37.689*	10.521*
C5 (= P, –D)	59	(11.1)	87	(14.5)	97	(13.1)	4.310*	9.139*	1.633**T**
C6 (+P, –D)	93	(17.5)	109	(18.1)	110	(14.9)	0.841	1.803	0.041
Total	532		601		738		4.202*	33.414*	14.017*

Note. C = category, P = social power, D = social distance. AE = native American English, speakers, JEFL = native Jordanian EFL learners, JA = native Jordanian Arabic speakers. C1 = S1: paper extension and S7: adding a course, C2 = S2: copying a notebook and S8: joining a study group, C3 = S3: posting an announcement and S9: helping carry books, C4 = S4: borrowing an article and S12: writing a recommendation, C5 = S5: using a computer and S10: using a course book, C6 = S6: cancelling a tutoring session and S11: playing someplace else. **T** indicates the occurrence of negative pragmatic transfer. *$p < 0.05$

Supportive Moves by Contextual Variables

The effect of the contextual variables of social power and social distance/familiarity on the three groups' use of supportive moves was also examined. As shown in Table 13, chi-square pair comparisons of + P vs. = P, +P vs. –P, and = P vs. –P situations revealed that both the JA and JEFL participants significantly changed their use of supportive moves according to the three power relations, employing significantly more supportive moves in low power situations (–P) followed by equal power situations (= P) and finally high power (+P) situations.

Table 13

Influence of Social Power on Use of Supportive Moves by Group

Group	+P		=P		–P		+P/= P χ^2	+P/–P χ^2	=P/–P χ^2
	N	%	*N*	%	*N*	%			
AE	156	(29.3)	174	(32.7)	202	(38.0)	0.970	5.0756*	2.063
JEFL	147	(24.5)	204	(33.9)	250	(41.6)	8.335*	27.8760*	5.682*
JA	178	(24.1)	239	(32.4)	321	(43.5)	8.923*	37.5930*	12.007*

Note. AE = native American English speakers, JEFL = Jordanian EFL learners, JA = native Jordanian Arabic speakers. (+P) = speaker has more social power than hearer (S > H), (=P) = speaker and hearer have equal social power (S = H), (–P) = speaker has less social power than hearer (S < H).

*p < 0.05

The AE participants, on the other hand, were influenced less by social power than were the Jordanian groups of participants. The AE participants used significantly more supportive moves in low power situations (–P) than in high power situations (+P).

However, they did not significantly change their frequency of supportive moves between high power situations and equal power situations (+P vs. = P) or between equal power situations and low power situations (=P vs. –P; see Table 13).

Regarding social distance/familiarity, chi-square pair comparisons showed that the AE participants used significantly more supportive moves when requesting from a familiar than from an unfamiliar interlocutor. In contrast, both the JEFL and JA groups used approximately the same number of supportive moves, whether requesting from familiar or unfamiliar interlocutors, indicating that both groups showed no sensitivity to social distance (see Table 14)

Table 14

Influence of Social Distance on Use of Supportive Moves by Group

	Familiar		Unfamiliar		Familiar–Unfamiliar
Group	N	%	N	%	χ^2
AE	216	(40.6)	316	(59.4)	18.587*
JEFL	306	(50.9)	295	(49.1)	0.062
JA	367	(49.7)	371	(50.3)	0.022

Note. AE = native American English speakers, JEFL = Jordanian EFL learners, JA = native Jordanian Arabic speakers. Familiar = speaker and hearer know each other, unfamiliar = speaker and hearer do not know each other.

*p < 0.05

Supportive Moves by Strategy Type

A significant factor is all three groups' preference for using grounders (e.g., *"I was sick and didn't attend class*, would it be possible to borrow your notebook?"*);

Table 15

Percentage, Raw Frequency, and Chi-Square Values of Supportive Moves by Group

Supportive move	AE		JEFL		JA		AE - JEFL	AE - JA	JEFL - JA
	N	%	N	%	N	%	χ^2	χ^2	χ^2
Preparator	36	(6.8)	33	(5.5)	88	(11.9)	1.209	19.841*	25.000*
Grounder	337	(63.3)	362	(60.2)	370	(50.1)	0.755	1.355	0.087
Pre-commitment	19	(3.4)	8	(1.5)	7	(0.9)	4.481*	5.538*	0.250**T**
Disarmer	17	(3.2)	4	(0.7)	7	(0.9)	9.800*	4.167*	1.600**T**
Reward	4	(0.8)	1	(0.2)	4	(0.5)	1.800	0.000	1.800
Imposition minimizer	10	(1.9)	23	(3.8)	44	(6.0)	5.121*	21.407*	14.254*
Sweetener	9	(1.7)	6	(1.0)	12	(1.6)	0.600	0.429	2.000
Small Talk	3	(0.6)	39	(6.5)	66	(8.9)	22.091*	57.522*	13.500*
Appreciation	27	(5.3)	31	(5.2)	60	(8.1)	0.170	12.517*	9.242*
Introduction	40	(7.5)	31	(5.2)	25	(3.4)	1.658	3.462	0.643
Appeal	10	(1.9)	15	(2.3)	18	(2.4)	1.000	2.286	0.500
Apology	20	(3.8)	48	(8.0)	37	(5.0)	12.188*	5.070*	1.424**T**
Total	532		601		738		1.729	29.073*	16.695*

Note. AE = native American English speakers, JEFL = Jordanian EFL learners, JA = native Jordanian Arabic speakers. **T** indicates the occurrence of negative pragmatic transfer.

*p < 0.05

indeed, they were the most frequently used supportive moves by all three groups (see Table 15). Several researchers (e.g., Faerch & Kasper, 1989; House & Kasper, 1987, Hassall, 2001; Trosborg, 1995) have also shown that giving reasons, explanations, and justifications for an action seems to be conventionalized across several languages and cultures. Despite the groups' preference for grounders, chi-square pair comparisons of the 12 supportive moves revealed significant differences in their use of preparators, expressions of appreciation, pre-commitments, disarmers, imposition minimizers, small talk, and apologies (see Table 15).

Table 15 shows that the JEFL participants approximated the norms of the AE participants in their use of preparators (e.g., "I need a favor . . ."; 5.5% and 6.8%, respectively) and appreciation (e.g., "I'd really appreciate your help"; 5.2% and 5.3%, respectively). A less progressive trend can be seen in the JEFL participants' use of imposition minimizers (e.g., "I'll take care of the book"; 3.8%) and small talk (e.g., "Hello doctor, how are you?"; 8.9%). Their use of these strategies occupied a position midway between that of the AE participants (1.9% and 0.6%, respectively) and the JA participants (6.0% and 8.9%, respectively), which indicates both target and native language influence.

Negative pragmatic transfer also had a major role in the JEFL participants' use of supportive moves, particularly their use of pre-commitments (e.g., "*Would you mind doing me a huge favor*? I can't make it . . . ."), disarmers (e.g., "*I understand the deadline is today*, but I was wondering . . . ."), and apologies (e.g., "I'm really sorry to come without an appointment . . . ."). As shown in Table 15, both the JEFL and JA participants used pre-commitments (1.5% and 0.9%, respectively) and disarmers (0.4% and 0.9%,

respectively) significantly less than did the AE participants (3.4% and 3.2%, respectively). There were no significant differences between the JEFL and JA participants' use of these strategies, which confirms the occurrence of negative pragmatic transfer. The JEFL (8%) and JA (5%) participants used apologies significantly more than did the AE participants (3.8%). There were no significant differences between the JEFL and JA participants' use of apologies, which further confirms the occurrence of negative pragmatic transfer.

Thus far, the analysis of supportive moves, overall or by individual strategy, indicates that the JEFL participants tended to use more supportive strategies than did the AE participants (see Tables 12 and 15), leading their requests to be longer than those produced by members of the target culture. Consider the following examples:

13. Good morning doc, *I am taking a class with you this semester* (self-introduction) and you mentioned during the class an article about "Religion and Culture." *I went to the library but I did not find it there* (grounder). Can I take it and copy it, please, and *I will return it soon* (promise of return)" (S4, JEFL, #7).

14. "Excuse me doctor, but if you don't mind, will you give me more time to hand you the paper? *I will be so grateful if you do* (appreciation) because *I had many assignments and I couldn't finish the paper on time* (grounder)" (S1, JEFL #25).

15. "*They don't have that article in the library* (grounder). Do you think I could borrow it for a day?" (S4, AE #19).

16. "Hi professor, *I feel as if I need more time to complete the assignment* (grounder). May I receive an extension?" (S1, AE #32).

Summary of Supportive Moves

This section has presented the three groups' use of supportive moves and explored the influence of social power and social distance on their use. Overall, the JEFL participants used significantly more supportive moves than did the AE participants, a

tendency that was observed for two of the six social categories. The JEFL participants

exhibited three patterns in their use of supportive moves: they approximated American

English norms in their use of preparators and expressions of appreciation; they showed

both native and target language influence in their use of imposition minimizers and

small talk; and they showed clear negative pragmatic transfer in their use of disarmers,

apologies, and pre-commitments. Negative pragmatic transfer was also evident in the

effect of contextual variables; whereas the Jordanian (JA and JEFL) participants

showed more sensitivity to social status, the AE participants' use of supportive moves

was influenced more by social distance than social power. The following section

presents a detailed analysis of the three groups' use of internal modifications.

Internal Modifications

Internal modifications are "elements within the request utterance proper (linked to

the head act), the presence of which is not essential for the utterance to be potentially

understood as a request" (Blum-Kulka 1989, p. 60). Such modifications are seen as

having a dual sociopragmatic role; they may act as either *downgraders* to mitigate the

force of the request or *upgraders* to intensify its force. Contrary to other speech acts (e.g.,

complaints or apologies), requests do not typically contain many upgraders; thus, only

downgraders were included in this study. Researchers have identified two types of

downgraders: *syntactic downgraders*, which include play-downs, embedding, and

conditionals, and *lexical/phrasal downgraders*, which include the politeness marker,

subjectivizers, understaters, appealers, downtoners/hedges, and consultative devices.

In addition, only the JEFL and AE groups were considered in the coding of

internal modifications. As explained by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989), the coding of internal

modifications in the CCSARP was valid mainly for English, and perhaps other Germanic languages as well as the Romance languages. Typologically different languages, such as Arabic, are likely to depend on different structural properties to signal their mitigating function, requiring them to be coded separately. Due to the fact that Jordanian EFL learners are my research focus, the JA participants were not considered in the current section (see Huang, 1996; Suh, 1998 for similar consideration).

Overall Use of Internal Modifications

The JEFL participants used internal modifications in a pattern completely opposite to that of their use of supportive moves. As shown in Table 16, chi-square comparisons of the JEFL and AE participants' overall use of internal modifications revealed that the JEFL participants ($n = 262$) used significantly fewer modifications than did the AE participants ($n = 336$). Chi-square comparisons of the two groups' use of internal modifications in the six social categories confirmed this tendency towards less modification on the social categorical level by revealing that the AE participants used significantly more internal modifications than did the JEFL participants in category 1 (24.7% and 17.9%, respectively), category 2 (19.3% and 16.8%, respectively), and category 6 (14% and 11.1%, respectively).

Table 16

Percentage, Raw Frequency, and Chi-Square Values of Total Use of Internal

Modifications in the Six Social Categories

	AE		JA		AE-JEFL
Social category	N	%	N	%	χ^2
C1 (–P, +D)	83	(24.7)	47	(17.9)	11.281*
C2 (=P, +D)	65	(19.3)	44	(16.8)	4.046*
C3 (+P, +D)	51	(15.2)	54	(20.6)	0.038
C4 (–P, –D)	52	(15.5)	45	(17.2)	0.667
C5 (= P, –D)	38	(11.3)	44	(16.8)	0.309
C6 (+P, –D)	47	(14.0)	29	(11.1)	4.263*
Total	336		262		9.157*

Note. C = category, P = social power, D = social distance. AE = native American English

speakers, JEFL = native Jordanian EFL learners, JA = native Jordanian Arabic speakers.

C1 = S1: paper extension and S7: adding a course, C2 = S2: copying a notebook and S8:

joining a study group, C3 = S3: posting an announcement and S9: helping carry books,

C4 = S 4: borrowing an article and S12: writing a recommendation, C5 = S5: using a

computer and S10: using a course book, C6 = S6: cancelling a tutoring session and S11:

playing someplace else.

*$p < 0.05$

Internal Modifications by Contextual Variables

The effect of the contextual variables of social power and social distance on the three groups' use of internal modifications was also examined. Chi-square pair comparisons of + P vs. = P, +P vs. –P, and = P vs. –P situations indicated that the AE participants used significantly more internal modifications in low power situations (–P) than in equal power (=P) and high power situations (+P). However, the AE participants did not vary their use of internal modifications between high power and equal power situations. In contrast, social power did not seem to influence the JEFL participants' use of internal modifications in any of the situations (see Table 17)

Table 17

Influence of Social Power on Use of Internal Modifications by Group

| | +P | | =P | | –P | | +P/= P χ^2 | +P/–P χ^2 | =P/–P χ^2 |
Group	*N*	%	*N*	%	*N*	%			
AE	98	(29.2)	103	(30.7)	135	(40.2)	0.046	5.876*	4.021*
JEFL	83	(33.6)	88	(31.7)	91	(34.7)	0.368	0.497	0.022

Note. AE = native American English speakers, JEFL = Jordanian EFL learners, JA = native Jordanian Arabic speakers. (+P) = speaker has more social power than hearer (S > H), (=P) = speaker and hearer have equal social power (S = H), (–P) = speaker has less social power than hearer (S < H).

*p < 0.05

Chi-square pair comparisons of social distance/familiarity indicated that the AE participants used significantly more internal modifications when requesting from familiar than from unfamiliar interlocutors. Although the JEFL participants used more

modifications when requesting from unfamiliar than familiar interlocutors, this difference did not reach a threshold level of significance ($p < 0.05$; see Table 18).

Table 18

Influence of Social Distance on Use of Internal Modifications by Group

Group	Familiar		Unfamiliar		Familiar–Unfamiliar
	N	%	N	%	χ^2
AE	199	(59.2)	137	(40.8)	11.777*
JEFL	144	(55.0)	118	(45.5)	2.580

Note. AE = native American English speakers, JEFL = Jordanian EFL learners, JA = native Jordanian Arabic speakers. Familiar = speaker and hearer know each other, unfamiliar = speaker and hearer do not know each other.

*$p < 0.05$

Internal Modifications by Strategy Type

A detailed analysis was carried out to investigate whether the two groups differ in their use of the different types of internal modifications. As shown in Table 19, the JEFL and AE participants differed in their preference of strategies as well as their frequency of use. Of the nine modifiers identified, the JEFL participants overwhelmingly relied on the politeness marker "please" and to a lesser extent the conditional. As these two strategies constituted around 90% of the total internal modifications that the JEFL participants used, their use of other internal modifications was largely marginal. The AE participants, on the other hand, preferred consultative devices to all other strategies, followed by play-downs, the politeness marker, and downtoners/hedges in almost equal measure (see Table 19).

Table 19

Percentage, Raw Frequency, and Chi-Square Values of Internal Modifications by Group

Internal modification	AE N	AE %	JA N	JA %	AE-JEFL χ^2
Politeness marker	53	(15.8)	207	(79.0)	92.050*
Play-down	62	(18.5)	3	(1.1)	51.571*
Conditional	14	(4.2)	30	(11.5)	5.818*
Subjectivizer	1	(0.3)	4	(1.5)	1.800
Embedding	7	(2.1)	2	(0.8)	2.778
Understater	30	(8.9)	1	(0.4)	26.133*
Appealer	1	(0.3)	2	(0.8)	0.333
Downgrader/hedge	51	(15.2)	5	(1.9)	36.818*
Consultative device	117	(34.8)	8	(3.1)	93.081*
Total	336		262		7.570*

Note. AE = native American English speakers, JEFL = Jordanian EFL learners, JA = native Jordanian Arabic speakers.

*p < 0.05

As shown in Table 19, chi-square comparisons of the nine internal modifiers revealed significant differences between the JEFL and AE participants in their use of the politeness marker, conditional clauses, consultative devices, play-downs, downtoners/hedges, and understaters. As expected, the JEFL participants used the politeness marker "please" significantly more than did the AE participants (79% vs. 15.8%, respectively). Other researchers (e.g., Blum-Kulka, 1987; Faerch & Kasper, 1989; House & Kasper, 1987; Hill, 1997) have attested to language learners' overuse of

the politeness marker. According to House and Kasper, learners' preference for the politeness marker can be explained by its double function; specifically, "on the one hand, it signals politeness and thus serves as a mitigation device; on the other, it functions as an illocutionary force indicator clearly signaling the requestive force of the locution" (p. 1274). The JEFL participants also produced significantly more conditional clauses than did the AE participants (11.5% vs. 4.2%, respectively). The following are some examples provided by the JEFL participants:

17. "Can I copy your notebook, *please* (politeness marker)" (S2, JEFL #6)

18. "*Please* (politeness marker, I want to join your study group"
(S8, JEFL#15)

19. "*If you don't mind* (conditional), can I use your computer to finish my assignment?"(S5, JEFL #32)

Regarding the other four strategies that showed significant differences, the AE participants used significantly more consultative devices (e.g., "Do you think . . . ?" or "Would you mind if . . . ?"; 34.8% and 3.1%, respectively), play-downs (e.g., "I was wondering if . . . ?"; 18.5% and 1.1%, respectively), downgraders/hedges (e.g., "could you *possibly* go play somewhere else…?"; 51.2% and 1.9%, respectively), and understaters (e.g., "I use your computer for *a few* minutes?"; 8.9% and 0.4%, respectively). The AE participants not only used a wider range of internal modifications but also tended to combine more than one modification in their requests, which the JEFL participants appeared unable to do. Consider the following examples taken from the AE responses:

20. "Hey guys I'm studying *please* (politeness marker) go somewhere else or *just* (downtoner) pipe down *a little* (understater)" (S11, AE #38)

21.   "*I was wondering* (play-down) if there were *any* (hedge) openings in your class" (S7, AE #17)

22.   "*I am hoping* (play-down) for an extension of *just* (downtoner) *a few* (understater) days" (S1, JA #9)

23.   "Hey, *do you mind if* (consultative device) I use your computer, *if you're not using it* (conditional)" (S5, AE #7)

Summary of Internal Modifications

This section has presented the JEFL and AE participants' use of internal modifications and explored the influence of social power and social distance on their use. Regarding their overall use of modifications, the JEFL participants tended to use significantly fewer modifications than did the AE participants. Regarding the types of internal modifications used, the JEFL participants relied mainly on the politeness marker and to a lesser extent the conditional, rather than the more conventional internal modifications preferred by the AE participants. This variation was also evident in the effect of contextual variables on the two groups; whereas the AE participants adjusted their use of internal modifications according to social power and social distance, neither variable seemed to influence the JEFL participants. The following section presents a detailed analysis of the second research question by examining the JEFL participants' perception of requests compared that of the AE and JA participants.

Sociopragmatic Assessment

The second main research question investigated the second main aspect of pragmatic competence, *sociopragmatic competence/perception*. Researchers (e.g., Bergman & Kasper, 1993; Blum-Kulka & House, 1989; Mir, 1994) have found that speakers' differing perceptions of the weight and values of contextual variables (e.g., right, obligation, and power) is another aspect of cross-cultural variation that may

influence speech act production. The goal of this section is twofold: first, to investigate whether Jordanian EFL learners differ from native American English speakers in their sociopragmatic assessment, and second, investigate whether L1 influences Jordanian EFL learners' perception of contextual variables, leading to negative pragmatic transfer. A scaled response-questionnaire (SRQ) was used to assess the AE, JEFL, and JA groups' perception of 5 social variables: the degree of familiarity between the speaker and hearer, the degree of social power the speaker has over the hearer, the difficulty of making the request, the right of making the request, and the obligation to carry out the request. The participants were instructed to assess the variables on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *the lowest* to 5 = *the highest* (see Appendixes G and H).

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey honest significant differences (HSD) post hoc analysis were performed to determine whether there were significant differences between the AE and JEFL groups in their assessment of the 5 social variables and whether negative pragmatic transfer had occurred. The criteria that were established for identifying negative pragmatic transfer in the performance of requests were also applicable to the perception data; that is, negative pragmatic transfer is operational if there is a statistically significant difference between the JA and AE groups and between the JEFL and AE groups and no statistically significant difference between the JA and JEFL groups. In accordance with the analysis of performance data, this analysis was conducted on all six social categories.

Familiarity between the Speaker and the Hearer

The assessment of familiarity among the three groups followed a similar pattern. As shown in Table 20, all the participants assigned low ratings to unfamiliar categories

(+D; i.e., categories 1, 2, and 3) and high ratings to familiar categories (–D; i.e.,

categories 4, 5, and 6). Although this pattern seems to indicate shared sociopragmatic

knowledge, the groups assigned different specific values to some social categories. The

results of the *ANOVA* on the six social categories revealed significant mean differences in

category 2 (F [2, 129] = 5.893, *p* = .004); category 4 (*F* [2, 129] = 3.633, *p* = .029); and

category 5 (*F* [2, 129] = 4.648, *p* = .011; see Table 20)

Tukey HSD post hoc pair comparisons indicated that the JEFL participants

approximated the target culture's assessment of familiarity in category 2. Specifically,

while there was no significant mean difference between the AE (*M* = 2.14) and the JEFL

groups (*M* = 2.22), both groups assessed familiarity significantly higher than did the JA

group (*M* = 1.65). Conversely, the JEFL group's assessment of familiarity in category 4

(*M* = 3.48) and category 5 (*M* = 3.89) was significantly lower than that of the JA (*M* =

4.00 and 4.43, respectively) and AE (*M* = 4.03 and 4.35, respectively) groups.

Table 20

ANOVA Results for Familiarity by Group in the Six Social Categories

Social category	AE		JEFL		JA		DF (error)	F	Sig
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
C1 (-P, +D)	1.78	(.831)	1.92	(.908)	1.65	(.804)	2 (129)	1.135	.324
C2 (=P, +D)	2.14	(1.002)	0.22	(.872)	1.65	(.596)	2 (129)	5.893	.004*
C3 (+P, +D)	2.05	(.875)	2.18	(1.090)	1.88	(.756)	2 (129)	1.236	.294
C4 (–P, –D)	4.03	(1.208)	3.48	(.994)	4.00	(1.045)	2 (129)	3.633	.029*
C5 (= P, –D)	4.35	(.906)	3.89	(.993)	4.43	(.811)	2 (129)	4.648	.011*
C6 (+P, –D)	3.74	(.979)	3.62	(.928)	3.89	(.738)	2 (129)	0.958	.386

Note. AE = native American English speakers, JEFL = native Jordanian EFL learners, JA = native Jordanian Arabic speakers. C1 = S1: paper extension and S7: adding a course, C2 = S2: copying a notebook and S8: joining a study group, C3 = S3: posting an announcement and S9: helping carry books, C4 = S 4: borrowing an article and S12: writing a recommendation, C5 = S5: using a computer and S10: using a course book, C6 = S6: cancelling a tutoring session and S11: playing someplace else. **T** indicates the occurrence of negative pragmatic transfer.

*$p < 0.05$

Speaker's Power over the Hearer

As in their ratings of familiarity, the AE, JEFL, and JA groups assigned similar

ratings of the speaker's power over the hearer. As shown in Table 21, the three groups

assigned high ratings in high power categories (i.e., categories 3 and 6) and low ratings in

low power categories (i.e., categories 1 and 4). Regarding each social category, the *ANOVA*

results revealed significant mean differences in category 3 (*F* [2, 129] = 3.504, *p* = .033),

category 4 (*F* [2, 129] = 4.702, *p* = .011), and category 5 (*F* [2, 129] = 16.721, *p* = .000;

see Table 21)

Tukey HSD post hoc pair comparisons indicated the presence of three patterns.

The criteria for negative pragmatic transfer was met in category 3; while there was no

significant mean differences between the JEFL (*M* = 3.34) and JA groups (*M* = 3.49),

both groups assessed the speaker's power significantly lower than did the AE group (*M* =

3.88). Conversely, the JEFL group approximated the target culture's sociopragmatic

knowledge in category 4; that is, while there were no significant mean differences

between the AE (*M* = 2.75) and JEFL groups (*M* = 2.57), both groups assessed the

speaker's power significantly lower than did the JA group (*M* = 3.20). Regarding

category 5, the JEFL group's assessment of the speaker's power (*M* = 3.19) was

significantly lower than that of the JA group (*M* = 3.86) but significantly higher than that

of the AE group (*M* = 270), a pattern that indicates development towards the target

culture's sociopragmatic norms while still under the influence of the L1.

Table 21

ANOVA Results for Power by Group in the Six Social Categories

Social category	AE		JEFL		JA		DF (error)	F	Sig
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
C1 (-P, +D)	1.89	(.820)	2.24	(1.059)	2.26	(1.020)	2 (129)	2.058	.132
C2 (=P, +D)	2.22	(.859)	2.17	(.895)	2.16	(1.140)	2 (129)	0.042	.959
C3 (+P, +D)	3.88	(.836)	3.34	(1.109)	3.49	(.967)	2 (129)	3.504	.033***T**
C4 (–P, –D)	2.75	(.937)	2.57	(.950)	3.20	(1.112)	2 (129)	4.702	.011*
C5 (= P, –D)	2.70	(1.153)	3.19	(.923)	3.86	(.702)	2 (129)	16.721	.000*
C6 (+P, –D)	3.44	(.884)	3.59	(1.064)	3.75	(.892)	2 (129)	1.147	.321

Note. AE = native American English speakers, JEFL = native Jordanian EFL learners, JA = native Jordanian Arabic speakers. C1 = S1: paper extension and S7: adding a course, C2 = S2: copying a notebook and S8: joining a study group, C3 = S3: posting an announcement and S9: helping carry books, C4 = S 4: borrowing an article and S12: writing a recommendation, C5 = S5: using a computer and S10: using a course book, C6 = S6: cancelling a tutoring session and S11: playing someplace else. **T** indicates the occurrence of negative pragmatic transfer.

*p < 0.05

Difficulty of Making the Request

As shown in Table 22, the three groups showed notable agreement in their assessment of difficulty. Although the *ANOVA* results by group revealed no significant mean differences in any of the six social categories, two patterns are worth noting. In category 1, both the JEFL ($M = 3.02$) and JA ($M = 3.00$) groups assessed difficulty lower than did the AE group ($M = 3.36$), an indication of L1 influence. In category 4, the JEFL group ($M = 2.17$) assessed difficulty relatively higher than did both the AE ($M = 1.83$) and JA ($M = 1.99$) groups, and therefore deviated from both the target and native language groups. However, because no statistically significant differences were found in any of the social categories, it can be concluded that the three groups were in agreement regarding their assessment of difficulty.

Table 22

ANOVA Results for Difficulty by Group in the Six Social Categories

Social category	AE		JEFL		JA		DF (error)	F	Sig
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
C1 (-P, +D)	3.36	(.955)	3.02	(.835)	3.00	(1.078)	2 (129)	1.977	.143
C2 (=P, +D)	2.47	(.949)	2.56	(.995)	2.32	(1.126)	2 (129)	0.606	.547
C3 (+P, +D)	1.89	(.901)	2.03	(1.053)	1.76	(.789)	2 (129)	0.967	.383
C4 (–P, –D)	1.83	(.821)	2.19	(.779)	1.99	(.931)	2 (129)	2.043	.134
C5 (= P, –D)	1.70	(.851)	1.90	(.974)	1.89	(.952)	2 (129)	0.602	.549
C6 (+P, –D)	2.22	(.918)	2.15	(.937)	2.07	(.825)	2 (129)	0.300	.741

Note. AE = native American English speakers, JEFL = native Jordanian EFL learners, JA = native Jordanian Arabic speakers. C1 = S1: paper extension and S7: adding a course, C2 = S2: copying a notebook and S8: joining a study group, C3 = S3: posting an announcement and S9: helping carry books, C4 = S 4: borrowing an article and S12: writing a recommendation, C5 = S5: using a computer and S10: using a course book, C6 = S6: cancelling a tutoring session and S11: playing someplace else. **T** indicates the occurrence of negative pragmatic transfer.

*p < 0.05

Right of Making the Request

Compared with the three groups' assessment of familiarity, power, and difficulty, the right of making the request was assigned high ratings by the three groups (i.e., $M >$ 3.00) in all social categories except for JEFL and JA groups in category 2 ($M = 2.85$ and 2.66, respectively). Furthermore, the AE group's perception of the speaker's right was relatively higher than that of the JEFL and JA groups in all the social categories. The results of the *ANOVA* for the six categories confirmed this observation, demonstrating significant mean differences in category 2 (F [2, 129] = 7.628, p = .001); category 4 F [2, 129] = 8.657, p = .000); category 5 (F [2, 129] = 4.332, p = .015), and category 6 (F [2, 129] = 4.828, p = .010; see Table 23)

Tukey HSD post hoc pair comparisons revealed that the JEFL group's (M = 3.60) assessment of the speaker's right in category 6 was significantly lower than that of the JA (M = 4.16) and AE (M = 4.06) groups. On the other hand, negative pragmatic transfer criteria were met in the remaining three categories. while there were no significant differences between the JEFL and JA groups in category 2 (M = 2.85 and M = 2.66, respectively), category 4 (M = 3.17 and M = 3.12, respectively), and category 5 (M = 318 and M = 315, respectively), both groups' assessment of the speaker's right in these three categories was significantly lower than that of the AE group (M = 3.45, M = 3.85, and M = 3.72, respectively).

Table 23

ANOVA Results for Right by Group in the Six Social Categories

Social category	AE		JEFL		JA		DF (error)	F	Sig
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
C1 (-P, +D)	3.36	(.802)	3.09	(1.019)	3.35	(.794)	2 (129)	1.690	.189
C2 (=P, +D)	3.45	(.999)	2.85	(.867)	2.66	(1.109)	2 (129)	7.628	.001*T
C3 (+P, +D)	3.42	(.799)	3.09	(1.106)	3.10	(1.144)	2 (129)	1.456	.237
C4 (–P, –D)	3.85	(.919)	3.17	(.895)	3.12	(.941)	2 (129)	8.657	.000*T
C5 (= P, –D)	3.72	(.996)	3.18	(.995)	3.15	(1.054)	2 (129)	4.332	.015*T
C6 (+P, –D)	4.06	(.837)	3.60	(1.015)	4.16	(.820)	2 (129)	4.828	.010*

Note. AE = native American English speakers, JEFL = native Jordanian EFL learners, JA = native Jordanian Arabic speakers. C1 = S1: paper extension and S7: adding a course, C2 = S2: copying a notebook and S8: joining a study group, C3 = S3: posting an announcement and S9: helping carry books, C4 = S 4: borrowing an article and S12: writing a recommendation, C5 = S5: using a computer and S10: using a course book, C6 = S6: cancelling a tutoring session and S11: playing someplace else. **T** indicates the occurrence of negative pragmatic transfer.

*$p < 0.05$

Obligation to Carry Out the Request

Similar to their assessment of the speaker's right in making the request, the three groups' assessment of the hearer's obligation to carry out the request was relatively high. Pearson correlation analysis revealed a strong positive relationship between right and obligation among the three groups; that is, the higher the speaker's right in making the request, the higher the hearer's obligation to carry out the request (AE $r = .317$, $p = .036$; JEFL $r = .586$, $p = .000$; JA $r = .516$, $p = .000$). Regarding the assessment of obligation in the six social categories, the *ANOVA* results revealed significant mean differences in category 2 (F [2, 129] = 11.856, $p = .000$) and category 4 (F [2, 129] = 4.512, $p = .013$; see Table 24)

Tukey HSD post hoc pair comparisons revealed that the JEFL group's ($M = 2.35$) assessment of obligation in category 2 was significantly higher than that of the JA group ($M = 1.81$) but significantly lower than that of the AE group ($M = 2.83$), a pattern that indicates development towards the target culture's sociopragmatic knowledge and L1 influence. Negative pragmatic transfer criteria were met in category 4; while there were no significant mean differences between the JEFL ($M = 2.66$) and JA ($M = 2.45$) groups, both groups assessed obligation significantly lower than did the AE group ($M = 3.15$; see Table 24).

Table 24

ANOVA Result for Obligation by Group in the Six Social Categories

Social category	AE		JEFL		JA		DF (error)	F	Sig
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*			
C1 (-P, +D)	2.58	(1.005)	2.78	(.911)	2.47	(1.102)	2 (129)	1.123	.328
C2 (=P, +D)	2.83	(1.034)	2.35	(.956)	1.81	(.966)	2 (129)	11.856	.000*
C3 (+P, +D)	3.19	(1.106)	2.88	(1.230)	2.74	(1.353)	2 (129)	1.572	.212
C4 (–P, –D)	3.15	(.944)	2.66	(1.114)	2.45	(1.257)	2 (129)	4.512	.013*T
C5 (= P, –D)	3.10	(1.139)	3.02	(1.210)	2.76	(1.123)	2 (129)	1.044	.355
C6 (+P, –D)	3.35	(.992)	3.28	(1.143)	3.64	(1.080)	2 (129)	1.333	.267

Note. AE = native American English speakers, JEFL = native Jordanian EFL learners, JA = native Jordanian Arabic speakers. C1 = S1: paper extension and S7: adding a course, C2 = S2: copying a notebook and S8: joining a study group, C3 = S3: posting an announcement and S9: helping carry books, C4 = S 4: borrowing an article and S12: writing a recommendation, C5 = S5: using a computer and S10: using a course book, C6 = S6: cancelling a tutoring session and S11: playing someplace else. **T** indicates the occurrence of negative pragmatic transfer.

$*p < 0.05$

Summary of Sociopragmatic Assessment

This section has presented the results of the second research question, which addressed perception/sociopragmatic knowledge. The results indicate that cross-cultural and interlanguage variation does exist among the AE, JEFL, and JA groups' perception of contextual variables. Most importantly, the results revealed 11 significant differences between the JEFL and AE participants; further, the criteria for negative pragmatic transfer were met for 5 of the 11 differences. Of the 5 contextual variables, the speaker's right of making the request seemed to trigger the most variation among the three groups whereas the difficulty of making the request seemed to trigger the least variation.

Concluding Remarks

This chapter has presented the results of the study in two main sections. The first section discussed the three groups' performance of requests based on the DCT results, which included the participants' level of directness and use of conventional indirectness, supportive moves, and internal modifications. Within these categories, the influence of contextual variables and negative pragmatic transfer were also investigated. The second main section investigated the three groups' perception of the contextual variables of familiarity, power, difficulty of making the request, right of making the request, and obligation to carry out the request, statistically analyzing the data by performing ANOVA and Tukey HSD post hoc tests. After each section, a brief summary of the main findings was presented.

The following chapter presents an overall discussion of results and the conclusions that are drawn from them.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Overview

The purpose of this study was to fill an important gap in the ILP literature by investigating advanced Jordanian EFL learners' request speech act realization compared to that of native American English speakers as well as the influence of the native language (Arabic) on learner realization. The investigation considered both aspects of pragmatic competence, production/performance (pragmalinguistic knowledge) and perception (sociopragmatic knowledge). To achieve this goal, the study addressed two main research questions. The formulation of these questions was based on the major ILP assumption that second/foreign language learners' performance and perception of an illocutionary act is influenced by their L1 and often deviates from L2 rules of speech, leading to pragmatic failure (see pp 2-4).

Research Question 1

The first research question asked the following: How does Jordanian EFL learners' performance of request speech acts compare to that of native American English speakers and native Jordanian Arabic speakers? To thoroughly address the research subject, this question was divided into the following subquestions:

1. How does Jordanian EFL learners' level of directness in request speech acts compare to that of native American English speakers and native Jordanian Arabic speakers?

2. How does Jordanian EFL learners' use of conventional indirectness in request speech acts compare to that of native American English speakers and native Jordanian Arabic speakers?

3. How does Jordanian EFL learners' use of supportive moves in request speech acts compare to that of native American English speakers and native Jordanian Arabic speakers?

4. How does Jordanian EFL learners' use of internal modifications in request speech acts compare to that of native American English speakers?

5. How do the social variables of (a) social power (higher, equal, and lower) and (b) social distance (familiar and unfamiliar) influence Jordanian EFL learners' *level of directness* and use of *supportive moves* and *internal modifications* compared to that of native American English speakers and native Jordanian Arabic speakers?

6. Is there L1 influence (i.e., negative pragmatic transfer) in Jordanian EFL learners' performance of requests?

Research Question 2

The second research question asked the following: How does Jordanian EFL learners' perception of contextual factors compare to that of native American English speakers and native Jordanian Arabic speakers? To thoroughly address the research subject, this question was divided into the following subquestions:

1. How does Jordanian EFL learners' sociopragmatic assessment of the familiarity between the speaker and the hearer, the social power of the speaker over the hearer, the difficulty of making a request, the right of making a request,

and the hearer's obligation to carry out a request compare to that of native American English speakers and native Jordanian Arabic speakers?

2. Is there negative pragmatic transfer in Jordanian EFL learners' perception of social variables?

A multimethod data collection approach – (a) a discourse completion task (DCT) to elicit performance data (i.e., pragmalinguistic knowledge), and (b) a scaled-response questionnaire (SRQ) to elicit perception data (i.e., sociopragmatic knowledge) – was employed to elicit data from 132 participants divided into three groups: (a) 44 native speakers of Jordanian Arabic (JA), (b) 44 native speakers of American English (AE), and (c) 44 Jordanian EFL (JEFL) learners. Chi-square, Mann-Whitney, ANOVA, and Tukey post hoc analyses of the data were performed to identify detailed and quantifiable patterns of request realization within and between the three groups and to examine the generalizability of these results to a wider population.

In the remainder of this chapter, the results presented in chapter 4 are discussed and then a summary of findings and their pedagogical implications and limitations is provided. The chapter concludes by offering suggestions for future research.

Discussion of Findings

The findings are discussed in accordance with the study's research questions and the results presented in chapter 4. The first section presents the three groups' performance of requests based on the DCT findings before proceeding to a discussion of the three groups' perception of requests based on the SRQ data in the second section.

The first research question addressed Jordanian learners' performance of requests compared to that of native American English speakers and native Jordanian Arabic speakers. Within this general question, five categories were addressed: (a) level of directness, (b) use of conventional indirectness, (c) use of supportive moves, (d) use of internal modifications, and (e) the effect of the contextual variables of social power and social distance on the three groups' performance of requests. The occurrence of negative pragmatic transfer within each of the five categories is also discussed.

Level of Directness

One of the major issues this study attempted to address is Jordanian learners' level of directness compared to that of native American English speakers and native Jordanian Arabic speakers. For the most part, cross-cultural communication researchers (e.g., Cohen, 1987, 1990; Gudykunst & Ting-Toomey, 1988; Katriel, 1986; Zaharna, 1995) have described the Arabic communication style as vague and indirect and the American English communication style as specific and direct. Interestingly, this prediction was borne out. As shown in Table 5, the JEFL participants (32.2%), influenced by their native norms (43.2%), used direct strategies (e.g., "*I want* to postpone my appointment with you till Wednesday evening") significantly more than did the AE participants (11.3%).

The JEFL participants' tendency towards higher levels of directness was more pronounced in the use of mean directness level. On a scale from 1 to 9 with 1 being *the most direct*, the JEFL and JA participants were significantly more direct than were the AE participants in four of the six categories (categories 1, 2, 4, and 6), which fulfills the criteria for negative pragmatic transfer (i.e., there was a significant statistical difference in

the frequency of a certain pragmatic feature between the JA and AE groups and between the JEFL and AE groups and no statistically significant difference between the JA and JEFL groups; see Table 6).

Concerning this finding, it is important to understand the relationship between directness and politeness. Departing from the classic works of Brown and Levinson (1987) and Leech (1983), which equated indirectness with politeness, researchers now suggest that a higher level of directness does not necessarily imply less politeness. In her study of requests in English and Hebrew, Blum-Kulka (1987) found that although nonconventionally indirect strategies (i.e., hints) were assessed as more indirect than were conventionally indirect strategies, they were also assessed as less polite. Wierzbicka (1991) has shown that directness in Polish, contrary to English, is highly valued, being an indication of involvement and sincerity rather than impoliteness. Thus, directness and politeness are best considered in terms of a continuum along which the value of directness is positioned differently across languages and cultures.

Nonetheless, it must be recognized that an interlanguage perspective (ILP) differs from a cross-cultural perspective. ILP research informs us that violation of a target culture's norms of speech may lead to pragmatic failure (Beebe, Takahashi, & Uliss-Weltz, 1990; Thomas, 1983; Wolfson, 1989). For example, Blum-Kulka (1982) found that Hebrew learners' use of indirectness in situations where blunt requests are expected might cause a request "to lose its effectiveness" (p. 35). Hence, Jordanian learners' use of higher directness in contexts where indirectness is expected might not be socially appropriate in an American English context.

Use of Conventional Indirectness

Despite the JEFL and JA groups' high levels of directness in their requests compared to those of the AE group, all three groups preferred conventionally indirect strategies (AE 84.0%, JEFL 64.6%, and JA 53.8%) over both direct and conventionally indirect strategies (see Table 5). In fact, the JEFL participants showed a developmental pattern by using conventionally indirect strategies significantly more than did the JA participants. Other researchers (e.g., Blum-Kulka, 1989; Hill, 1997; Marquez-Reiter, 2000; Suh, 1998) have also observed the dominance of conventional indirectness in requests in their interlanguage and cross-cultural studies. According to Marquez-Reiter (2000), the preference for conventionally indirect strategies over other strategies is related to the balance they provide between "clarity and non-coerciveness hence ensuring that the utterance will have the correct interpretation and the right impact" (p. 173).

However, this macro-development in the JEFL participants' use of conventional indirectness was not observed at the micro-level of analysis; that is, this development was not seen in their use of conventions of means and form and their request perspective. For example, the JEFL participants' use of *ability* strategies (e.g., "*Can you* give me the management book?") was significantly greater (55.7%) than that of the AE and JA participants (19.2% and 11.3%, respectively). On the other hand, the JEFL participants' use of *possibility* strategies (e.g., "*Is it possible* to get an extension?") was significantly less (0.6%) than that of the AE and JA participants (15.4% and 48.6 %, respectively). Furthermore, the JEFL participants' selection of linguistic forms, which included the use of "Can you . . . ?," "Can I . . . ?," and "May I . . . ?," was limited in comparison to that of the AE participants, which included "Can I . . .?," "Could I . . . ?," "Do you mind . . .?,"

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"Would you mind . . .?," and "Could you . . .?," and different from the forms used by the JA participants, which included "Is it possible (okay) . . .?," "Can I . . .?," and "Is there a(any) way . . . " (see Table 10).

The reason for the JEFL participants' limited use of conventions of form compared to that of the AE participants could be cross-linguistic differences in the modality systems of Jordanian Arabic and English. The rich modal system of English allows its speakers a relatively clear distinction between conventions of means and provides a wider selection of the linguistic forms that convey them, e.g., the linguistic forms "Is it possible?", "Would it be possible?", "Is there any way?" can be distinguished as referring to "possibility" convention of means. Conversely, Jordanian Arabic does not have an elaborate modal system; Jordanian native speakers depended mostly on two basic forms—*mumkin* and to lesser extent *bagdar*, both of which can be adequately translated as "May I?," "Can I?," "Could I?," "Will you?," "Would you?," or "Is it possible?"— to formulate conventional indirectness. For example, the indirect request *mumkin ?asta3iir - ilkitaab* can be translated into English to convey different conventions of means and form, including "Can I borrow the book?" "Could I borrow the book?," "May I borrow the book?," "Is it possible to borrow the book?," and "Would it be possible to borrow the book?" Hence, the lack of cross-linguistic equivalence between the two languages in the linguistic forms used to formulate conventional indirectness might have led the JEFL participants' requests to deviate from those used by the AE and JA participants.

The JEFL participants' limited use of conventions of means and form may also be due to their having limited opportunities for input in the target language in the EFL context or the nature of their language instruction. According to Mir-Fernandez (1994),

the majority of EFL textbooks emphasize the use of "can" and "could" over other linguistic forms used in requests.

Request Perspective

Contrary to their choice of conventions of means and form, the JEFL participants' choice of perspectives showed marked L1 influence. The JEFL and JA participants tended to use more hearer-oriented perspectives (64.3% and 63.7%, respectively) than nonhearer-oriented perspectives (i.e., speaker-oriented, inclusive, and impersonal perspectives; 35.7% and 36.3%, respectively). The AE participants, on the other hand, demonstrated an opposing pattern, using more nonhearer-oriented (54.8%) than hearer-oriented (45.2%) perspectives. Negative pragmatic transfer was also evident in the choice of individual strategies. Both the JEFL and JA participants tended to use speaker-oriented, impersonal, and inclusive perspectives (see Table 11).

In light of Blum-Kulka's (1989) claim that nonhearer-oriented requests (e.g., "Can I . . .?," "Can we . . .?," or "How about delaying . . .?") can soften the impostive force inherent in a request, native American English speakers appear to be the least coercive in their choice of perspective regarding conventional indirectness. Of the several reasons that may account for the JEFL participants' underuse of nonhearer-oriented requests, the most obvious is negative pragmatic transfer from Jordanian Arabic; in Arabic, avoiding naming the hearer in a request might not have the same politeness value as it does in American English. Another possible explanation is that both Jordanian groups might have been more interested in performing their requests effectively by explicitly naming the hearer as the agent of the act than using a perspective as a mitigating strategy (Mir-Fernandez, 1994). To mitigate the imposition and threat to the

hearer, the JEFL and JA participants may have depended on other mechanisms, such as

supportive moves and the politeness marker (i.e., "please").

Supportive Moves

Research on second language learners' use of supportive moves (e.g., Blum-Kulka

& Olshtain, 1986; Edmondson & House, 1991; Faerch & Kasper, 1989; Hassall, 2001;

House & Kasper, 1987; Rintell & Mitchell, 1989) has systematically reported that

language learners at the intermediate and advanced levels tend to overuse supportive

moves compared to native speakers. Edmondson and House claimed that this behavior,

known as the "waffle phenomenon," is a characteristic of all second language learners,

regardless of their L1. Faerch and Kasper proposed that this behavior may reflect learners'

desire to "play it safe" by making propositional and pragmatic meanings as transparent as

possible. Hassall argued that such verbosity may reflect learners' desire to assert their

linguistic competence; that is, to show that they are sufficiently proficient to produce

lengthy utterances.

The current findings provide partial support for these researchers' assertions.

Regarding supportive moves, the JEFL group ($n = 601$) occupied a position midway

between that of the other groups, using supportive moves significantly more than did the

AE group ($n = 532$) but significantly less than did the JA group ($n = 738$). Thus, giving

the assumption that the JEFL participants' use of supportive moves can be attributed to L1

influence. Similarities and differences between current findings and pervious studies were

also found in Jordanian learners' use of types of supportive moves. In accordance with

previous studies (Hassall, 2001; House & Kasper, 1987; Trosborg, 1995), all three groups

(AE 63.3%, JEFL 60.2%, and JA 50.1%) used *grounders* (giving reasons, explanations,

and justifications in requests such as "*I have to study for an important exam*, can you play somewhere else?") more than any other supportive move. On the other hand, culturally specific behavior in the form of negative pragmatic transfer can be observed in the JEFL and JA groups' underuse of *pre-commitments* (e.g., "Could you do me a favor?") and *disarmers* (e.g., "*I understand the deadline is today*, but I was . . . .") and overuse of *apologies* (e.g., "*I'm really sorry to come without an appointment,* but I need . . . .") compared to the AE group (see Table 15).

The JEFL participants' verbosity might have been intended as a strategy other than that of "playing it safe" or demonstrating their communicative competence. Several researchers (Eslamirasekh, 1993; Huang, 1996; Mir, 1995) have shown that the overuse of supportive moves could be intended to convey a higher level of politeness. Similarly, whereas indirect requests and nonhearer-oriented perspectives are considered mitigating devices in American English, the use of supportive moves by both Jordanian groups (JA and JEFL) could be a mitigation strategy to compensate for their high levels of directness. However, from an interlanguage perspective, verbosity can make the JEFL learners' requests appear redundant or irrelevant. Blum-Kulka and Olshatain (1986) claimed that language learners' overindulgence in words carries the potential for pragmatic failure by creating "a lack of appropriateness which might cause the hearer to react with impatience" (p. 175).

Internal Modifications

The findings regarding the use of internal modifications confirm Hassall's (2001) claim that "it seems to be inherently difficult for second language learners to add internal modifiers" (p. 271). The participants' overall use of modifications indicates that

the JEFL participants ($n = 262$) underused internal modifications in comparison to the

AE participants ($n = 336$). This general tendency was also confirmed on the social

categorical level. As shown in Table 16, the JEFL participants used internal

modifications significantly less than did the AE participants in three categories: category

1 (AE 24.7% and JEFL 17.9%), category 2 (AE 19.3% and JEFL 16.8%), and category 6

(AE 14% and JEFL 11.1%).

Such underuse of internal modifications by Jordanian learners is consistent with

the findings of other researchers. Hill (1997) found such underuse in his study of

Japanese learners of English, Hassall (2001) in his study of Australian English learners

of Indonesian, and Faerch and Kasper (1989) in their study of Danish learners of

English and German. Regarding the type of modification preferred, the JEFL

participants overwhelmingly preferred (79%) the politeness marker "please" compared

to the AE participants (15.8%). Therefore, significantly underusing other more

conventionalized modifiers preferred by the AE participants, namely *consultative*

devices (e.g., "Do you think . . .?"), *play-downs* (e.g., "I was wondering if . . .?"),

downgraders/hedges (e.g., "Is there *any* way . . .?"), and *understaters* (e.g., "Can I

borrow the notebook for *a few* hours?") (see Table 19).

The JEFL participants' preference for the politeness marker over other modifiers

can be explained by language learners' tendency to adhere to Grice's principle of clarity

by using explicit and unambiguous means of expression, which is achieved with the use

of the marker "please" (Faerch & Kasper 1989). The higher pragmalinguistic

competence required for processing mitigating devices such as downtoners, play-

downs, and consultative devices compared to the politeness marker could have been

another factor (Hassall, 2001; Trosborg, 1995). Interestingly, the JEFL participants'

intensive use of the politeness marker might have restricted their use of other mitigating

devices. Trosborg (1995) explained, "The occurrence of this marker does not easily

allow the inclusion of other markers whose function is to hedge the impositive intent of

the utterance, e.g., 'I thought that maybe you wouldn't mind giving me a hand,

(please)'" (p. 258). Given this possibility, it can be assumed that another reason why the

AE participants used the politeness marker in only 15.8% of their requests was that they

wanted to use other mitigating devices.

Overall, language learners' underuse of internal modifications can affect their

interpersonal communication not only in making requests but also in performing other

communicative acts.

Influence of Contextual Variables

The effect of the contextual variables of social power and social distance on the

three groups' performance of requests (i.e., on their level of directness and use of

supportive moves and internal modifications) was subject to a cultural filter that

reflected different hierarchies of values. With respect to native speakers' baseline data,

findings indicate that the JA participants' different levels of directness and use of

different supportive moves in different situations was influenced by social power but

not by social distance. In contrast, the AE participants' levels of directness and use of

supportive moves and internal modifications was influenced most greatly by familiarity

and, to a lesser extent, by social power. These results support the classification of

American culture as *horizontal*, defined as affected more greatly by familiarity and less

by social power, and Jordanian culture as *vertical/hierarchical,* defined as influenced

more greatly by social power and less by familiarity (Al-Issa, 1998; Beebe et al., 1990; Gudykunst & Ting-Toomey, 1988).

As for the JEFL participants, there were more differences than similarities between them and the AE participants. Regarding the level of directness, the JEFL group was similar to the AE group in showing sensitivity to social distance (familiarity), with both groups being significantly more direct in familiar than in unfamiliar situations. Moreover, both groups were significantly more direct in high power (+P) than in equal power (=P) and low power situations (–P), no significant differences were found between the groups regarding their level of directness in low and equal power situations. Regarding the use of supportive moves, the JEFL participants used them in a manner more similar to that of the JA than the AE participants, indicating their use of supportive moves was influenced by their L1. Moreover, the two Jordanian groups significantly changed the frequency with which they used supportive moves in the three power relationship situations; they used them most in low power situations, followed by equal power situations, and least in high power situations. In contrast, neither Jordanian group's use of supportive moves was greatly influenced by the degree of familiarity in the situations.

The JEFL participants' use of supportive moves shows that their L1 influence not only affected their use of request strategies but also their sensitivity to contextual variables. Researchers have also found such L1 transfer in Japanese ESL learners' performance of the speech act of correction. Takahashi and Beebe (1993) found that Japanese ESL learners transferred their Japanese style-shifting patterns into English by selecting different strategies depending on the speaker's social status in relationship to

the hearer. Beebe et al. (1990) also observed this same manner of shifting in their study of Japanese ESL learners' performance of the speech act of refusal.

The JEFL participants also deviated from the target culture norms in their use of internal modifications. Whereas the AE participants varied their use of internal modifications according to social power and social distance, the JEFL participants did not vary their use in the presence of either variable. These results are not surprising, as selecting the proper strategy based on contextual variables requires advanced communicative competence in the target language. Consequently, these results confirm previous findings regarding the problematic nature of internal modifications for Jordanian learners.

Sociopragmatic Assessment

The second main research question examined Jordanian learners' perception of requests compared to that of native American English speakers and native Jordanian Arabic speakers. The investigation considered 5 contextual variables: the degree of familiarity between the speaker and the hearer, the degree of social power that the speaker has over the hearer, the difficulty of making the request, the right of making the request, and the obligation to carry out the request. The goal was twofold: to investigate whether Jordanian EFL learners differ from native American English speakers in their perception/sociopragmatic assessment and determine whether there is L1 influence (i.e., negative pragmatic transfer) in Jordanian EFL learners' perception of contextual variables.

Overall, the findings indicate the existence of a universal sociopragmatic knowledge that is shared by members of different cultures. This conclusion was based on

the fact that the three participant groups followed a similar pattern in their assessment of the 5 contextual variables: All three differentiated between familiar and unfamiliar situations (see Table 20) and between high and low power situations (see Table 21). Moreover, positive correlation was found between the three groups' belief in the speaker's right to make the request and the hearer's obligation to carry out the request (see Tables 23 and 24). These results accorded with those reported by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989), who found that native speakers of Hebrew, German, and Argentinean Spanish used the same criteria in assessing familiarity, power, difficulty, right, and obligation. Yet, the JEFL and AE participants demonstrated a culturally specific perception of contextual variables in 11 situations within the 5 variables. Further, the criteria consistent with the occurrence of negative pragmatic transfer were met in five situations.

Two patterns in the JEFL participants' assessment of contextual variables are worth noting. First, they tended to assess variables differently from the two native language (JA and AE) groups. As shown in Table 25, although similarities between the L1 and L2 lead to the expectation of positive transfer, the JEFL participants followed a specific interlanguage pattern of their own in 3 of the 11 situations that indicated significant differences in their assessment of the variables.

Table 25

ANOVA Results for JEFL Participants' Deviation From AE Participants' Assessment

Variable/ social category	AE		JEFL		JA		DF (error)	F	Sig
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
Familiarity/									
C4 (–P, –D)	4.03	(1.208)	3.48	(.994)	4.00	(1.045)	2 (129)	3.633	.029*
Familiarity/									
C5 (=P, –D)	4.35	(.906)	3.89	(.993)	4.43	(.811)	2 (129)	4.648	.011*
Right/									
C6 (+P, –D)	4.06	(.837)	3.60	(1.015)	4.16	(.820)	2 (129)	4.828	.010*

Note. C = category, P = social power, D = social distance. AE = native American English speakers, JEFL = native Jordanian EFL learners, JA = native Jordanian Arabic speakers. C1 = S1: paper extension and S7: adding a course, C2 = S2: copying a notebook and S8: joining a study group, C3 = S3: posting an announcement and S9: helping carry books, C4 = S 4: borrowing an article and S12: writing a recommendation, C5 = S5: using a computer and S10: using a course book, C6 = S6: cancelling a tutoring session and S11: playing someplace else.

*p < 0.05

One reason for such differences in assessment could be the JEFL participants' assumption that the contextual variables were L1 specific and therefore not transferable to the L2. This assumption accords with other researchers' (e.g., Bodman & Eisenstein, 1988; Robinson, 1992) finding that language learners may not transfer L1 pragmatic features (pragmalinguistic or sociopragmatic) to the L2 if they perceive them as language

specific. For example, in his verbal protocol study of refusals, Robinson (1992) found that female Japanese ESL learners tend to be relatively direct in refusing their American interlocutors' offers and requests because they view directness as being more acceptable in American culture than in their native culture.

A second interesting pattern is that the two Jordanian groups assessed their right of making the request as being weaker than that of the AE participants. In fact, the criteria for negative pragmatic transfer were met for three of the five situations in which the JEFL participants assessed this variable (see Table 26).

Table 26

ANOVA Results for Negative Pragmatic Transfer in the Right of Making the Request

Social category	AE		JEFL		JA		DF (error)	F	Sig
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*			
C2 (=P, +D)	3.45	(.999)	2.85	(.867)	2.66	(1.109)	2 (129)	7.628	.001*T
C4 (–P, –D)	3.85	(.919)	3.17	(.895)	3.12	(.941)	2 (129)	8.657	.000*T
C5 (=P, –D)	3.72	(.996)	3.18	(.995)	3.15	(1.054)	2 (129)	4.332	.015*T

Note. AE = native American English speakers, JEFL = native Jordanian EFL learners, JA = native Jordanian Arabic speakers. C1 = S1: paper extension and S7: adding a course, C2 = S2: copying a notebook and S8: joining a study group, C3 = S3: posting an announcement and S9: helping carry books, C4 = S 4: borrowing an article and S12: writing a recommendation, C5 = S5: using a computer and S10: using a course book, C6 = S6: cancelling a tutoring session and S11: playing someplace else. **T** indicates the occurrence of negative pragmatic transfer.

p < 0.05

Similarly, Hill (1997) reported that Japanese learners of English tended to assess their right of making a request as significantly weaker than that of native British English speakers. This difference between the Jordanian groups and the AE group regarding the speaker's right reflects deeply rooted cultural values. Whereas American culture emphasizes the role of the individual and his or her rights and obligations (i.e., it is an individualistic culture), the hierarchical structure of the Jordanian culture emphasizes the group, group harmony, and social hierarchy (i.e., it is a collectivist culture; Gudykunst & Ting-Toomey, 1988; Ting-Toomey, 1999). In category 4 (–P, –D), which includes situation 4, in which the speaker asks a professor to borrow an article, and situation 12, in which the speaker asks a professor to write a letter of recommendation, it can be assumed that an American student in the more equalitarian American learning environment would be more likely to perceive himself or herself as having a stronger right to make a request than would a Jordanian student in the more hierarchical Jordanian learning context.

In general, Jordanian language learners differ from native American English speakers in not only their performance of requests but also their perception of the contextual values associated with this speech act. A significant reason for this difference is related to negative pragmatic transfer from the L1. This finding has important implications for understanding second language learners' pragmatic choices, and is therefore in need of further investigation.

Conclusion

The general findings clearly indicate that the cultural norms deeply ingrained in all speakers can strongly affect their linguistic choices in both their native language and a

second/foreign language. Although the JEFL participants approximated the target language's pragmatic knowledge (both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic) in some situations, they most often deviated from it, their intensive reliance on L1 norms of speech being the norm rather than the exception.

On the pragmalinguistic level, the JEFL participants were systematically more direct than were the AE participants in following their L1's pragmatic norms. Negative pragmatic transfer was also found in the JEFL participants' choice of perspective and their limited use of conventions of means and form within their employment of conventional indirectness. The JEFL participants' use of supportive moves and internal modifications showed completely opposite patterns; that is, whereas they demonstrated excessive verbosity by using supportive moves significantly more than did the AE participants, they significantly underused internal modifications such as consultative devices, downtoners/hedges, and understaters.

On the sociopragmatic level, the JEFL and the AE participants differed in their assessment of 4 of the 5 contextual variables. The JEFL participants' negative pragmatic transfer was most evident in their perception of the variable of *the speaker's right to make the request*. Furthermore, the JEFL participants tended to assess variables differently than did both of the native language groups, indicating that their sociopragmatic knowledge is still at the developmental stage.

<div align="center">Pedagogical Implications</div>

Despite the current consensus on the importance of integrating both linguistic and pragmatic competence, the two primary components of communicative competence, into language learning curricula, instruction in many EFL classrooms still gives ascendency to

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grammar practice and that of other linguistic aspects over roles of speech in the target language. This phenomenon does not necessarily reflect a lack of awareness of the importance of pragmatic knowledge; rather, it may be a direct effect of the scarcity of empirical research informing instructors and curriculum designers on the areas in which socially appropriate language use is problematic for second language learners.

There is now ample evidence in the ILP literature that second language learners would benefit from both deductive and inductive pragmatic instruction (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Rose & Ng, 2001; Takahashi, 2001). This type of instruction is crucial for foreign language learners, who may have little access to target language input and even less opportunity for productive L2 use outside the classroom. Thus, the findings of the present study could inform the teaching of the speech act of requests of Jordanian/Arab EFL learners by incorporating L2 pragmatic knowledge into the course program (e.g., in videos of role plays of requests performed by native speakers), learners' attention can be directed towards specific elements of the input such as those investigated in this study (i.e., levels of directness, supportive moves, and internal modifications). Furthermore, given the importance of the social parameters in shaping learners' perception and production of speech acts—and given that most EFL textbooks do not include contextual information—instructors could outline different request types based on the interlocutor's status, familiarity, rights, and obligations.

In addition, learners can be informed through explicit instruction on certain features that persist in their performance of requests due to negative pragmatic transfer. Although not all features lead to pragmatic failure, certain trends that were observed in this study, such as the intensive use of *direct strategies* (e.g., "I want to use your

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computer" or "Open this section for me") are more likely to do so. Having observed that the *politeness marker* "please" was the major internal modification used by the JEFL participants, language instruction should emphasize the wealth of internal modifications used in English, including *play-downs* (e.g., "I was wondering if . . ."), *consultative devices* (e.g., "Would you mind . . ."), and *downtoners/hedges* (e.g., "Can I borrow your notebook for *a few* hours?"), and their impact on softening the imposition created by the request.

Instruction can also include comparisons between the learners' native language and English to clarify the syntactic constraints and the politeness values that persist in one language but not the other. For example, conventional indirectness has been shown to be the most frequently used level of directness among the three groups. However, whereas English has distinctive means of conveying conventional indirectness (e.g., ability, permission, possibility, willingness, and suggestion), Arabic is less distinctive in that one form can be used to convey two or more conventions of means. Another important example was that the speaker-oriented perspective appears to signify a higher level of politeness in English than it does in Arabic.

As discussed in the introduction, authentic dialogues and the pragmatic knowledge of the target culture are underrepresented in current ESL/EFL textbooks (Bouton, 1994; Bradovi-Harlig, 1996; Kasper, 1997; Rose, 1997). Thus, textbook designers can incorporate the findings and conclusions of this study into ESL/EFL curricula. The pedagogical implications of this study can also benefit designers of Arabic language curricula. Until now, perspectives on Arabic communication styles have been based on individual observations and stereotypes unsubstantiated by empirical research. Findings

and conclusions regarding the Arabic participants in this study can benefit those involved in teaching and learning Arabic as a second/foreign language.

Limitations

The findings of the current study should be interpreted in light of its limitations. The selection of a DCT as the primary data collection tool was due to its applicability to the research design as well as the advantages it provided. Most importantly, it allowed for control over contextual variables (e.g., status, power, and gender) and thereby collect a consistent body of data for investigation of the influence of these variables across cultures and situations. The use of a DCT also helped eliminate the anxiety and nervousness that normally accompany nonnative speakers when tested orally (see also Bergman & Kasper, 1993). However, the DCT is limited due its lack of real social context, thus making it difficult to determine whether the data collected from its use reflect the wider population and real-life situations. Moreover, the DCT is not designed to elicit data on the features specifically associated with oral interaction, such as turn taking, prosody, and hesitations, which can be valuable sources of data. In addition, because the DCT scenarios depict situations that would occur in a university setting, they are not representative of all the situations that could occur in real life.

The participants for this study were recruited from one region in Jordan and one region in the United States. As regional dialects were not accounted for, the native speaker participants may not have been representative of all native American English or native Jordanian Arabic speakers. In addition, all the participants were undergraduate students between the ages of 19 and 24. A more varied population of different educational backgrounds and age groups could have given different results. Hence,

these findings should be considered tentative and possibly not applicable to other contexts or participants with different characteristics.

The JEFL participants were third- and fourth-year English majors. As indicated in chapter 3, it was hypothesized that English majors would have stronger English language skills than would students in other majors. However, no proficiency test was administered to ensure that all the JEFL participants were at the same level of proficiency. Hence, more than one proficiency level could have been in the same group. Moreover, the JEFL participants were recruited from only one university in Jordan; whether other JEFL learners from other schools exhibit the same request tendencies should be confirmed by future research.

<p style="text-align:center">Directions for Future Research</p>

The entire area of ILP research in Arabic is still in its infancy. Much can and should be done to bridge this important research gap. First, this study could be replicated by researchers investigating a wider range of JEFL learners to determine whether learners' characteristics differ by region and university. Second, this study could be replicated using different data collection methods, such as ethnographic observation or role-plays, which would provide more insight into the advantages and disadvantages of each data collection method, leading to the development of a more grounded approach to speech act studies.

Future researchers could also begin where this study ended; that is, they could address some of the study limitations by including situations depicting a greater number of social settings (e.g., the street, home, workplace, or market). In addition, future researchers could include participants from various age groups and educational and

economic backgrounds to collect more representative data for analysis and thus provide more insight into the types of requests used by different members of society.

In line with several scholars (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig, 1999; Ellis, 1994; Kasper, 1992, 1996; Kasper & Rose, 1999, 2002; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996) who have criticized the current tendency of ILP studies to focus on advanced learners, future researchers could study JEFL learners at different levels (e.g., beginner, intermediate, and advanced) to examine the role of second language proficiency on the performance of requests. Doing so would allow them to identify which pragmatic features are developmental and which remain with learners even at advanced stages. Also, future research on Jordanian/Arab EFL learners should include longitudinal studies, the most suitable means of monitoring the developmental aspects of request speech-act performance.

Researchers have shown that gender plays an important role in compliment and compliment response behavior by its interaction with other variables (Holmes, 1988; Wolfson, 1989b). Although all caution was taken to include equal numbers of male and female participants, gender was not a variable in this study. The investigation of gender differences in the performance of requests would have constituted an interesting addition to this study; investigating how gender interacts with other variables, such as social status and social distance, would also produce valuable data.

ILP researchers appear to assume that learning in the target culture's environment influences learners' communicative abilities even though they have not fully explored the role of the learning context (e.g., EFL vs. ESL) in acquiring pragmatic competence. Clearly, the assumptions regarding the degree to which the learning context influences communicative competence need to be supported by empirical research. Such research

could take several forms: researchers could conduct a similar study of Jordanian ESL learners and compare their findings to this study's findings; they could conduct a study of two language learner groups, one of which learned English in an ESL context and the other in an EFL context, to determine whether communicative competence differs by learning context; or they could research the same group of participants twice, once before participating in a study abroad program and again after completing the program.

One of the most crucial areas in second language acquisition/learning is the influence of the L1 on learners' L2 production/perception of illocutionary acts. My findings indicate that negative pragmatic transfer plays an influential role in shaping Jordanian EFL learners' interlanguage. However, negative pragmatic transfer does not necessarily mean lack of pragmatic competence; thus, it might be a matter of choice as of ability.. Researchers have found that several factors other than learners' pragmatic knowledge motivate pragmatic transfer, including learners' identity, their purpose in learning the language, and the scope of their learning in the language (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993). Future research in this area would provide a better understanding of this crucial phenomenon.

The effect of teaching pragmatics is an area that requires further attention. The few data available indicate that foreign/second language learners can benefit from both inductive and deductive pragmatics instruction (Kasper & Rose, 2002). However, further research is needed to shed light on the pragmatic features receptive to this type of teaching and the best conditions for this type of instruction. In addition, speech acts other than requests require further investigation. Investigation into Arab learners' ILP should include other frequently occurring speech acts, such as apologies, complaints, and the

giving of advice, to provide greater understanding of the problematic areas that could hinder communication.

Final Remarks

In general, the ILP literature on language learners' production and perception of illocutionary acts seems to imply that diversions from the speech norms of the target language is highly likely to result in pragmatic failure. Although pragmatic failure could indeed occur in some cases, it is difficult to determine which features contribute to its occurrence. The stance that I have taken in conducting this study, reporting its results, and offering pedagogical recommendations is rather different. The goal of ILP research, as I see it, is to advocate neither a complete diversion from L1 pragmatic norms nor mimicking of the pragmatic norms of the target culture. Second language learners may prefer to retain their own cultural identity even when interacting with native speakers of a target culture, conditioned by their purpose in learning English and the scope of their learning. However, second/foreign language learners should be made aware of the differences between their native language and the target language to allow them to express themselves as they choose. The need for pragmatic knowledge becomes more crucial in the case of English majors who, by necessity as prospective EFL teachers, need to acquire cultural knowledge of the language in which they are pursuing their career.

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Appendices

Appendix A

<u>Informed Consent Form/Arabic Version</u>

عزيزي الطالب:

إن الهدف الرئيسي من هذه الدراسة هو استقصاء الاختلافات بين الحضارات والثقافات المختلفة من حيث السلوك الخطابي.
إن مشاركتك في هذه الدراسة طوعية, حيث انه بإمكانك عدم المشاركة أو الانسحاب من الدراسة في أي وقت دون أن يكون
لذلك أي تأثير سلبي على علاقتك مع الباحث أو مع جامعتك بأي شكل من الأشكال. إذا وافقت على المشاركة فإن كل
المعلومات المتعلقة بك سوف تكون موضع سرية تامة ولن يكون لها أي تأثير كان على وضعك الدراسي في جامعتك.

إذا قررت المشاركة فسوف تقوم بتعبئة الاستبيان إضافة إلى تعبئة بعض المعلومات المتعلقة بسيرتك الذاتية.
إن جميع المعلومات التي ستجمع من هذه الدراسة سوف تستخدم لإتمام رسالة الدكتوراه التي أقوم بإعدادها. وان نسخة من
هذه الرسالة سوف تقدم إلى جامعتك حيث أن النتائج التي تتمخض عنها هذه الدراسة قد تكون مفيدة لك ولمدرسيك. وتأكيداً
على سرية المعلومات المعطاة منك سوف لن تتم الإشارة إالى أي بيانات شخصية تتعلق بك.

أرجوا أن توافق على المشاركة في هذه الدراسة وأعتقد أن مشاركتك ستكون تجربة ممتعة ومثمرة لنا جميعاً. إذا وافقت على
المشاركة أرجو أن توقع أدناه.

مع خالص شكري وامتناني

الباحث: حسام شفيق المومني.
طالب دكتوراة في جامعة انديانا بولاية بنسلفانيا
<u>H.S.Al-momani@iup.edu</u>

اقر بأنني قد قرأت وعلى علم كامل بكل المعلومات المدرجة في هذا الإقرار. كما وانني اعي تماما بأن أية معلومات اقدمها
سوف تكون موضع السرية التامة, وبأن لي الحق في الانسحاب من الدراسة في أي وقت.

الاسم: _____

التوقيع: _____

التاريخ: _____

Appendix B

<u>Informed Consent Form/English Version</u>

You are invited to participate in this research study. The following information is provided in order to help you to make an informed decision whether or not to participate. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to ask. The purpose of this study is to investigate cross-cultural differences in speech acts behaviors. If you agree to participate, you will fill out a background questionnaire, a Discourse Completion Task (DCT), and a scaled-response questionnaire. The whole process will take about 30 minutes of your time.

Your participation in this study is <u>voluntary</u>. You are free to decide not to participate in this study or to withdraw at any time without adversely affecting your relationship with the investigators or the institution. Your decision will not result in any loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Upon your request to withdraw, all information pertaining to you will be destroyed. If you choose to participate, all information will be held in strict confidence and will have no bearing on your academic standing or services you receive from the University. Any use of information you provide in this study will be considered in combination with those from other participants. The information obtained in the study may be published in academic journals or presented at scientific meetings, but your identity will be kept strictly confidential and your name remains anonymous. There is no known risk associated with this research.

If you are willing to participate in this study, please sign the statement below. Take the extra unsigned copy with you.
Thank you very much for your cooperation.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact the director of the study or me at the following addresses:

<u>Dissertation Advisor</u>	**OR**	<u>Researcher</u>
Dr. Dan Tannacito		**Husam S. Al-Momani**
Professor, English Department,		**PhD. Candidate**
212 Eicher Hall,		**Department of English**
Indiana University of Pennsylvania,		**38 Regency Square,**
Indiana, PA 15705		**Indiana, PA 15701**
Tel. (724) 357-6944		**Tel. (724) 349-2978**
E-mail: <u>djt@iup.edu</u>		**E-mail: knqk@iup.edu**

<u>This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724/357-7730).</u>

Informed Consent Form (continued)

VOLUNTARY CONSENT FORM:

I have read and understand the information on this consent form. I consent to participate in this study. I understand that my responses are completely confidential and that I have the right to withdraw at any time. I have received an unsigned copy of this Informed Consent Form to keep in my possession.

Name: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix C

Background Questionnaire/Arabic Version

أرجو تعبئة هذة المعلومات قبل البدء بالاستبيان:

الجنس: _____ العمر _____

الجنسية: _____ اللغة: _____

الجامعة: _____ التخصص: _____

السنة: الاولى الثانية الثالثة الرابعة

هل سبق وأن سافرت لاحدي الدول الناطقة باللغة الانجليزية ؟ نعم لا

اذا كانت الاجابة السابقة نعم

أين _____ . وكم المدة: _____

Appendix D

Background Questionnaire/English Version

Gender: **M   /   F**   **Age:** _____

Place of Birth: _____

Country of Origin: _____   **Native Language:** _____

Institution where currently enrolled: _____

Major: _____

College level: Freshman   Sophomore   Junior   Senior

Do you Speak Languages Other than English?   Yes   No   .   If yes

How long have you studied the Language: _____

Have you ever lived in a foreign country? _____ **. If yes**

Where? _____ **. How long?** _____

Appendix E

Discourse Completion Task/Arabic Version

عزيزي الطالب:

إن الهدف الرئيسي من هذه الدراسة هو استقصاء الاختلافات بين الحضارات والثقافات المختلفة من حيث السلوك الخطابي. هذا ليس امتحانا وليس هناك اجابة صحيحة وأخرى خاطئة. هذا الاستبيان يحتوي على **12 موقفاً**. أرجو أن تقرأ كل موقف بعناية وأن تتخيل أنك فى نفس الموقف فعلا, ثم تكمل كل موقف كما لو كنت تتحدث الى الشخص المقابل وجها لوجه **(باللهجه العاميه).**

أرجو التأكد بأنك فهمت كل شيء عن هذه المواقف قبل البدء بالكتابة . كما أرجو أيضا أن تسأل أي سؤال يتعلق بطريقة الإجابة أو أي شيء بخصوص هذا الاستبيان. إن إجاباتك الطبيعية سيكون لها الدورالاكبر في إثراء مصداقية هذه الدراسة وإعطائها صفة البحث العلمي الجيد.

مثال

أنت مشرف مختبر كمبيوتر في الجامعة. هناك طالبان يتكلمان بصوت مرتفع في المختبر. من الواضح أن صوت الطالبين المرتفع يسبب إزعاجا للطلبة الآخرين. تقترب من الطالبين وتقول...

عفوا يا شباب , ممكن توطو صوتكو شوى. الطلاب مش عارفه تركز.

===

الموقف 1

غداً هو الموعد النهائي لتسليم ورقة بحث في احد المواد. لديك الكثير من الواجبات ولا تستطيع إنهاء البحث في الوقت المحدد. هذه مادتك الأولى مع هذا الدكتور ولم تتحدث اليه مسبقاً, ولكنك تقرر الذهاب إلى مكتبه لاعطائك وقت إضافي لإنهاء البحث. تذهب إلى مكتب الدكتور وتقول...

_____

_____

_____

_____

<u>الموقف2</u>

تأخذ مادة "علوم سياسيه". تغيبت عن بعض محاضرات الاسبوع الماضى بسبب نزلة برد شديده. ترى احد طلاب الماده فى المكتبه. لم تتحدث الى هذا الطالب من قبل لكنك تعرف انه طالب جيد وتريد تُصوير دفتره. تذهب اليه وتقول...

_____

_____

_____

_____

<u>الموقف 3</u>

أنتدكتور في الجامعة. لديك اجتماع في القسم وتريد إلغاء إحدى محاضرات اليوم. يأتي أحد طلاب المادة إلى مكتبك للسؤال عن احد الواجبات. هذه هي المادة الأولى لهذا الطالب معك لا تعرفه جيداً ولكنك تريد منه وضع إعلان علي باب القاعة يفيد بإلغاء محاضرة اليوم. تقول للطالب..

_____

_____

_____

_____

<u>الموقف 4</u>

تأخذ ماده في علم الاجتماع. اثناء المحاضرة, يذكر الدكتور اسم مقالة جديدة بعنوان "الدين والثقافه". انت مهتم بهذا الموضوع فتذهب الى المكتبة لقراءة المقالة. لسوء الحظ, المقالة غير متوفرة فى المكتبة فتقرر استعارتها من الدكتور. هذه الماده الثالثه لك مع هذا الدكتور ولديك علاقه جيده معه. تذهب الى مكتب الدكتور وتقول...

_____

_____

_____

_____

<u>الموقف 5</u>

تشترك فى شقه مع صديق لك منذ سنتين. تعطل الكمبيوتر بينما كنت تعمل على حل واجباتك الدراسية وتريد ان تستخدم كمبيوتر صديقك لتنهى واجباتك. تذهب إليه وتقول...

_____

_____

_____

_____

<u>**الموقف 6**</u>

تساعد جارك, طالب في المرحله الثانويه, في دراسته منذ شهرين الأن. موعدك القادم معه مساء الاثنين. لديك امتحان يوم الثلاثاء وتريد تأجيل موعد الحصه مع جارك لمساء الأربعاء. تقول...

_____

_____

_____

_____

<u>**الموقف 7**</u>

يجب أن تأخذ مادة علم النفس حتى تتخرج. الشعبة التي تناسب وقتك مغلقة وعليك أن تأخذ موافقة الدكتور لإضافتها. لم تلتق هذا الدكتور مسبقاً و لكنك تقرر الذهاب إليه لإضافة المادة. تذهب إلى مكتب الدكتور وتقول...

_____

_____

_____

_____

<u>**الموقف 8**</u>

تواجه صعوبه فى فهم مادة الرياضيات. تسمع ان بعض طلاب الماده قد شكلوا مجموعه دراسيه للتحضير لامتحان منتصف الفصل. لم تتحدث الى هؤلاء الطلبه من قبل لكنك تريد الانضمام الى المجموعه الدراسيه. تذهب الى احد طلاب المجموعه وتقول...

_____

_____

_____

_____

<u>**الموقف 9**</u>

انت دكتور في الجامعة. هذا أول يوم في الفصل الدراسي ولديك ماده لطلاب السنه الآولى. تاتى إلى محاضرة اليوم حاملا الكثير من الكتب والاوراق لمناقشتها مع الطلاب. انتهت المحاضرة وتريد من احد الطلاب ان يساعدك بحمل الكتب الى المكتب. تنظر الى احد الطلاب الواقفين بالقرب منك وتقول...

_____

_____

_____

_____

تاخذ ماده فى "الاداره". الكتاب المقرر غالى الثمن ولن تستخدمه بعد انتهاء هذا الفصل. أحد أصدقائك اخذ نفس الماده الفصل الماضي وتريد استعارة الكتاب منه. تذهب الى صديقك وتقول...

_____

_____

_____

_____

الموقف 11

تسكن في شقه في الطابق الأول. تحاول الدراسه علي امتحان الغد لكنك لا تستطيع التركيز. أولاد جارك , في الصف التاسع والعاشر, يلعبان كرة القدم خلف نافذتك. أنتم جيران منذ أكثر من سنه الأن. تريد منهم أن يلعبو في مكان أخر. تفتح النافذه وتقول...

_____

_____

_____

_____

الموقف 12

سوف تتخرج هذا الفصل وتريد التقديم لبرنامج الماجستير. انت بحاجه الى رسالة توصية لارفاقها مع الطلب وتريد من مشرفك الأكاديمي,والذي تعرفه جيداً, ان يكتبها لك. تذهب الي مكتب الدكتور وتقول...

_____

_____

_____

_____

Appendix F

Discourse Completion Task/English Version

Dear Participant:

The purpose of this study is to investigate cross-cultural differences in speech acts behaviors. This is not a test; there is no right or wrong answer. There are 12 situations in this questionnaire. Please read each situation carefully, and imagine that you are in the same situation. Then, respond naturally using the same language you would use in your daily interaction as if you are talking to a person in front of you.

If you have any questions about any of the situations, please don't hesitate to ask. Thank you for your time.

Example

You are a computer lab supervisor at the university. Two students are talking loudly in the lab. It is obvious that their loud voice is disturbing other students. You go to them and say…

Excuse me guys! Could you please lower your voice; students are trying to concentrate. Thanks.

==

<u>Si</u>**tuation 1**

Tomorrow is the deadline for one of your final papers. You have many other assignments and cannot finish the paper on time. This is your first course with this professor and you have never spoken with him/her before; however, you decide to talk to the professor about an extension on the paper. You go to the professor's office and say…

_____

_____

_____

_____

Situation 2

You are taking a course in "Politics". Last week, you had a bad cold and missed very important classes. You see one of your classmates in the library. You have never spoken with this classmate before but you know that he/she is an excellent student, and you want to copy his/her notebook. You go to your classmate and say…

_____

_____

_____

_____

Situation 3

You are a university professor. You have a department meeting and you have to cancel one of today's classes. One of the course students stops by your office to inquire about one of the requirements. This is the student's first course with you and you don't know him that well. You want the student to post an announcement about canceling today's class at the classroom door. You say…

_____

_____

_____

_____

Situation 4

You are taking a course in sociology. In today's class, the professor mentions a new article "Religion & Culture". You are interested in the topic so you go to the library to read the article. Unfortunately, the library does not have the article, and you decide to borrow it from the professor. This is your third course with this professor and you have a good relationship with him/her. You go to the professor's office and say…

_____

_____

_____

_____

Situation 5

You have been sharing an apartment with a friend for two years now. While you were working on your assignments, your computer stopped working. You want to use your friend's computer and finish your assignments. You go to your friend and say…

_____

_____

_____

_____

Situation 6

You have been helping your neighbor, a high school student, with his/her studies for two months now. Your next meeting with him/her is Monday evening. You have an exam on Tuesday and you want to postpone your appointment with your neighbor till Wednesday evening. You say…

_____

_____

_____

_____

Situation 7

You have to take a course in (psychology) in order to graduate. The section that suits your time is closed and you have to get the professor's permission to add it. You have never met the professor before but you decide to see him/her about adding the course. You go to the professor's office and say…

_____

_____

_____

_____

Situation 8

You are having trouble understanding your (Mathematics) course. You hear that some of the course students have formed a study group to prepare for the midterm exam. You have never spoken with those students before but you decide to talk to them about joining the study group. You approach one of study group students and say…

_____

_____

_____

_____

Situation 9

You are a university professor. This is the first day in the semester and you are teaching a course for first year students. You come to today's class carrying many books and papers to share with students. The class finishes and you want a student to help you carry the books to your office. You look at a student standing close to you and say…

_____

_____

_____

_____

Situation 10

You are taking a course in "Management", and you are required to buy an expensive book. You do not think that you will be using the book after this semester. You want to borrow it from your friend who took the same course last semester. You go to your friend and say…

_____

_____

_____

_____

Situation 11

You are living in a first- floor apartment. You have an exam tomorrow and you are trying to study. You can't focus because your neighbor's kids, in 9th and 10th grades, are playing football outside your window. You have been neighbors for more than a year now. You want to ask them to play somewhere else. You open the window and say…

_____

_____

_____

_____

Situation 12

You are graduating this semester and planning to apply for the Master's program. You need to submit a recommendation letter with the application, and you want your "Academic Advisor", who you know well, to write it for you. You go to the professor's office and say…

_____

_____

_____

_____

Appendix G

Assessment of Contextual Variables/Arabic Version

أرجو أن تقرأ المواقف مرة اخرى وان تقيم المتغيرات التى تتبع كل موقف على مقياس من (1- 5). الرقم (1= الادنى) بينما الرقم (5 = الاعلى). ضع دائره حول الرقم الذى تراه مناسبا.

مثال

أنت مشرف مختبر كمبيوتر في الجامعة. هناك طالبان يتكلمان بصوت مرتفع في المختبر. من الواضح أن صوت الطالبين المرتفع يسبب إزعاجا للطلبة الآخرين. تقترب من الطالبين وتقول...

1. ما مدى المعرفه بين المتحدث والمستمع في هذا الموقف؟

5	4	3	2	**<u>1</u>**
معرفه كبيره				لا يوجد معرفه

2. ما مدى القوه التى يمتلكها المتحدث على المستمع في هذا الموقف ؟

5	**<u>4</u>**	3	2	1
قوة كبيره				لا يوجد قوة

3. ما مدى صعوبة القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

5	4	3	**<u>2</u>**	1
صعوبه كبيره				لا يوجد صعوبه

4. ما مدى حق المتحدث فى القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

<u>5</u>	4	3	2	1
حق كبير				لا يوجد حق

5. هل المستمع ملزم بتنفيذ الطلب في هذا الموقف؟

5	**<u>4</u>**	3	2	1
ملزم جدا				ليس ملزم

===

غداً هو الموعد النهائي لتسليم ورقة بحث في احد المواد. لديك الكثير من الواجبات ولا تستطيع إنهاء البحث في الوقت المحدد. هذه مادتك الأولى مع هذا الدكتور ولم تتحدث اليه مسبقاً, ولكنك تقرر الذهاب إلى مكتبه لاعطائك وقت إضافي لإنهاء البحث.

1. ما مدى المعرفه بين المتحدث والمستمع في هذا الموقف؟

5	4	3	2	1
معرفه كبيره				لا يوجد معرفه

2. ما مدى القوه التى يمتلكها المتحدث على المستمع في هذا الموقف ؟

5	4	3	2	1
قوة كبيره				لا يوجد قوة

3. ما مدى صعوبة القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

5	4	3	2	1
صعوبه كبيره				لا يوجد صعوبه

4. ما مدى حق المتحدث فى القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

5	4	3	2	1
حق كبير				لا يوجد حق

5. هل المستمع ملزم بتنفيذ الطلب في هذا الموقف؟

5	4	3	2	1
ملزم جدا				ليس ملزم

الموقف2

تاخذ مادة "علوم سياسيه". تغيبت عن بعض محاضرات الاسبوع الماضى بسبب نزلة برد شديده. ترى احد طلاب الماده فى المكتبه. لم تتحدث الى هذا الطالب من قبل لكنك تعرف انه طالب جيد وتريد تُصوير دفتره.

1. ما مدى المعرفه بين المتحدث والمستمع في هذا الموقف؟

5	4	3	2	1
معرفه كبيره				لا يوجد معرفه

2. ما مدى القوه التى يمتلكها المتحدث على المستمع في هذا الموقف ؟

5	4	3	2	1
قوة كبيره				لا يوجد قوة

3. ما مدى صعوبة القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

5	4	3	2	1
صعوبه كبيره				لا يوجد صعوبه

4. ما مدى حق المتحدث فى القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

5	4	3	2	1
حق كبير				لا يوجد حق

5. هل المستمع ملزم بتنفيذ الطلب في هذا الموقف؟

5	4	3	2	1
ملزم جدا				ليس ملزم

الموقف 3

أنت دكتور في الجامعة. لديك اجتماع في القسم وتريد إلغاء إحدى محاضرات اليوم. يأتي أحد طلاب المادة إلى مكتبك للسؤال عن احد الواجبات. هذه هي المادة الأولى لهذا الطالب معك لا تعرفه جيداً ولكنك تريد منه وضع إعلان علي باب القاعة يفيد بإلغاء محاضرة اليوم. تقول للطالب.

1. ما مدى المعرفه بين المتحدث والمستمع في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد معرفه				معرفه كبيره

2. ما مدى القوه التى يمتلكها المتحدث على المستمع في هذا الموقف ؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد قوة				قوة كبيره

3. ما مدى صعوبة القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد صعوبه				صعوبه كبيره

4. ما مدى حق المتحدث فى القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد حق				حق كبير

5. هل المستمع ملزم بتتنفيذ الطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
ليس ملزم				ملزم جدا

الموقف 4

تاخذ ماده في علم الاجتماع . اثناء المحاضرة, يذكر الدكتور اسم مقالة جديدة بعنوان "الدين والثقافه". انت مهتم بهذا الموضوع فتذهب الى المكتبة لقراءة المقالة. لسوء الحظ, المقالة غير متوفرة فى المكتبة فتقرر استعارتها من الدكتور. هذه الماده الثالثه لك مع هذا الدكتور ولديك علاقه جيده معه.

1. ما مدى المعرفه بين المتحدث والمستمع في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد معرفه				معرفه كبيره

2. ما مدى القوه التى يمتلكها المتحدث على المستمع في هذا الموقف ؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد قوة				قوة كبيره

3. ما مدى صعوبة القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد صعوبه				صعوبه كبيره

4. ما مدى حق المتحدث فى القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد حق				حق كبير

5. هل المستمع ملزم بتتنفيذ الطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
ليس ملزم				ملزم جدا

الموقف 5

تشترك فى شقه مع صديق لك منذ سنتين. تعطل الكمبيوتر بينما كنت تعمل على حل واجباتك الدراسية وتريد ان تستخدم كمبيوتر صديقك لتنهى واجباتك.

1. ما مدى المعرفه بين المتحدث والمستمع في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد معرفه				معرفه كبيره

2. ما مدى القوه التى يمتلكها المتحدث على المستمع في هذا الموقف ؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد قوة				قوة كبيره

3. ما مدى صعوبة القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد صعوبه				صعوبه كبيره

4. ما مدى حق المتحدث فى القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد حق				حق كبير

5. هل المستمع ملزم بتنفيذ الطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
ليس ملزم				ملزم جدا

الموقف 6

تساعد جارك, طالب في المرحله الثانويه, في دراسته منذ شهرين الأن. موعدك القادم معه مساء الاثنين. لديك امتحان يوم الثلاثاء وتريد تأجيل موعد الحصه مع جارك لمساء الأربعاء. تقول...

1. ما مدى المعرفه بين المتحدث والمستمع في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد معرفه				معرفه كبيره

2. ما مدى القوه التى يمتلكها المتحدث على المستمع في هذا الموقف ؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد قوة				قوة كبيره

3. ما مدى صعوبة القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد صعوبه				صعوبه كبيره

4. ما مدى حق المتحدث فى القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد حق				حق كبير

5. هل المستمع ملزم بتنفيذ الطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
ليس ملزم				ملزم جدا

يجب أن تأخذ مادة علم النفس حتى تتخرج. الشعبة التي تناسب وقتك مغلقة وعليك أن تأخذ موافقة الدكتور لإضافتها. لم تلتق هذا الدكتور مسبقاً و لكنك تقرر الذهاب إليه لإضافة المادة

1. ما مدى المعرفه بين المتحدث والمستمع في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد معرفه				معرفه كبيره

2. ما مدى القوه التى يمتلكها المتحدث على المستمع في هذا الموقف ؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد قوة				قوة كبيره

3. ما مدى صعوبة القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد صعوبه				صعوبه كبيره

4. ما مدى حق المتحدث فى القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد حق				حق كبير

5. هل المستمع ملزم بتنفيذ الطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
ليس ملزم				ملزم جدا

تواجه صعوبه فى فهم مادة الرياضيات. تسمع ان بعض طلاب الماده قد شكلوا مجموعه دراسيه للتحضير لامتحان منتصف الفصل. لم تتحدث الى هؤلاء الطلبه من قبل لكنك تريد الانضمام الى المجموعه الدراسيه.

1. ما مدى المعرفه بين المتحدث والمستمع في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد معرفه				معرفه كبيره

2. ما مدى القوه التى يمتلكها المتحدث على المستمع في هذا الموقف ؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد قوة				قوة كبيره

3. ما مدى صعوبة القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد صعوبه				صعوبه كبيره

4. ما مدى حق المتحدث فى القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد حق				حق كبير

5. هل المستمع ملزم بتنفيذ الطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
ليس ملزم				ملزم جدا

انت دكتور في الجامعة. هذا أول يوم في الفصل الدراسي ولديك ماده لطلاب السنه الآولى. تاتى إلى محاضرة اليوم حاملا الكثير من الكتب والاوراق لمناقشتها مع الطلاب. انتهت المحاضرة وتريد من احد الطلاب ان يساعدك بحمل الكتب الى المكتب. تنظر الى احد الطلاب الواقفين بالقرب منك وتقول...

1. ما مدى المعرفه بين المتحدث والمستمع في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد معرفه				معرفه كبيره

2. ما مدى القوه التى يمتلكها المتحدث على المستمع في هذا الموقف ؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد قوة				قوة كبيره

3. ما مدى صعوبة القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد صعوبه				صعوبه كبيره

4. ما مدى حق المتحدث فى القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد حق				حق كبير

5. هل المستمع ملزم بتنفيذ الطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
ليس ملزم				ملزم جدا

تاخذ ماده فى "الاداره". الكتاب المقرر غالى الثمن ولن تستخدمه بعد انتهاء هذا الفصل. أحد أصدقائك اخذ نفس الماده الفصل الماضي وتريد استعارة الكتاب منه

1. ما مدى المعرفه بين المتحدث والمستمع في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد معرفه				معرفه كبيره

2. ما مدى القوه التى يمتلكها المتحدث على المستمع في هذا الموقف ؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد قوة				قوة كبيره

3. ما مدى صعوبة القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد صعوبه				صعوبه كبيره

4. ما مدى حق المتحدث فى القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
لا يوجد حق				حق كبير

5. هل المستمع ملزم بتنفيذ الطلب في هذا الموقف؟

1	2	3	4	5
ليس ملزم				ملزم جدا

<u>**الموقف 11**</u>

تسكن في شقه في الطابق الأول. تحاول الدراسه علي امتحان الغد لكنك لا تستطيع التركيز. أولاد جارك , في الصف التاسع والعاشر, يلعبان كرة القدم خلف نافذتك. أنتم جيران منذ أكثر من سنه الأن. تريد منهم أن يلعبو في مكان أخر...

1. ما مدى المعرفه بين المتحدث والمستمع في هذا الموقف؟

5	4	3	2	1

معرفه كبيره   لا يوجد معرفه

2. ما مدى القوه التى يمتلكها المتحدث على المستمع في هذا الموقف ؟

5	4	3	2	1

قوة كبيره   لا يوجد قوة

3. ما مدى صعوبة القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

5	4	3	2	1

صعوبه كبيره   لا يوجد صعوبه

4. ما مدى حق المتحدث فى القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

5	4	3	2	1

حق كبير   لا يوجد حق

5. هل المستمع ملزم بتنفيذ الطلب في هذا الموقف؟

5	4	3	2	1

ملزم جدا   ليس ملزم

<u>**الموقف 12**</u>

سوف تتخرج هذا الفصل وتريد التقديم لبرنامج الماجستير. انت بحاجه الى رسالة توصية لارفاقها مع الطلب وتريد من مشرفك الأكاديمي,والذي تعرفه جيداً, ان يكتبها لك

1. ما مدى المعرفه بين المتحدث والمستمع في هذا الموقف؟

5	4	3	2	1

معرفه كبيره   لا يوجد معرفه

2. ما مدى القوه التى يمتلكها المتحدث على المستمع في هذا الموقف ؟

5	4	3	2	1

قوة كبيره   لا يوجد قوة

3. ما مدى صعوبة القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

5	4	3	2	1

صعوبه كبيره   لا يوجد صعوبه

4. ما مدى حق المتحدث فى القيام بالطلب في هذا الموقف؟

5	4	3	2	1

حق كبير   لا يوجد حق

5. هل المستمع ملزم بتنفيذ الطلب في هذا الموقف؟

5	4	3	2	1

ملزم جدا   ليس ملزم

Appendix H

Assessment of Contextual Variables/English Version

Please read each situation and rate the 5 variables that follow on a scale of (1-5). The number *(1 = lowest)* and the number (*5 = highest).* Circle the number that you think most appropriate.

Example

You are a computer lab supervisor at the university. Two students are talking loudly in the lab. It is obvious that their loud voice is disturbing other students. You want them to lower their voice

1) How much familiarity is there between the speaker and the hearer in this situation?

1	2	**3**	4	5
no familiarity				high familiarity

2) How much power does the speaker have over the hearer in this situation?

1	2	3	**4**	5
no power				high power

3) How difficult is making the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	**5**
not difficult				very difficult

4) How much right does the speaker have in making the request in this situation?

1	**2**	3	4	5
no right				strong right

5) What is the hearer's Obligation in carrying out the request in this situation?

1	**2**	3	4	5
no obligation				strong obligation

===

Situation 1

Tomorrow is the deadline for one of your final papers. You have many other assignments and cannot finish the paper on time. This is your first course with this professor and you have never spoken with him/her before; however, you decide to talk to the professor about an extension on the paper.

1) How much familiarity is there between the speaker and the hearer in this situation?
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| no familiarity | | | | high familiarity |

2) How much power does the speaker have over the hearer in this situation?
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| no power | | | | high power |

3) How difficult is making the request in this situation?
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| not difficult | | | | very difficult |

4) How much right does the speaker have in making the request in this situation?
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| no right | | | | strong right |

5) What is the hearer's Obligation in carrying out the request in this situation?
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| no obligation | | | | strong obligation |

Situation 2

You are taking a course in "Politics". Last week, you had a bad cold and missed very important classes. You see one of your classmates in the library. You have never spoken with this classmate before but you know that he/she is an excellent student, and you want to copy his/her notebook.

1) How much familiarity is there between the speaker and the hearer in this situation?
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| no familiarity | | | | high familiarity |

2) How much power does the speaker have over the hearer in this situation?
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| no power | | | | high power |

3) How difficult is making the request in this situation?
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| not difficult | | | | very difficult |

4) How much right does the speaker have in making the request in this situation?
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| no right | | | | strong right |

5) What is the hearer's Obligation in carrying out the request in this situation?
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| no obligation | | | | strong obligation |

Situation 3

You are a university professor. You have a department meeting and you have to cancel one of today's classes. One of the course students stops by your office to inquire about one of the requirements. This is the student's first course with you and you don't know him that well. You want the student to post an announcement about canceling today's class at the classroom door.

1) How much familiarity is there between the speaker and the hearer in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no familiarity				high familiarity

2) How much power does the speaker have over the hearer in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no power				high power

3) How difficult is making the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not difficult				very difficult

4) How much right does the speaker have in making the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no right				strong right

5) What is the hearer's Obligation in carrying out the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no obligation				strong obligation

Situation 4

You are taking a course in sociology. In today's class, the professor mentions a new article "Religion & Culture". You are interested in the topic so you go to the library to read the article. Unfortunately, the library does not have the article, and you decide to borrow it from the professor. This is your third course with this professor and you have a good relationship with him/her

1) How much familiarity is there between the speaker and the hearer in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no familiarity				high familiarity

2) How much power does the speaker have over the hearer in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no power				high power

3) How difficult is making the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not difficult				very difficult

4) How much right does the speaker have in making the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no right				strong right

5) What is the hearer's Obligation in carrying out the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no obligation				strong obligation

Situation 5

You have been sharing an apartment with a friend for two years now. While you were working on your assignments, your computer stopped working. You want to use your friend's computer and finish your assignments.

1) How much familiarity is there between the speaker and the hearer in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no familiarity				high familiarity

2) How much power does the speaker have over the hearer in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no power				high power

3) How difficult is making the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not difficult				very difficult

4) How much right does the speaker have in making the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no right				strong right

5) What is the hearer's Obligation in carrying out the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no obligation				strong obligation

Situation 6

You have been helping your neighbor, a high school student, with his/her studies for two months now. Your next meeting with him/her is Monday evening. You have an exam on Tuesday and you want to postpone your appointment with your neighbor till Wednesday evening.

1) How much familiarity is there between the speaker and the hearer in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no familiarity				high familiarity

2) How much power does the speaker have over the hearer in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no power				high power

3) How difficult is making the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not difficult				very difficult

4) How much right does the speaker have in making the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no right				strong right

5) What is the hearer's Obligation in carrying out the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no obligation				strong obligation

Situation 7

You have to take a course in (psychology) in order to graduate. The section that suits your time is closed and you have to get the professor's permission to add it. You have never met the professor before but you decide to see him/her about adding the course.

1) How much familiarity is there between the speaker and the hearer in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no familiarity				high familiarity

2) How much power does the speaker have over the hearer in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no power				high power

3) How difficult is making the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not difficult				very difficult

4) How much right does the speaker have in making the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no right				strong right

5) What is the hearer's Obligation in carrying out the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no obligation				strong obligation

Situation 8

You are having trouble understanding your (Mathematics) course. You hear that some of the course students have formed a study group to prepare for the midterm exam. You have never spoken with those students before but you decide to talk to them about joining the study group.

1) How much familiarity is there between the speaker and the hearer in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no familiarity				high familiarity

2) How much power does the speaker have over the hearer in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no power				high power

3) How difficult is making the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not difficult				very difficult

4) How much right does the speaker have in making the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no right				strong right

5) What is the hearer's Obligation in carrying out the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no obligation				strong obligation

Situation 9

You are a university professor. This is the first day in the semester and you are teaching a course for first year students. You come to today's class carrying many books and papers to share with students. The class finishes and you want a student to help you carry the books to your office. You look at a student standing close to you and say…

1) How much familiarity is there between the speaker and the hearer in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no familiarity				high familiarity

2) How much power does the speaker have over the hearer in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no power				high power

3) How difficult is making the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not difficult				very difficult

4) How much right does the speaker have in making the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no right				strong right

5) What is the hearer's Obligation in carrying out the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no obligation				strong obligation

Situation 10

You are taking a course in "Management", and you are required to buy an expensive book. You do not think that you will be using the book after this semester. You want to borrow it from your friend who took the same course last semester.

1) How much familiarity is there between the speaker and the hearer in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no familiarity				high familiarity

2) How much power does the speaker have over the hearer in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no power				high power

3) How difficult is making the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not difficult				very difficult

4) How much right does the speaker have in making the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no right				strong right

5) What is the hearer's Obligation in carrying out the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no obligation				strong obligation

Situation 11

You are living in a first- floor apartment. You have an exam tomorrow and you are trying to study. You can't focus because your neighbor's kids, in 9th and 10th grades, are playing football outside your window. You have been neighbors for more than a year now. You want them to play somewhere else. You open the window and say…

1) How much familiarity is there between the speaker and the hearer in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no familiarity				high familiarity

2) How much power does the speaker have over the hearer in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no power				high power

3) How difficult is making the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not difficult				very difficult

4) How much right does the speaker have in making the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no right				strong right

5) What is the hearer's Obligation in carrying out the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no obligation				strong obligation

Situation 12

You are graduating this semester and planning to apply for the Master's program. You need to submit a recommendation letter with the application, and you want your "Academic Advisor", who you know well, to write it for you.

1) How much familiarity is there between the speaker and the hearer in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no familiarity				high familiarity

2) How much power does the speaker have over the hearer in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no power				high power

3) How difficult is making the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not difficult				very difficult

4) How much right does the speaker have in making the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no right				strong right

5) What is the hearer's Obligation in carrying out the request in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
no obligation				strong obligation

Appendix I

Phonetic Transcription of Arabic Sounds

Symbol	Arabic Symbol	Description
?	ء	Glottal Stop
θ	ث	Voiceless Dental Fricative
H	ح	Voiceless Pharyngeal Fricative
x	خ	Voiceless Velar Fricative
ð	ذ	Voiced dental Fricative
sh	ش	Voiceless Postvelar Fricative
S	ص	Voiceless Postdental Fricative (emphatic)
dh	ض	Voiceless Postdental Stop (emphatic)
T	ط	Voiceless Postdental Stop (emphatic)
đ	ظ	Voiceless Interdental Fricative (emphatic)
3	ع	Voiced Pharyngeal Fricative
gh	غ	Voiceless Velar Fricative
q	ق	Voiceless Uvular Stop