The Use of Request Strategies by Second Language Learners In A Global Community (A Multicultural Setting Of A Higher Education Institution)

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The study is about the choice of request strategies used by second language speakers residing in the UK, particularly in a multicultural setting situated in an institution of higher learning in Sheffield. The aim of the study is to examine the choice of request strategies used by second language learners in a multicultural environment in an English speaking country. The objectives of the study are to consider the different strategies used by the second language learners and to also examine the variables that might influence the choice of request strategies used. The variables that have been identified are the social distance, power and dominance, gender and status. The participants of this study were volunteers from the MA of Education programme. The data collection involved two different phases and the first phase was the survey with the use of Discourse Completion (DCT) as the instrument. The second phase of the data collection was a few session follow-up discussion with a few groups of participants who have volunteered during the administration of the survey. The findings of the study have initiated the formulation of the Cooperative Intercultural Pragmatics of Request Strategies Model that has integrated three theories which are the Hofstede’s National Culture Dimension, Blum-Kulka’s Request Strategies (Level of Directness) and Grice’s Maxims of Cooperative Principle. This model was used to justify and rationalise the findings for the third research question that examines the four variables that may have influenced the choice of request strategies used by the participants. The study has also recommended a few future researches that can be carried out as a follow up.
The first thing I would like to thank is Allah (swt) for giving me the strength and the will to complete this thesis. I would not be able to this do on my own and with His blessings I have managed to get this far. A million thanks to my children; Iman, Shahiran and Ikhwan for being here with me and I would not be able to go through this if it were not for you. You are my inspiration, my strength and my motivation. I would also like to thank my parents for all the duaa (prayers) and for all the words of encouragement, may Allah bless both of you always.

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Last but not least, I would like to thank my sisters in the Department of Educational Studies, you are wonderful and I really appreciate what you have done for me!
Key to the transcription

{} overlapping speech
[] transcriber’s clarification
/?/ inaudible word or phrase
// apparent utterance
-- abrupt break in speech
== material omitted from the original for the sake of brevity and irrelevance in this analysis
apostrophe omitted vowel or consonant sound
comma pause (less than a second)
period terminal intonation fall
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Acknowledgement

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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

...walk and talk in humility.
Al-Quran 31:19

1.1 Background of the Thesis

The broad context of this thesis is the notion of the need to be able to communicate in a language other than one’s own mother tongue. The focus of this study is on second language speakers who have ventured out of their own country and comfort zone, in pursuit of a better future, be it for the sake of education, economy or entertainment.

I am inspired to pursue this study as I am also part of this phenomenon, a second language speaker who is now leaving in a foreign country, in pursuit of a better future for the sake of education. As a second language speaker, there are several challenges that I have faced particularly where interacting with the locals is concerned. The one thing I find very intimidating is the idea of going around asking for information which was the first week upon my arrival here in the UK. Hence, I have decided to pursue this particular field and conduct a study based on making requests.

This study is to focus upon differences in the choice of request strategies opted by second language learners in a higher education institution with a multilingual and multicultural setting. It has been observed by several studies carried out in this field that second language learners would probably choose different types of strategies when making requests. Apart from identifying the request strategies, I also aim to examine the linguistic forms that are being used by second
language learners when making requests and whether they vary them according to the social events presented to them. At the same time, I am also concerned with the manner as to how a second language learner would address their hearer within the social context, for instance how they would request information or favours from strangers or friends or families or from someone who has a higher position, with regard to social status. In addition to that, I would also like to find out why they chose to utter their requests as in the way they did and what motivates them. The setting that I have decided to choose for this study is of course in the UK, particularly Sheffield, because this is where it all began. Therefore, having listed all these questions and concerns, it is only fair to look into the general perspective of what this study entails.

1.2 General Overview of the Study

As established earlier in the chapter, the study aims to explore the requestive behaviour of second language learners in a multicultural setting. Prior to that exploration, however, there is a need to understand the phenomenon that provokes the second language learner to move out of their place of birth and venture out to a different country for the betterment of their future.

Meierkord (cf. Kotthoff & Spencer-Oatey, 2009) claims that this phenomenon has resulted in a need for a lingua franca that can assist in easing the path of second language speakers to communicate and survive in international settings, a lingua franca that can be used to ensure that some form of interaction can be achieved across speech community boundaries within the respective countries. One of the most popular lingua francas would of course be the English language, as many English-speaking countries are considered as targets by most citizens of the world in pursuance of a better life.
A lingua franca is seen as a fundamental requirement for second language speakers to interact and a basic necessity in order to survive in their new environment. The ability to communicate is a skill which should not be taken for granted. Simple enquiries such as a friend asking for favours from another friend, a boy demanding a toy from a mother, a boss asking his or her subordinate to make coffee and so forth are some communication events that require a considerable amount of skill from a speaker. It takes more than just stringing a few words together to get the message across; the speaker needs to deliberate on a number of factors before verbalizing any form of utterance.

This may appear to be a simple task, but a second language speaker, who might not have much exposure to the lingua franca used in a particular country, might find it a little daunting. Some may think that it should not be that difficult, that one could just translate from one’s mother tongue to the target language easily. Unfortunately, translation may not be a very accurate solution as it might not turn out to be appropriate to utter a certain statement or the most unwanted outcome might not be as polite, or worse the hearer might get offended or annoyed, especially if the speaker is asking for something or some urgent information. The result may even be catastrophic.

Breede (cf. Jarman, 2009) has discovered that international students have difficulties in adapting to the language used in the country where they choose to pursue their academic interests. Some students who cannot cope with the language have actually given up and left to their own home countries. Hence, it is imperative for a second language speaker to know the requirements they
would need in order to survive in a foreign country especially when it comes to interacting with locals.

The above discussion summarises what has inspired me to design this study to come to a better understanding of the intricacies of intercultural communication particularly among second language learners. The setting that I have chosen for this study is a multi-ethnic environment situated in an institution of higher learning, in an English speaking country, in the UK. The choice was made in the hope that I have access to the right environment to collect my data and that I am on familiar terms with the current condition of this particular field.

A number of studies have been dedicated to understanding the skill required in ensuring that communication is a success. Elaborate theories have been developed to identify the intricacies involved in communication. Language is developed as a tool to express thoughts, feelings and to communicate, in order to impress upon someone, either by expressing a verbal, mental or a given stimulus to seek response. Green (1996) accentuated that communication presupposes achievement of the intended effect of verbal action upon the addressee, of users being aware of using language, not only for the sake of the utterance of words but also for taking actions or responding to them as well.

1.3 Pragmatics

In sociolinguistics, this form of language use is identified as pragmatics. Sperber and Wilson (1989) define pragmatics as a theory of utterance-interpretation:
Utterances convey information which is conceptual, intentionally communicated and linguistically encoded and which is processed in the context of additional conceptual material retrieved or derived from memory. An adequate pragmatic theory should incorporate a general account of the processing of conceptual information in a context and a particular account of whatever special principles and problems are involved in the processing of information that has been intentionally and linguistically, communicated (p.67).

In the field of pragmatic study, this particular usage is known as the speech act; a study of how people obtain desired results with language. Studies of non-native language speakers’ perception and performance of speech acts have been carried out from various disciplines, for instance, from the philosophical area of study conducted by Strawson (1964) and Habermas (1970), from the linguistic perspectives conducted by Sadock (1974) and this has continued until the present and I have listed a few more in Chapter 2.

Grice (1957), Austin (1962), and Searle (1969), among other distinctive theorists in pragmatics, had agreed on the notion of speech act. “...the nature of which is to be explained by a specification of the constitutive rules which govern each such act and on which the possibility of performing the act that depends.” (Grice, 1989 p.19)
1.4 The Speech Act

Many different types of speech acts have been identified by linguists. Grice (1957) was very much focused on the study of meaning where speakers’ perceptions are concerned. His theory of meaning evolved around “semantic notions that can be explicated in terms of psychological notions” (cited from Grandy and Warner, 2004 p. 2). He divided meaning into two different parts, an utterer’s meaning and an utterer’s type meaning. An utterer’s meaning reflects the grammatical mood of the speaker’s intention. (refer to Chapter 2) On the other hand, an utterer’s type meaning is used to explicate meaning for unstructured utterance –types which are non-sentential in nature. In order to explain this notion, Grice uses flag signals in a yacht race where the colour of a flag indicates a certain warning sign, e.g a blue flag means ten minutes to start. These signals are very much influenced by his Cooperative Principle that proposed 4 maxims: the Maxim of Quantity, the Maxim of Quality, the Maxim of Relevance and the Maxim of Manners. Apart from meaning, Grice believed that each utterance must be within the Cooperative Principle’s domain where the speaker would have to consider factors that may be accepted by the purpose of the conversation (1957). Respectively, each maxim addresses different domains; the Maxim of Quantity means that the contribution made by speakers should be as informative as is required. A further explanation given by Grice (1989) regarding this Maxim lies in this description.

If you are assisting me to mend a car, I expect your contribution to be neither more nor less than is required. If, for example, at a particular stage I need four screws, I expect you to hand me four, rather than two or six. (p.28)
The second Maxim observes the domain of Quality. It means that the information that is provided by the speaker must be true and with adequate evidence. Further description of this domain is as follows.

I expect your contribution to be genuine and not spurious. If I need sugar as an ingredient in the cake you are assisting me to make, I do not expect you to hand me salt; if I need a spoon I do not expect a trick spoon made of rubber. (Grice, 1989 p. 28)

The third Maxim refers to the Relevance of the information provided by the speaker. The description of the maxim given by Grice (1989) is as below.

I expect a partner’s contribution to be appropriate to the immediate needs at each stage of the transaction. If I am mixing ingredients for a cake, I do not expect to be handed a good book, or even an oven cloth (though this might be an appropriate contribution to a later stage) (p.28).

Grice’s (1989) final Maxim is in reference to the Manner whereby the information given by the speaker must be perspicuous. The information provided must avoid obscurity of expression, avoid ambiguity, must be brief (to avoid unnecessary prolixity and must also be orderly. A further explanation is as follows:

I expect a partner to make it clear what contribution he is making and to execute his performance with reasonable dispatch. (p.28)

Grice considered these analogies as relevant to what he would like to establish as Cooperative Principles that would clarify some of the assumptions made where implicature is concerned.
Implicature, as defined by Davis (1988) is when an interlocutor says something but is actually meaning or implying something else. Grice’s definition is a bit complex. He defines implicature as when an interlocutor utters a perceptual locution whose truth condition may be false or doubtful. In other words, the utterance may have an underlining meaning which require the hearer to interpret its implied meaning.

Austin (1962) in his seminal book (the book consist of a series of lectures delivered by Austin at the University of Harvard in 1955) entitled ‘How to do things with words’, stated that one of the old-age enigmas of philosophy is “how to bridge the gap between language and reality” which resulted in the emergence of a representation of the function of language that is more than mere of words and sentences put together but more of what deed or act that the language wants to achieve.

He further argued that every time a speaker says something he/she is not merely producing sounds but in actual fact is performing an action and that is what Austin termed as performative. Among some of the examples given for this act are to give an order or command, baptize, apologize and others. Apart from performatives, Austin considered another aspect of language act that he considers crucial to be the constative utterance. This form of utterance can either be perceived as true or false unlike performatives which can never be either. Under the right conditions constative utterances can be true. An example that can illustrate this statement is: I name this baby girl ‘Gloria’. In this instance the speaker is actually performing the act of naming and thus, from that moment onwards the baby will be called Gloria. This will be considered as
false if there is no baby present or if the baby has already been given a different name prior to the speaker’s act. I will be explaining more of Austin’s theory in Chapter 2.

On the other hand, Searle (1969) has a more refined understanding as to what the speech act is about. He introduces important and necessary modifications into the Gricean account and then makes use of the results in his own account of the structure of illocutionary acts. He proposed five types of speech acts which are representatives, directives, commissives, expressives and declaratives. Searle’s theory will be further discussed in Chapter 2 and a detailed explanation of each of the speech acts will be presented.

1.5 Politeness

With the concept of the speech act established, another concern emerged in the field of pragmatics which was identified as politeness theory. Grice (1975), Lakoff (1974), Leech (1980) as well as Brown and Levinson (1987) have produced theories and evidence to support the existence of politeness universals in cross-cultural studies. Research in this area bloomed and expanded to include not only native speakers of English but various other languages as well. Some comparative studies have also been conducted which have involved more than a few other languages. Blum-Kulka (1987) ascertained that adherence to the pragmatic clarity of a message is an essential part of politeness and it is defined as the interactional balance achieved between two needs, pragmatic clarity and non-coerciveness. Thus, various discoveries were made about differences in types of speech acts performed - where politeness theory is concerned - by non-native speakers coming from various language backgrounds and target languages (Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper, 1989).
1.6 The Request

One aspect of the speech act which is considered as quite popular in the arena of pragmatic research is the request. The Cross Cultural Speech Act Realisation Project (CCSARP) initiated by a group of researchers including Shoshana Blum-Kulka, aimed to unveil the anonymity of request making in eight languages. Among them were Australian English, American English, British English, Canadian French, Danish, German, Hebrew and Russian (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984). The result of this study revealed several issues among them the issue of universality which relates to the degree and possible nature of cross-cultural variance in speech act realisation. This issue is still considered an enigma to many researchers in this field until today. Another aspect which is not considered in the CCSARP study is the involvement of meaning. Grice would have reiterated that the presence of meaning would contribute far more understanding to the hearer than just a mere utterance of politeness (1985).

Little research on meaning in the realisation of request making has been conducted in a multicultural, multiethnic environment. Most of the research mentioned earlier in this chapter was done in isolation where native and non-native speakers used the request just among themselves and with less regard to the meaning of their utterances.

Considering requests as part of our daily interaction, it would be interesting to explore the request strategies chosen by speakers in a multicultural and multiethnic setting.
1.7 Statement of the Problem

The study of requests, according to Blum-Kulka et al. (1984), is based on the supposition that observed diversity in the realization of speech acts in context may stem from at least three different types of variability: intra-cultural ability, cross-cultural variability and last but not least, individual variability.

Intra-cultural ability, or situational variability, implicates systematic differences in the realisation patterns of speech acts, depending upon the social constraints embedded in the situation (Blum-Kulka et al., 1984)

In reference to the above quotation, Blum-Kulka et al. (1984) claim that people react differently when faced with different situations. Thus, intra-cultural ability is seen as an important skill needed by speakers, especially second language speakers, to enable them to identify which response would best fit any situation that they are in. This skill will ensure that they will not offend or irritate other people.

Cross-cultural variability looks at the tendency to express requests more, or less, directly by one member of one culture than members of another culture within the same set of social constraints. Individual variability plays an important role in regards to continuous variation in speech act realisation patterns by individuals within the same society. This variability depends on individual personal variables, such as gender, age or level of education.
Observational design can highlight the speech realization act of request making among second language learners from different cultural and ethnic backgrounds. My study attempts to investigate the use of requests in the learning environment (context) of a multicultural and multilingual setting where students who are second language speakers, from all over the world gather for the sake of seeking knowledge. It is hypothesized that these students may interact in a manner which might be slightly different due to various factors such as cultural backgrounds, social status and level of education. However, despite these differences there seems to be some neutral ground that allows these individuals to be able to communicate and hence, maintain solidarity within the communication context.

As established earlier in this chapter, a form of intercultural communication competence is considered imperative to second language learners to survive in a foreign country. A few theories in intercultural communication have been made popular and among them are Spencer-Oatey & Kotthoff’s (2009) who define intercultural communication as something that is concerned with communication across cultures and Gudykunst (2000) who considers that the study of intercultural communication involves observing the social behaviour of interlocutors from different cultures engaged in a social interaction. It is interesting to note here that in examining the communication behaviour of different cultures in an interaction, there must be some form of shared understanding where meaning is concerned. This shared understanding of meaning then would have resulted in a sense of belonging that each culture may experience in every encounter. Schutz (1972) defines this notion of shared understanding as a reciprocity of perspectives and Hofstede (2001) defines this as the mental programme each individual has when interacting with another individual from a different culture. Jarman (2003) considers Hofstede’s National Culture
Dimensions as an achievement that has attracted many big businesses who are interested in the field of intercultural communication. Cronje (2010) reiterates that Hofstede’s five cultural dimensions to be the most comprehensive model that can actually accommodate most culture that it has been applied to. The five dimensions formulated by Hofstede are Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Individualism versus Collectivism, Masculinity versus Femininity and Long Term versus Short Term Orientation. These dimensions are the result of a longitudinal study that took him more than a decade to complete and the study comprised of more than 70 countries. The first dimension, Power Distance, refers to the acceptance and expectation that power is unequally distributed between members of a society. The second dimension, Uncertainty Avoidance, refers to the extent a culture programmes its members to feel comfortable or uncomfortable with unstructured situations. The third dimension, Individualism versus Collectivism, refers to the degree which individuals look after themselves in a group. The fourth dimension, Masculinity versus Femininity, refers to the emotional roles between the two genders. The final dimension, Long Term versus Short Term Orientation, refers to the extent culture programmes it members to accept delayed gratification of their needs be they material, social or emotional. These dimensions will be further explained in Chapter Two.

Taking into consideration all the aspects pertaining to second language speakers, pursuing their academic interest particularly, in a foreign country, there is a need to recognise factors that they have used in order to survive in a country that is new to them.

This study, therefore, is dedicated to deliberate and unveil the manner in which request strategies are used when different cultures meet and interact. This study aims to also explore the
differences that may occur in social interactions and the meaning behind each choice, given the situational context, in terms of interactions with peers, families and superiors. In addition, it will also take into consideration the solidarity aspect of request making opted for by these ethnic groups to safe-guard both cultures involved and maintain harmony within the society.

1.8 Objective of the study

This research aims to study the following three research questions.

1. What are the request strategies chosen by students from different linguistic backgrounds?

2. How are the request strategies used by these students different?
   a) How do they vary their request strategies?
   b) Why are they different?

3. How do the aspects of social distance (SD), power and dominance (D), gender and status, influence these request strategies?

1.9 Significance of the Study

The significance of this study lies in its focus upon differences in the choice of request strategies opted by second language learners in a higher education institution within a multilingual and multicultural setting. It is hypothesized that participants may choose different types of request strategies in interaction. In addition, the study aims to look at exactly how different the strategy types are and whether the strategy types differ according to varying situations. Furthermore, the study will explore how the strategies chosen by the students reflect social dominance and social distance. It also aims to consider what lies beyond the choices made by the second language
speakers and the meaning behind their use, as this is another aspect that may need to be included in any research pertaining to speech act study, since little has been explored within such global communities.

The study is also significant and relevant to the faculty (Kulliyyah of Languages and Management, International Islamic University, Malaysia) that I am attached to at present. The outcome of this study will assist in the teaching and learning practices which I plan to adapt as part of the curriculum for an undergraduate programme that the Kulliyyah has established, specifically English for International Communication, one of the programmes offered by the Kulliyyah for undergraduates. One of the outcomes of my study is that I have constructed a model that acts as a system that would help the students of this programme to be competent in managing themselves and communicating with the global society. A similar project has been conducted in Hildersheim University, Germany and the University of Applied Sciences in Zwickau (cf. Jarman, 2012). One part of the project that was considered highly important for their students focused mainly on the linguistic aspects of intercultural communication. The students were given theoretical input of an everyday phenomenon as a stimulus and they were asked to react according to the national language used in that particular country. Later, they were asked to reflect and compare their cultural and semantic observations or experiences based on the observations and perceptions they made during their stay in that country. This project has helped students of both universities to cope with language challenges that they may face during their stay abroad.
I aim to adapt a similar project with the model constructed from this study. The focus will be on the pragmatic aspect of the language, particularly in making requests. I will elaborate more of this in Chapter Two.

1.10 A Summary of the Thesis

The thesis aims to explore an important aspect of the pragmatic competence of Second Language speakers (L2) within a multicultural setting. The aspect of pragmatic competence measured in this thesis are specifically request strategies, an aspect of Speech Acts that is considered quite popular among cross cultural studies.

This study highlights the use of request strategies in a multicultural setting that reflects a global environment, particularly due to fact that the setting that I have chosen promotes diversity in every possible aspect. The study was conducted in a higher education institution and the participants selected have different backgrounds, pertaining to nationality, culture and values.

The study is divided into two separate phases where data collection is concerned. The first phase involves a questionnaire completed in a single setting. The second phase involves focus group discussions and interviews, conducted in a multiple setting as these rely very much on the participants’ availability.

The findings of this study will be analysed (Chapter Four) basically to examine the choice of request strategies used by the participants. It is expected that the participants make different
choices when carrying out their requests and they may have different reasons to justify their choices. Apart from that, the data will also be analysed via a model that I have designed and named as the Cooperative Intercultural Pragmatics of Request Strategies Model (CIPRS). This comprises three different theories integrated and formed as a system that I hope will assist in justifying how requests are used within the context that I have selected for my study. The theories integrated are Hofstede’s National Culture Dimensions, Blum-Kulka’s Request Strategies and Grice’s Cooperative Maxims. This model was created to address the final research question where I hope to rationalise how aspects of social distance (SD), power and dominance (D), gender and status, influence the participants’ choice of request strategies.

In conclusion, what can be derived from this study is that in every part of the analysis of the findings there seems to be only one concern that each of the participants was anxious to preserve and that is to maintain solidarity in every single situation that was presented to them. Truthfully, I find this very endearing.

1.11 The Structure and Organisation of the Thesis

The thesis is structured in a very simple and concise arrangement. The description of each chapter is as follows.

1.11.1 Chapter One

As this is an introductory chapter, it basically consists of the background of the study, statement of study, research questions among others.
1.11.2 Chapter Two

This chapter contains a lengthy discussion of important related studies and has been put together to give a clearer background information as to how this research has been organised and presented.

1.11.3 Chapter Three

This chapter discusses the methodology used in this study and some related literature of the methods that have been selected to conduct the study itself.

1.11.4. Chapter Four

This chapter elaborates on the findings and discussion of the study. The chapter rationalises the data that have been collected and the Cooperative Intercultural Pragmatics of Request Strategies Model (CIPRS) is introduced as a system that is used as a form of feedback, a means of a social affective resonance.

1.11.5 Chapter Five

As the final chapter, this chapter not only concludes the study but will also include a reflective discussion of the experience that I had gone through as a researcher. Some consideration of future research that can be done to further pursue the area of this study will also be included.
1.12 Positionality

It is important to discuss my positionality in this study because it plays an important role in the inception and direction of this thesis. I am also making my positionality explicit to others because it is impossible to maintain neutrality and objectivity in the evaluation of this study.

I have always been interested in cross-cultural studies and I find this area of study fascinating. Apart from that as a faculty member in an International Islamic University in Malaysia, we aspire to produce graduates who are culturally agile, communicatively competent and able to function in any part of the world. I am almost certain the outcome of this study will be useful in helping foreign students to cope with the environment that they have chosen in pursuit of their academic endeavours. The system that I have formulated from this study will, I hope, assist in giving them a set of ideas to help smoothen their years living in a foreign country, especially with regard to intercultural communication. As established earlier in this chapter, I would like to create a project that will be included as part of the curriculum the Kulliyyah (faculty) is offering at the undergraduate level. Since my study considers the use of request strategies in a multicultural environment, the project that I am hoping to create will expose the students to the choice of request strategies that this study has unveiled as well as the justification of the choices made. The project will also provide them with a proper stimulus to allow them to experience the situations that they might later on encounter in their daily interactions. A form of feedback to the stimulus would also be introduced to the students that would allow them to share their responses with their peers. I sincerely, wish this project to be a successful model in providing our students the insights that they need and as educators, according to Koester and Lustig (2015), “we simply
want to help our students to do well and we learn to be successful by studying and modelling those whom we regard as successful” (p.2).

Thus, I consider my research as a very important contribution to my faculty as well as to my University.
CHAPTER TWO

Literature review

...and speak nicely to people.
(Al-Quran 2:83)

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is a literature review for a study that I have conducted. In this chapter I will present the theoretical background that will explain the relevance of each theory with regards to my analysis of the data that I have collected for the purpose of this study. The theories discussed in this chapter will also assist in justifying the model I have formulated as one of the results that have emerged from this study. Some of the major theories discussed are the speech act theories of Grice, Austin and Searle, Blum-Kulka request strategies and Hofstede’s National Dimension.

This study is inspired by globalisation, particularly the need to get a better perspective on intercultural communication and its intricacies. Starke-Meyerring et al. (2007) have highlighted that the process of globalisation is influencing society around the world. They note that local communities are “increasingly being influenced by global governance institutions and policies as well as by policies and practices in other countries (e.g. labor laws, environmental regulations), [so] local deliberation and engagement alone will not suffice to influence these policies and practices” (p. 143). Hence, there is a great need to not only be able to converse in a multicultural setting but also a need to understand the society of that particular environment. Herrington (2010) has also concurred that those who are drawn into working in an environment that involves communicating with global citizens would have to agree that it is of great advantage to be able to create an amicable global networking. In addition to the networking
advantage it would also be beneficial if system that could be further developed used for the purpose of teaching and learning. This would provide some kind of an artificial stimulus that could help future generations.

The idea of a world without barriers is eagerly welcomed by the citizens of the world who are seeking for a better future not necessarily in the country they are born in. The fervour to seek a better fortune embraces the notion of globalisation, the concept of a world without barriers, the freedom to build a life in a different environment, motivating people to go beyond their boundaries. Hence, a question that arises from this would be what entails this glorious, well embraced, notion of globalisation and how does it work? Herrington (2010) considers a few more questions that I find related to the core purpose of my study. She raises a few questions that are rather thought provoking which are “What are the advantages of global partnerships, pedagogically, programmatically, and practically, and what bases do they offer for further project and program development, whether local or global? What ways does making use of cross-disciplinarity, cultural diversity, and experiential learning enhance the learning process?” (Herrington, 2010, p. 519). These are some of the questions that have inspired the emergence of my present study, a study that revolves around the idea of maintaining solidarity in everyday discourse in a multicultural setting of an English speaking country.

Primarily, before proceeding into a further discussion of what the study entails, there is a need to come to an understanding of what is central to the very idea of this study. Hence, the following are a few factors that I consider fundamental.
2.2 Definition of Globalisation

There has been quite a strain in grasping a universal definition for globalisation. It is not only vague but rather elusive as well, in a sense that it can be seen emerging in different forms depending upon very much the contexts it emerges from. Different contexts give it a different definition altogether. Numerous researchers have attempted to define the term in their own respective context and despite having gone through vast theoretical and empirical discussions on that topic, there seems to be a difficulty in actually agreeing to one in particular. Sifianou (2013) has concurred that globalisation is fashionable, highly contested and variably used. Garret (2010) and Strange (1996) have come to a consensus that the term globalisation is vague and elusive and that it could be referring to anything which consequently is open to any form of interpretations. Another consideration to the attempt of defining the term is devised by Held et al. (2003) and Turner (2010) who have concurred that globalisation is referred to the rapid progress of practises that are interrelated in every aspect of social life. This is considered apt as globalisation has an impact on everything that is happening in this world worth paying attention to.

From a different perspective, studies on globalisation have been carried out to gain further insight into this complex and intricate phenomenon. The notion of globalisation has brought forth an increase in intercultural contacts. Block (2004) has accentuated that, for some, it would be within the contexts where individuals participate; for instance intercultural contacts via the internet for business purposes or entertainment. A fascinating notion which has inspired me to pursue this study, is the dynamic process of interactions between local cultures and global endeavours. Turner (2010) stated that studies that have been done on globalisation have yielded a
mix result, some were very positive while others were not very keen of the phenomenon. Either way, he seemed to be quite in favour of the new emergence of an interaction concept between the local cultures and the global processes. He went on to recommend that this should not be something that should be dismissed and should be given some thorough inspection so that it could be understood and imparted. In other words, as Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999, p.81) have asserted, globalisation could be perceived as the clash between the local and global. Androutsopoulos (2010, p. 204) has perceived the whole process as “[g]lobalization is not a unidirectional process by which linguistic or cultural elements are diffused and uncritically adopted”. In Coupland’s (2010, p.5) words, globalisation is better seen as “a complex of processes through which difference as well as uniformity is generated, but in relation to each other”. The last two definitions also raise the issue of globalisation being a process rather than an end state (Meyerhoff and Niedzielski, 2003:537).

2.1.1 Globalisation within the context of Politeness Theory

In the context of my study, the definition of globalisation is geared towards sharing the concept of maintaining solidarity. As the study is very much designed to consider a language performance that is inclined towards the study of speech act, a global understanding of what maintaining solidarity is about is fundamental. Politeness, in relation to the understanding of politeness in maintaining solidarity, emerges within the society itself as a form of macro emergence which is then expanded to a global context. Hence, in consideration of the present study, I have considered that where politeness is concerned in a globalised context it is safe to define it as something that originates from a particular society an individual belongs to, emerging from a local context, which later is then transferred to a global setting where it is scrutinised and
analysed by global citizens, by means of resonance process. If it does not conflict with the other members of the global society then it is or will be accepted as a shared understanding, mutual in maintaining solidarity. This is definitely a definition that requires more exploration.

2.2 Social Affective Resonance

I find this concept very interesting and intriguing and I have come to a certain understanding that this mechanism is the very thing that is used to aid the survival of a system in societies everywhere. Hofstede (2001) have established that individuals of a society have some sort of a mental programme that they carry around in their mind to be used as a guide especially when it comes to interaction within a society. This mental programme is not the kind that remains stagnant but it keeps changing, revising and adding new information as the individual progress throughout his/her life. The changing, revising and adding of information is a process that can only be successful if these individuals receive some form of feedback or responses from the society that they are living in. The society will be the one responsible to provide these feedback and responses that will enable these individual to create a database of shared information, shared values and shared understanding of the do’s and the don’ts and the why and the wherefores. This dynamic process, of which I have interpreted it as a form of social affective resonance, would allow inputs based on observations, experiences and actions that these individuals would have to go through in order to improve this mental programme. These inputs would later on be used to produce outputs that would help these individuals to survive in their respective societies. I find this evident in my study, especially in the focus group discussion, the participants had actually verbalise this process when they shared their experiences and their observations, it seemed as if they were recalling what they have in their mental programme when justifying their
choice of request strategies they have used in the study. I will explain more of these findings in my Chapter 4. In the following section, I will further elaborate as to how this process originates from and also to look into the perspective of globalisation as this is also part of the things that I have included in my study.

2.3.1 Shared Understanding

Global society has a role in deciding what would deemed to be appropriate and acceptable to be practised, especially when it comes to interaction. In order for this decision to take place, there must be some form of consent that is utilised, which would come from a shared understanding or belief, some form of a formula that can be accepted by the global community. Hence, for a shared understanding of the accepted form of global meaning of politeness theory to emerge or accepted, there must be some form of consent process that would have to take place. In this study, I have considered that the form of process that might be plausible to rationalise my research is the social affective resonance, a form of communicative network that will respond either positively or negatively to the localised practice of politeness theory in maintaining solidarity brought forth in a globalised setting.

In relation to what I have considered for my study, a few consideration from other studies have been collected to support my contention. Jaworski (2014) has claimed that everyone who frequents or visits a place would definitely have some form of connection with everything else that is present at the location, for instance, the local people (as in the community), buildings, shops, landscapes among others. Scollon & Scollon (2004) term it as a gathering of people, places, discourses and objects in a particular daily event that may leave a certain impact on the
individuals who are present at that moment of time. This notion has also been affirmed by Blommaert (2010) where he claims that each social event fosters some form of imagination that multiplies within space and time frames that may create a certain process that Foucault (1986) refers to as a form of \textit{“heterotopias, that is, places where all the other real sites that can be found within the culture are simultaneously represented, contested, and inverted”} (Foucault, 1986, p. 24).

Another significant deliberation made by Blommaert (2010) that is very much consistent with my study is the fact that people would need to have a certain \textit{“conceptual toolkit’ that allows and enables them to “read back” from synchronic language use into historical backgrounds and historical patterns of meaningfulness”} (p. 140). His idea of a ‘conceptual toolkit’ is the very thing that I wish to develop from my study, a concept which I find coherent with the model that I have devised to rationalise my findings. This model will help in giving a better understanding of one particular sociolinguistic phenomenon that I have selected for the purpose of this study that I will further discuss in Chapter 4.

Having considered the idea of the ‘conceptual toolkit’, it would help to understand how this would function in a global setting and how it is correlated to the process of social affective resonance. Rainer Mühlhoff (2014) has come up with the impression that where a global process is concerned there is an emerging distinctive trait with its own self-sufficient identity manifesting itself within the global arena. It is considered to have taken shape from a basic foundation that is derived from a local society which is later on transferred to the global setting.
Thompson and Varela (2001) have termed this process as a local-to-global determination or upward causation. I have discovered, in my study, that this process is apparent and commonly used by my participants. This will be further elaborated in the findings and discussion chapter.

It is also wise to consider the other side of the coin, the downward causal feedback. According to Di Paolo et al. (2010) and Thompson and Varela (2001), this process poses an “autonomy” of the emerging global process which causes a “global-to-local (‘downward’) determinative influence”, which may lead to “modulations to the boundary conditions of the lower-level processes” (p. 40–41; p. 420–421). In reference to this outcome, I have interpreted this notion as the kind of resonance that would assist in creating that dynamic process of changing, revising and adding of information with regards to values, culture and practises. Furthermore, it is important to note that this process in not a mere process of sharing and transferring but more to like a process that reverberates, in other words it is resonative in nature.

2.3.2 Sense making

Sense-making is another process that I consider as imperative in understanding the findings of my study. I believe there must be a stage an individual within a society needs to undergo before being able to give feedback. Research into the so called ‘social brain’ conducted by Fuchs and De Jaegher (2009), have come up with the notion that there is a “third-person paradigm of social cognition” (p.466), which acts as an inconspicuous observer that would monitor the behaviour of people who surrounds the individual. The observation carried out by this third-person paradigm is based on a mental programme that the individual has in his/her mind and this is used as a form of checklist that would add or confirm whatever information that has already been build or
available in that mental programme. Hence, it would mean that there is no necessary verbal kind of a interaction required for this process but merely a form of internal models or simulation within that particular individual himself/herself. It is not a straightforward kind of process that involves the social cognitive machinery but rather a source of inter-subjectivity. According to this approach, the process of social understanding is not something that can be achieved by quick glimpses of events that is theorised and stimulated by an individual but rather a moment to moment interaction between two or more interlocutors.

As such, it can be concluded that the social cognition is actually an end product of social interaction. It can be assumed that this is a process that is circular in motion and it works within a dyadic personified agents. Various studies on social interactions and discourses have indicated that respondents subconsciously synchronized their movements with their utterances (Scollon and Scollon 1981; Davis 1982; Kendon 1990; Grammer et al. 1998; Issartel et al. 2007). The findings to these studies have indicated that interlocutors perception–action loops are paired and entwined with each other and encompass the processes of the coordination of information and resonance, various exchange of gestures and facial or verbal expression. As a result the individuals are able to match their sense making in any social events that they have participated in (De Jaegher and Di Paolo 2007).

Having taken all this into consideration, Patriotta and Spedale (2015) have come up with a very precise summary and that is language is not just something that the society use to verbalise their needs and concerns but it is a means to relate and share information with one another and together generate intersubjective meanings. Hence, language is the medium that people use as a
system that aids the process of sense making where individuals and society are concerned. Due to this significant existence of language, studies of verbal exchanges was made possible in order to grasp the uniqueness and dynamics of the sense making process. Goffman (1959) denoted that a face to face interaction would be a very suitable social event to examine the micro-dynamics of sense making endeavours especially if individuals were observed in a meeting then there would be a direct social interaction with the present of a group of people.

Labov (2010) has concluded that there are a lot more that needs to be done where the study of social interaction is concerned. There is a huge gap that needs to be bridged to gain more knowledge regarding the use of complex structures in various social encounters by interlocutors in portraying different social characteristics. It has been agreed that the sociolinguistic studies on linguistic differences in the present world is very much associated with social variables that include social class, gender, location, status and race in any social events. These are some of the variables that I would include in my study, particularly gender, status and social class.

2.3.3 Intercultural communication

In this section, I wish to explore the place of intercultural communication in my study. Scollon et al. (2011) seem to consider intercultural communication as a phenomenon that is not something that is very easy to decipher, especially in consideration of the current situation where things kept on evolving and keeping up to it is not a simple task. It involves a lot of factors that are relevant to both interlocutors, sometimes even more than two speakers. This is then expanded to another consideration, to a certain extent, that interlocutors involved in a certain interactive event might require some form of competence to be able to interact successfully. Koester and Lustig
(2015) have noted, at the application/use level, that the study of Intercultural Communication Competence (ICC) has started taking place due to some considerations especially when there is an arising need to train individuals to be more socially agile in any intercultural social event and they may need some exposure prior to that in order to be able to react accordingly and more competently in a global context. Both of them have also come to a realisation that there is an urgent need to further delve into this kind of studies in order to share and educate people to be more receptive where ICC studies are concerned. This is part of the aim I hope to accomplish with this study, that is, to further contribute to the present understanding of this field.

2.4 Hofstede’s National Cultural Dimension

In this study, I consider Hofstede’s model of National Cultural Dimensions theory as a very crucial model that plays a very important role in rationalising my research. As in any study based on a global setting, there is no turning away from the notion of different cultures coming together, which no doubt would go through some form of adaptation and assimilation that would influence any social event that would occur. I have decided to choose Hofstede’s model because I believe that his model is the most comprehensive model where most of the cross-culture aspects are considered and have been evident in his research. He has inspired numerous cross-cultural researchers to pursue this field and many of them have used this model as an instrument to conduct their own studies and I am one of them. I find myself able to connect to and relate his model to my data and it has helped me understand not only the linguistic aspect of my data but also the intercultural communication domain that I find reflected in Hofstede’s dimensions. His dimensions have given me a new perspective in appreciating that there is more than being able to
define which linguistic aspect to use in an interaction and that one has to understand whatever has been uttered has some form of effect on others.

Due to the above reason, I believe that there is an overwhelming need to further pursue the study of interaction within a global setting as there is a massive amount of information that is still missing that is imperative in order to understand how interactions are carried out and how to avoid the occurrence of any form of intimidation. Hofstede (2001) has denoted that his venture into the study of culture understanding has not been an easy task. He has come to an understanding that highlighting culture-dependent differences have not always been positively welcomed or well-received. Some people who are familiar with a global environment might be a bit more lenient or tolerant in accepting differences where cultural behaviour is concerned. However, those who are novices and have very limited exposure to an international setting might find it difficult to handle and might also to certain extent be offended by culture differences. Some might not take it lightly if their differences are scrutinized and discussed. Thus, it is a delicate area of study that may not be an easy task that may be simply placed under a microscope. Nonetheless, it is necessary to delve into it as it is imperative to understand the intricacies of culture and how such study would contribute to maintaining solidarity among global citizens.
2.4.1 National Culture Dimensions – The Study

The National Culture Dimensions were created as a result of a large scale longitudinal study conducted by the Dutch social psychologist and organizational anthropologist, Professor Geert Hofstede. He had carried out the most outstanding and impressive studies that measures the influence of culture in the values that are practiced in the workplace. The study was conducted between 1967 and 1973 and he had recruited a massive amount of participants who happened to be employees of IBM, the company which hired him to conduct the study. The study, which commenced in 1966 and continued until late 1978 was funded by IBM Corporation and involved over 72 countries with more than 116,000 questionnaires (Hofstede, 2001).

Hofstede based his study very much on culture and values, which are the key constructs of his National Culture Dimensions. In his book Culture Consequences (Hofstede, 2001), he brought together a few definitions of his first key construct, which is value, which he found operational for his model. He believes that “values are held by individuals as well as by collectivities; culture presupposes a collectivity. A value is a broad tendency to prefer certain states of affairs over others” (Hofstede, 2001 p.5). He then goes on to quote Kluckhohn’s (1951/1967) definition of value that it is a “conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means and ends of actions” (p.395). Another definition that he has thought to be very pertinent to his understanding of values is Rokeach’s:
To say that a person ‘has a value’ is to say that he has an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally and socially preferable to alternative modes of conduct or end-states of existence” (Rokeach, 1972, p.159-160).

These definitions seem to fit very well with his notion of a mental programme that each individual would have in order to make sense of the everyday occurrence of a society, particularly in social interactions.

The other key construct that plays a very important role in Hofstede’s dimension is culture. He, again, quotes Kluckhohn (1951):

Culture consists in patterned ways of thinking, feeling and reacting, acquired and transmitted mainly by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiments in artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values. (p.86)

His own outlook of culture is that he treated it as the “collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (2001, p.9). Hence, he integrated the two key constructs into an Onion Diagram (Figure 2.1) that explains the manifestations of culture at different levels.
He further illustrates that “values are invisible until they become evident in behaviour, but culture manifests itself in visible elements” (Hofstede 2001,p.10) which he has defined as symbols, heroes, rituals and of course, values are included as well. In reference to Figure 2.1, these elements are characterised as described in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ELEMENTS</th>
<th>DESCRIPTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Symbols</td>
<td>Words, gestures, pictures and objects that are complex in meaning and can only be identified by a society who shares the same culture. Hofstede has designated this element at the outer layer of the diagram (Figure 2.1) as it is easily emulated by other societies. Examples given for this element can be related to fashion or trend. It could also be a food chain like McDonalds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heroes</td>
<td>A person or persons who are idolised by a certain society. The individual can either be made-believe or can truly exist, must possess characteristics that are highly prized in a culture and thus serve as</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
models for behaviour. An example that would make this element clear would be something like an idolized character such as Robin Hood or Winnie the Pooh.

Rituals

Hofstede has defined this as collective activities that might not actually achieve a desired end but are still considered essential to a certain culture. Activities such as religious or social ceremonies that are practiced by certain cultural groups.

(Hofstede, 2001)

Another factor that is found visible in the Onion Diagram (Figure 2.1) created by Hofstede is the practice that incorporates all the three elements. The reason being is that all these elements are visible to the outside world and could be emulated by other societies as well. However, the cultural meaning of each elements may not be visible by other societies and they may also be interpreted differently.

In his attempt to further develop his model, Hofstede also considered a Muslim philosopher, Ibn Khaldun, who is considered by numerous philosophers as the founder of sociology. According to him (Hofstede, 2001), Ibn Khaldun deliberated at considerable length, in his book Al Muqadimma, “on the different characteristics of nomads and sedentary peoples, including their mentality, education, social and political behaviour and architecture” (p.13). With regard to this context, Ibn Khaldun was said to have quoted the Prophet Muhammad (pbuh), in which he said that every child is born in a neutral state, clear of any form of beliefs and values and that what he or she will become later on in life is entirely up to his parents and the society that he or she
belongs to. Having lamented on this in his book, Hofstede (2001) also mentioned that Ibn Khaldun recognized the notion that any individual’s mind is always prepared to accept, adopt and adapt any form of input that is presented to them, be it a good or a bad influence. With all these considerations, Hofstede developed the National Cultural Dimensions which I have discovered may fit very well in rationalising the findings of my study. They have all the right qualities that I need to clearly make sense of what my participants are practising in their daily interactions in a global environment.

I find that the dimensions that have emerged from Hofstede’s study, have been dubbed as a new paradigm that has been used by various studies pertaining to culture differences and their complexities. Many cross-cultural research have used this model as a foundation and it has been very popular for studies in various fields in banking, advertisement, management and education to name a few. It is these dimensions of culture – shared and individually held cultural mind-sets which drive behaviour – upon which many researchers seek to explain societal differences within a global environment. Trompenaars (1993) has conceded that Hofstede has accomplished one of the most important and influential cultural studies; even other authors advocating different models give credit to him for opening the public’s eyes to the importance of the cultural dimension. Hofstede’s dimensions has inspired many cross-cultural researchers for more than three decades from the moment they were published in Culture’s Consequences (Hofstede, 1980), and Hofstede’s cultural model remains current, inspiring thousands of empirical studies (Kirkman et al., 2006) whose results sustain and even amplify Hofstede’s conclusions (Smith & Bond, 1999).
Hofstede, primarily, started off with a four-dimensional model made up of *Power Distance*, *Uncertainty Avoidance*, *Individualism versus Collectivism* and *Masculinity and Femininity*. The fifth dimension, *Long Term and Short Term Orientation*, was added much later as new cross-cultural data were retrieved from the eastern part of the world, particularly China (Hofstede, 2001). This dimension has given a new perspective to the existing four dimensions as it has given some insights into how cultural difference has been observed to operate in the East. This dimension complements Hofstede’s existing understanding of the culture differences established in the West. A sixth dimension, *Indulgence Versus Restraints* has then been added as the final dimension and this has been added quite recently and this dimension is actually formulated via a collaborated study with Michael Minkov (Hofstede et al. 2010). The dimension is referred to a community that consents to the pleasure of essential and natural human needs that are related to appreciating life and enjoying it. On the other hand, restraint is in reference to a society which practises the opposite. This group of people would subdue any forms of indulgence in a very stringent manner.

### 2.4.2 The Model – National Culture Dimensions

In the following section, Hofstede’s dimensions will be discussed in detail and will consider the construct of each of the dimensions and how it attempts to examine daily encounters that most societies would have to face. Apart from the definition that has been formulated by Hofstede, I have also considered other scholars who have used his model and their interpretation of the dimensions that they have used in their studies. The dimensions’ formulated definitions (Hofstede, 2001) and their interpretations by other researchers are presented as follows.
In my study, I have translated these dimensions within a pragmatic perspective, particularly, in request making. Unlike Hofstede’s study, where the setting was just within the working environment, mine is broader in a sense that I have included other social events such as in a classroom, in a train, in a fast food restaurant, in an office and a few more that I will explain further in Chapter Four. Another variation that I have considered for my study is that unlike Hofstede’s study, which is to consider relationship between superiors and colleagues, mine involves relationships not only with superiors and peers but also with families and strangers.

2.4.2.1 Power distance

This is the first dimension that Hofstede formulated for his IBM study. The dimension was created based on a perceived notion that there is some form of inequality in the society that we are living in. Hofstede et al. (2005) reiterated that even in the smallest community there will always be someone who happens to be smarter, bigger or stronger than others. Some may be more popular, more beautiful and richer than others too and these attributes would render them to be more powerful and influential compared to others. In relation to his study, Hofstede presented this dimension to the participants via three survey items that required for them to react based on their relationship with their superiors.

Hence, due to data that he collected, he formulated the following definition of Power Distance.

This dimension is defined as the extent to which the less powerful members of organization and institutions accept and expect that power is distribute unequally. The basic problem involved is the degree of human inequality that underlies the functioning of each particular society. (Hofstede, 2001 p. xix-xx)

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3 In this study, I have used this term in order to describe the communicative events between the interlocutors and not in reference to the physical setting that the communicative events took place.
In my study, I would like to relate this dimension to the type of social inequality that involves authority. An important factor that is very much present within a society that thinks highly of authorities is that it is subjected not only upon people but also upon relationships. Hofstede and Minkov (2013) have reiterated that power distance has somehow given a certain leverage to people who are considered as less powerful when dealing with unequal distribution of power in a particular society. The ability to understand what power distance means and how to use it, is very crucial especially when dealing with a society that is diverse in both cultures and values. As Hofstede (1980) has revealed, in any hierarchical society, with high power distance values such as the one analysed, people are more concerned about complying with their superiors’ opinions and fear disagreeing with them. However, this could also be interpreted as an act to maintain solidarity (this will be further illustrated in Chapter 4). Hofstede (2001) and Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) have this understanding in common. Both of them believe that in a society that acknowledges a high power distance, there would undoubtedly be observed a hierarchy of power that is placed on the individual’s social status, income as well as on other significant aspects. In a culture that practises a very low power distance, this would not be influenced by the variables that are mentioned above as they regard the society as alike or without any prejudice even though there are some differences in terms of power, status or wealth. It has also been discovered that they appreciate being part of any decision making, in a way giving them a sense of belonging especially if the decision about to be made involves their well-being. (Hofstede 2001). Hierarchy is seen as reflecting inherent inequalities, centralisation is popular, and subordinates expect to be told what to do (Hofstede, 2014). However, this might not be seen as agreeable in a different social context, such as normal daily interactions where the expectation may differ due
to the different goals that the speakers would want to achieve. In my study, power distance is observed when the interlocutors would like to maintain solidarity.

2.4.2.2 Uncertainty avoidance

The second dimension derived from Hofstede’s study is Uncertainty Avoidance. He actually borrowed this term from March and Olsen (1976) who found this phenomenon in American organizations. He considers uncertainty as something that people would have to tolerate, “All human beings have to face the fact that we do not know what will happen tomorrow; the future is uncertain, but we have to live with it anyway” (Hofstede et al. 2005, p.165). He further elaborates that uncertainty can create intolerable anxiety and to alleviate this anxiety human society develops domains that would assist in diminishing it. These domains could either be in the form of technology, law or religion. One particular way of alleviating anxiety I find fascinating is religion. According to Hofstede et al. (2005) some society believes that religion is the best means of relieving anxiety and I can relate to this explanation of his in a way, as a Muslim, I do believe that if I am unsure of a certain decision that I need to make, I would always try to alleviate my anxiety by praying to God and that in some way helps to ease my panic attacks.

Hofstede also considers that this feeling of uncertainty may also be a shared concern by other members of society and that manners of coping with such feelings may be derived from a culture that is inherited within the society. In the context of his study, he defines this dimension as the following.
Uncertainty avoidance is a dimension that is referred to the extent to which a culture programs its members to feel either uncomfortable or comfortable in unstructured situations. Unstructured situations are novel, unknown, surprising, and different from usual. The basic problem involved is the degree to which a society tries to control the uncontrollable (Hofstede, 2001 p. xix-xx).

Hofstede (2001) has further established that this dimension can also be interpreted as means or methods in how to deal with uncertainty which could be connected to how they can managed their aggression and are able to suppress unwanted or negative emotions. He has also added that uncertainty is part of a human life that cannot be denied its existence and it has to be managed regardless of whether the society or even the individual is willing to face it or not. The manner as to how this uncertainty is handled can be via several mechanism and some of them may be done “through the domains of technology, law and religion” (Hofstede, 2001, p.147). As this is seen as quite uncomfortable and to a certain extent threatening, it would quite normal for a society to feel intimidated by such circumstances. This would of course give birth to many forms of how a society would react and to a certain extent, many would opt to avoid rather than deal with such circumstances.

There seems to be a certain misinterpretation to the understanding of how this dimension is applied despite the lengthy explanation given by Hofstede. Some are even regarded as having misunderstood what the dimension is about (Minkov, 2013). Some scholars seem to think that this dimension is similar to risk avoidance and this misconception is cited to be quite frequently misconstrued by many management scholars (Frijns et al., 2013, Kozak et al., 2007; Nakata and
Minkov (2013) has made an attempt to differentiate between uncertainty avoidance and risk avoidance by defining it as follows “risk is to uncertainty what fear is to anxiety: risk and fear relate to known acts and objects, whereas uncertainty and anxiety relate to the unknown; they are diffuse feelings”, (Minkov, 2013 p. 2). He has also added that uncertainty avoidance as a dimension would support risky behaviours for example driving fast and attacking adversaries. This notion has emerged in my study and will be further illustrated as to how it appeared in my findings.

The second misconception of this dimension is how it is linked to rules and regulations. This may have been triggered by one of the questions that appears in the survey that is assigned to assess the dimension. It requires the participant to either agree or disagree with the “Company rules should not be broken—even when the employee thinks it is in the company’s best interests.” Minkov (2013) highlights that the questions of what “should” be carried out is just a matter of shared belief of a certain community or group of people. However this has been translated as something others are expected to do but not one’s self. I find this particular point made by Minkov quite intriguing because it is the opposite of what I have discovered in my study. Some of my participants in this study seem to have a different understanding as to how rules are perceived. Hence, it can be deduced that this particular notion may not be applicable to other social events. This will be further explained in Chapter Four.

2.4.2.3 Individualism versus Collectivism

The third dimension that Hofstede has created has some connection with family orientation. He seems to think that the majority of most collectivist societies consists of extended families,
where a child grows up within a family that does not just have the parents and other siblings but also with grandparents, aunties, uncles and even cousins. Children of this family grow up with a strong sense of belonging, they have a strong sense of loyalty to their in-group. Individualistic societies, on the other hand, would inherently belong to a nuclear family which consists of two parents or sometimes with just a parent and probably some siblings. The characteristic of children belonging to this society are very much individual and choices are often made according to personal preferences, for instance in choosing friends. This group of children would grow up to be very independent.

For his study, he defines the dimension as the following.

This dimension is in reference to the degree which individuals are supposed to look after themselves or remain integrated into groups, usually around the family. Positioning itself between these poles is a very basic problem all societies’ face. (Hofstede, 2001 p. xix-xx)

It is perceived that when a certain social event occurs, it is very important to ponder the kind of community behaviour that society practises. The question that should be considered is whether the society prefers a relationship with an individual or the group that an individual belongs to. In his study, Hofstede has observed that certain cultural values such as individualism are associated with economic well-being of a nation. For wealthy nations, its citizens get access to resources to ‘‘do their own thing’’, whereas in developing nations people depend on the support of these in groups (Hofstede, 2001, p. 253).
In a study conducted by Tsai et al. (2015), they discovered that Taiwanese children and teenagers from a collectivist society developed a strong sense of control where impulse is concerned and they strive on relational harmony and educational achievement. They made a comparison to children from many North American countries where most children belong to an individualistic society that is not very concerned with observing harmony in any social relationship. The deduction made from this study is that adolescents in Taiwan are less likely to be involved in deviant behaviours compared to Euro American countries. This dimension will not be discussed in this study as there are certain limitations and constraints that cannot be avoided. Hence, I intend to save this for some other publication in the near future.

2.4.2.4 Masculinity versus femininity

Masculinity versus femininity dimension in Hofstede’s study goes beyond the physical or biological attributes of the two genders. Often times, societies tend to stereotype these genders according to their physical attributes. Men are always considered to be stronger and women to be softer or weaker. According to Hofstede et al. (2005) there seemed to be a mutual understanding in most societies that where social gender roles are concerned, The men would always be the bread winner and the manner as to how he would achieve that would always be outside the home. They are perceived to be more competitive and tough too. Unlike women who are more concerned with tender roles such as home making, child bearing and caring towards the society too. In other words, men’s achievement reinforces masculine forcefulness and challenges. The feminine social role is more concerned with the well-being of others and the care of their surroundings.
Hofstede defines this dimension as the following.

It refers to the emotional roles between the genders which is another fundamental problem for any society to which a range of solutions are found; it opposes ‘tough’ masculine to ‘tender’ feminine societies. (Hofstede, 2001 p. xix-xx)

As can be understood from the term, this dimension considers the gender aspect of Hofstede’s model. The dimension considers the social function of gender and its influence on a society’s behaviour. According to Hofstede et al. (2010) characteristics of both male and female that appear in a society, for instance assertiveness, strength, virility, and not caring for others would be categorized as masculinity. On the other hand, opposing characteristics of masculinity such as tenderness, modesty and a concern for the quality of life or people are categorized as femininity. Hofstede (2001) considers gender as not only a biological concept but also a social construct that plays a very important role in shaping a society’s behaviour. The dimension is seen to provide a certain yardstick that in a way determines the level or degree this dimension functions in a society. To a certain extent it could also be regarded as a form of competition between the two genders. More masculine societies are more inclined to prioritize on accomplishment, forcefulness, and goal-oriented behaviour, hence masculine society has the tendency to prefer physical challenges as a means of recognition (Hofstede, 2001). At the other end of the spectrum, more feminine cultures tend to display preferences for the comfort of others rather than self and on the sense of quality of life issues and preserving harmony (Hofstede, 2001). On the other, masculine oriented societies have the tendency to be more assertive and the women are required to be reserved and more inclined to be more sensitive to issues that are related to valuing harmony and peace (Hofstede, 2001). From a national point of view, societies that are more
oriented towards masculinity are reported to be very ego-oriented and practise some form of
gender bias where compensation is concerned. This type of a society also tend to more willing to
use violence to settle conflict, and tends to embrace more "traditional" family structures
(Hofstede, 2001). This can be illustrated by a study conducted by Zdun (2008), where he
investigated juvenile gang involvement in three different countries; Brazil, Germany and Russia.
Brazil and Russia have been categorized as dominated by a masculinity culture whereas
Germany is regarded as neutral, as in the nation is not particularly dominated by similar culture.
He discovered that in some areas in Brazil and Russia young men are involved in aggressive
groups because they feel the need for some form of protection against rivals. Hence, even though
these youth may not be inclined towards violence they are drawn to it for the sake of their own
safety. On the hand, male youths in Germany, Zdun noted they are not driven to participate in
any violent conflict and if they do, it may probably be due to a personal choice not because they
need the protection.

In contrast, low masculine societies for instance Germany as highlighted by Zdun (2008),
emphasize relationships and favour negotiation over force for conflict resolution. They do not
exercise any form of bias over the other gender especially with regard to compensation and they
are more tolerant where diverse family types are concerned (Hofstede, 2001).

In his study, the function of this dimension is very much centred on a social event that involves
an organisation or a working environment. It would be interesting to see if this dimension would
work similarly in a different context, in a different social event particularly one that I have
chosen for my own study.
2.4.2.5 Long Term versus Short Term Orientation.

This dimension was formulated later in his study compared to the other four. This dimension was derived from the teachings of Confucius which Hofstede considers as an essential addition to the rest of his dimensions as this one acts as some form of a bridge between the West’s and the East’s cultural behaviour.

He defines this dimension as the following.

This dimension refers to the extent to which a culture programs its members to accept delayed gratification of their material, social and emotional needs. (Hofstede, 2001 p. xix-xx)

Another definition was formed later, in 2005, where he describes the dimension of Long term orientation as the nurturing of virtues catered towards future rewards, especially when it concerns perseverance and being thrifty. On the other hand, Short term orientation is referred to the nurturing of virtues that is very much to do with past and present action particularly in the context of respecting the tradition, preserving the face and fulfilling the social obligation. The table below (Table 2.2) will illustrate the key differences between the Long Term Orientation and the Short Term Orientation.
Table 2.2 : Key Differences between Short and Long Term Orientation Societies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SHORT TERM ORIENTATION</th>
<th>LONG TERM ORIENTATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Efforts should produce quick results</td>
<td>Perseverance, sustained efforts toward slow results</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social pressure toward spending</td>
<td>Thrift, being sparing with resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respect for traditions</td>
<td>Respect for circumstances</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concern with personal stability</td>
<td>Concern with personal adaptiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concern with social and status obligations</td>
<td>Willingness to subordinate oneself for a purpose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concern with “face”</td>
<td>Having a sense of shame</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Hofstede et al. 2005, p.212)

This is also one of the dimensions that will be used to rationalise my findings especially with regards to the notion of “face” which has a lot to do with maintaining solidarity and will very much be evident in my findings. This will be further illustrated in Chapter 4.

Undoubtedly, Hofstede’s study is mainly focused on the discovery of cultural behaviour at a national level but not at an individual level. Some scholars believe that it would not be appropriate to use the dimensions’ results or scores to predict individual behaviour (Straub, Loch, Evaristo, Karahanna, & Strite, 2002). Nevertheless, there are studies that have persisted in using the model to measure at the individual level (Kirkman et al., 2006). One particular study conducted by Gallivan and Strite (2005), considers the cultural behaviour of individuals pertaining to their use and adaptation of Information Technology (IT). Some connections are made with Hofstede’s National Culture Dimensions and the use of IT. Gallivan and Strite believe that there is a need to develop an integrated perspective of the role of culture in IT adoption and use. Their study focuses on national culture and organisational culture which are derived from
various other studies in their field and Hofstede’s *National Culture Dimensions* as well. Both researchers have established that there are many reasons why these cultures need to be addressed as the two factors play a very crucial role in influencing an individual’s IT-related beliefs and behaviours. Culture awareness must be a part of a learning process for future IT designers, managers and consultants as there are increasing issues of national culture and occupational culture in the global environment.

An interesting study on the use of a very popular social networking website, Facebook, has been conducted by Abbas and Maesch (2015) on Palestinian children in Israel. This study considers Hofstede’s *National Culture Dimensions* to measure the children’s attitudes and social behaviour when using Facebook. It discovered some form of variations in the adoption of cultural values that are associated with the motivation for using Facebook based on their trust and privacy concerns. The findings of this study reveal that on an individual level, there is a positive association between privacy concern and cultural values as they are a reflection of the researchers understanding of Arab culture which is very sensitive where culture is concerned. In addition, another factor that played a very important factor in this study is trust. They discovered that the children found Facebook a more trustworthy social networking site compared to MySpace, which is also another quite popular social networking site. This factor was reflected in the number of children who had used the website and they found that more of them used Facebook compared to MySpace. This finding was also connected to Arab culture in establishing trust where relationship is concerned.
All the studies discussed above have been done in the hope that there would be some new discoveries pertaining to individual behaviour that can further contribute to cross cultural studies not only at a national level but at closer inspection to individuals within a society. This is very much in line with my study, which, will look very closely at individual performance in a selected context.

In my study, I have concluded that the model created by Hofstede might assist in analysing the data that I have collected. However, I might not be able to use all of the dimensions formulated by him as some of the dimensions might not appear to be as crucial and may not be very significant at this point of the study. Furthermore, since I have included other theories to illustrate my findings, some of the dimensions may not fit neatly with the other two theories that I have decided to integrate.

An additional fundamental aspect that has been highlighted by Hofstede in his study is language. He has emphasized that language happens to be the vehicle and object of any cross-cultural study (Hofstede, 2001). He believes that language cannot be separated from culture and that it can be acquired and mastered. The most interesting point that he has highlighted in his study is that “people are able to acquire language beyond their first. The first foreign language is most difficult to master; once they have learned to switch their minds between two languages, they can absorb additional ones more easily” (Hofstede, 2001 p. 21). This is a notion that I found to be profoundly related to my study and that is to examine the second language speakers’ language performance in a multicultural context. Most of my participants considers English as a foreign language and this ability of switching their minds between their mother tongue and the English language has become apparent in their daily interaction with the locals here in the UK. This
ability was made evident during our focus group discussion and I found it fascinating that they were able to merge their culture and the language that they are using to address issues they have to face on a daily basis.

2.5 Second Language Speakers

The idea of globalisation gives birth to the inevitable phenomenon that requires the global citizen to be able to adopt and adapt to one particular language that is used as a medium of interaction in that particular global setting. Indisputably, the most common language that has been mostly used is English. Trudgill (2002) has grudgingly confirmed that the English language has “insidiously spread at the expense of lesser-used languages” (p.47).

Consequently, this has raised interest among scholars to further delve into this phenomenon and to come to a certain understanding as to how this would assist in creating a more comfortable and acceptable condition. The most common location, if not the most obvious, to start looking for this kind of information would be the educational institution, specifically higher academic institution. Kennedy et al. (2014) have asserted that people who travel out of their country to seek knowledge in a different country, particularly in an English speaking country, in either undergraduate or postgraduate studies, face quite a challenging task in adapting not only to the language but also to the community and the environment. Nevertheless, one positive outlook that could be derived from this condition is that they are able to develop their L2 knowledge and skills, incidentally, as they would not be given any choice if they wish to survive. Hence, numerous studies have been carried out to look into second language speakers’ adaptation to new conditions and new environments. Areas pertaining to L2 speech development have been
recently made popular and have managed to reveal fascinating findings that might help enlighten L2 scholars. One particular finding that I find quite interesting is that L2 speakers have shown that they have improved significantly where oral fluency in (Segalowitz & Freed, 2004) within a reported time frame. It may take a few months or a year depending very much on the individual, of course. Ready and Wesche (1992) have reported that in North America, there is a significant progress with regard to speaking task among undergraduate who resided in the country for more than two semesters (Burger & Chretien, 2001). Mora and VallsFerrer, (2012) have also recounted that among students who have studied in Spain, they have revealed that L2 learners can gain fluency if they are able to study abroad better than compared to learning it in their own country. However, in this study of mine, I would not be able to conduct a longitudinal study to measure the length of time my participants require in order to achieve pragmatic competency. Nevertheless, it would be a very interesting aspect to deliberate in a future study.

In addition to the above discussion, another emerging finding pertaining to L2 speech development that has caught the interest of L2 researchers is the degree of concepts that L2 speakers may be able to demonstrate compared to native speakers, in this context, native English speakers. Cook (2015) has discovered, in her research on L2 speakers that L2 speakers may have their own way of expressing motions (gestures or signals) compared to monolingual native speakers. For instance, as pointed out by Díaz-Campos (2004), L2 speakers may have a different way in the pronunciation of individual sounds in the target language, specifically English in this context. Apart from pronunciation, Athanasopoulos et al. (2015) and Hendriks and Hickmann (2015) discovered that L2 learners in due time would eventually learn to adopt and adapt expression of concepts according to the environment that they are exposed to. Brown
(2015), observed that the L2 speakers had a very distinguished pattern of gestures applied to both the languages that they had mastered. It would seem that L2 speakers may have a unique manner as to how they adapt to the target language, especially if they have a longer exposure to the language in its natural setting. Hence, it may be said that L2 speakers, in a way mix and match whatever practices that they may have with regard to their native language and apply them to the second language depending, of course, on the context they have encountered. To date little researches have been done to address this area, especially within the context of a sociocultural perspective. It is hoped that my study, would help to shed some light on how L2 speakers adapt to some aspect of language performance in a multicultural setting.

In reference to sociocultural theories, it is almost impossible to deny Vygotsky’s (1978) perspective on how crucial mediation is needed in accomplishing higher mental processes. He claimed that higher mental functions can be produced via mediated activities that are carried out in a social cultural settings. These activities are said to promote both continuity and transformation that is very much required for second language speakers to further enhance their knowledge and skill in adapting to the language they need in order to survive in their new environment. This is considered to be very important for second language speakers; they need the input in order to be able to produce proper and appropriate output in any encountered social event.

For L2 speakers, these mediated activities play a vital function in assisting them to cope with daily encounters that they may need to go through in order to survive in the country that they have chosen to reside in. Thus, due to these mediated activities, they acquire a form of linguistic
shape that they would employ as a form of instrument that they would use to convey their needs. This linguistic shape is used for instance, to ask for information to shop for our food, to impart knowledge and to learn. The manner of how this linguistic shape is used by L2 speakers requires a lot more than just a matter of arranging the codes to string a sentence together. It requires skill, knowledge and perception for the message to be received and understood. Consequently, the field of pragmatics has arisen in this particular context, to study the functionality of any aspect of language employed by L2 speakers (Verschueren, 1987).

2.6 Pragmatics

Pragmatics was first described as an exploration to gain more understanding of “meaning in use” or “meaning in context”. Today, studies in this area, according to Thomas (1995) and Buchanan (2013), tend to associate pragmatics with speaker meaning and utterance interpretation. Both of these have come to a conclusion that it is not just a matter of producing a set of sounds that are comprehensible but more like performing an act that requires some form of reaction from the hearer. The first takes a social view of the discipline and focuses on the producer of the message. In other words, they are interested in the social factors which lead a speaker to formulate an utterance in a certain manner. This view is supported by Politzer-Ahles, et al. (2013) who reiterate that understanding an utterance is an activity that requires a series of processes. It involves a hurried combination of elements in meaning from multiple sources which consists of lexical semantics, compositional semantics and pragmatics and discourse.

Leech and Levinson support this observation of pragmatics. The second view on the other hand, does not take into account the social constraints on utterance production and focuses on how the
hearer interprets what has been said and kind of reaction he/she would be expected to have. Sperber and Wilson (1986) approve of this cognitive approach to pragmatics. Nevertheless, both of these approaches have been found to have weaknesses. A new view of pragmatics as “meaning in interaction”, “takes into account the different contribution of both speaker and hearer as well as that of utterance and content to the making of meaning” (Thomas 1995, Kuperberg et al., 2000, Hagoort et al., 2004; Filik and Leuthold, 2008, Buchanan, 2013). In my study however, Leech and Levinson’s (1983) view of pragmatics will be followed due to their interest in factors which lead a speaker to formulate utterances in a certain way. For instance, their interest lies in why a speaker might use an indirect rather than a direct form of request, which is precisely the aim of this piece of research where the choice of requests on the part of the speaker will be examined depending on different social situations.

According to the view of pragmatics which will be followed in this study, pragmatics concerns “the study of meaning in relation to speech situations” dealing with utterance in meaning rather than sentence in meaning, which is the scope of semantics (Leech, 1983). It comprises “the study of language usage” (Levinson, 1983). In Chomskyan Theory, “pragmatic competence” has been opposed to “grammatical competence”, the latter referring to the “knowledge of form and meaning” and the former to “knowledge of conditions and manner of appropriate use, in conformity with various purposes” (Chomsky, 1980). Hymes (1972) however, adapted the theory with his notion of communicative competence to second language learning and teaching which called for extending the scope of interlanguage research to include a learner’s pragmatic and discourse knowledge, semantic, grammatical and phonological knowledge. In addition to that, types of declarative knowledge that are not in ‘themselves communicative’, but clearly
communicatively relevant, such as sociocultural and world knowledge (Kasper, 1980) are also included.

Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993) adopt the action-theoretical perspective on pragmatics. They perceive the study of pragmatics as a field that considers an individual’s understanding of what is being said and how the linguistic aspect of the language is being applied when making utterances, which are speech acts, in the second language (Kasper, 1989; Kasper and Dahl, 1991; Kasper and Blum-Kulka, 1993; Kasper, 1996). In a broader sense, the study of native speakers’ intercultural styles brought about through language contact should also be included under Interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) studies. However, the populations studied in the literature on ILP have invariably been non-native speakers, reflecting the status of ILP as a branch of second language research. The scope of this study will be confined to tying ILP to non-native speakers, or language learners only and will be looking at not only the intercultural styles but the intracultural ability as well as the individual’s variability, specifically their level of education.

ILP has been formulated based on its hypothetical and observed underpinning, specifically cross-cultural pragmatics (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989). Predominantly, it has centred on the illocutionary and politeness aspects in performing speech acts. It is known that speech acts, undoubtedly, are one aspect of language use that demands a higher command of language ability of its speaker as it consists of complex form and construction of meaning. Hence, this might prove to be quite a challenge to second language speaker in accomplishing successful communication, as they may need some knowledge of the environment in which they are residing, with some exposure to the
local society in that particular environment. Finally, they may also need some form of linguistic input for them to be able to cope with the environment.

### 2.6.1 Speech acts and illocutionary meaning

Interlocutors accomplish two things when they perform utterances in context: (1) interactional acts and (2) speech acts (Ellis, 1994). The first impose the formation of words to ensure the smoothness of the utterance that is being verbalised by the speaker. The concern lies upon the speakers’ management of exchanging turns, how they open and close conversations and how they sequence acts to ensure a coherent conversation. Speech acts constitute attempts by language users to perform specific actions, in particular interpersonal functions such as compliments, apologies, requests or complaints.

The study of speech acts originates from the philosophy of language, and was first introduced by three linguistic philosophers; Austin, Grice and Searle. The former (Austin, 1962) reiterated that a speaker can achieve a lot of things by the mere expression of words. He came up with an insight that when a speaker produces a string of words there are not sometimes mere utterances or proclamations or inquiries of some particular information or another. On the other hand they are some form of actions that requires the hearer to react. Austin pointed out, for example, that if a speaker produces utterances in appropriate circumstances such as:

a) I bet you a pound that your ex-boyfriend will be here any minute.

b) I promise to go shopping with you tomorrow.
c) I bequeath you all of my James Bond CD collection.

Subsequently, the speaker has not made statements about betting, promising and bequeathing but that such utterances are a bet, a promise and a bequeath respectively. The saying and the doing are inseparable in two senses: the acts could not be done without using language and the saying counts as the doing. Austin’s original insight was that stating or describing is only one function of language. He argued that even though statements (constative in his terms) are often thought of as somehow basic, they do not even have a privileged position. The important distinction between constative and performatives is that only constatives can be true or false. Performatives are used to perform actions and it does not make sense to enquire about their truth conditions. They may be inadequate in various ways, but they cannot be untrue. This test would distinguish the constative I’m sorry from the performative I apologise. One can say sorry without being sorry at all. Nonetheless, to say I apologise, is in itself to apologise. One can, of course, also use the sentence I’m sorry in order to perform the act of apologising.

Austin’s original distinction between constatives and performatives, however, is faulty. The same proposition may be stated, questioned or denied. In other words, stating is a speech act like any other. Thus, if A says with or without the explicit performative verb: “(I state that) students are brighter these days,” then the truth of the proposition may be queried. However, it cannot be false that A has stated it. From this observation, Austin developed his more general theory of speech acts. Utterances can perform three kinds of acts, which are locutionary, perlocutionary and illocutionary. The locutionary act is referred to as the discernible meaning of an utterance. The perlocutionary acts produces some effect on hearers where the utterance functions as a form
of a means to get the hearer to react either positively or negatively. For instance, the act of persuading is categorised under perlocutionary act because it may not be sufficient to just say “I persuade” you. Comparable examples are convincing, annoying, frightening and amazing. The illocutionary act is performed in saying something (the performance of a particular language function), and includes acts such as betting, promising, denying and ordering. The distinction between perlocutionary and illocutionary force is not always entirely obvious. Since making requests is a major part of this study, I will use this to illustrate how this distinction would function. It is well known that requests (illocutionary act) should be categorised under illocutionary act as it requires some form of influential linguistic features that would prompt the hearer (perlocutionary act) to react by doing something for the speaker.

Austin ascertained that performative utterances can only take effect under some circumstances he termed as felicity conditions. There are three distinguished categories that he formulated that would make the performative’s effect believable.

(i) There must be a conventional procedure having a conventional effect.

(ii) The circumstances and persons must be appropriate, as specified in the procedure.

(iii) The procedure must be executed correctly and completely.

Felicity conditions may be violated and that may result in a condition that Austin termed as a ‘misfire’. Examples that may be considered as committing misfire would be in an utterance “I sentence to death” to a cat that has entered a garden might be an infelicitous performative as one do not sentence a cat to death and it is considered illogical to even perform it. Other interesting misfired performative would be in this particular instance, a subordinate cannot tell
her superior “I hereby dismiss you from your position!” However, the superior may of course be able to say that and it would definitely be affective.

Another condition formulated by Austin that is considered as crucial as the other conditions would be the sincerity condition. He defined this condition as something that an individual should have, that he/she must have some form of considerations, sentiments and purposes in his/her utterances. If they are not sincere, Austin labelled such utterances as some form of “abuse” and an example that can illustrate this condition would be if a person were to congratulate another person who has just got himself/herself a new mobile phone when he/she knows that the phone was actually stolen. Hence this is considered as “abuse’ because the speaker does not mean to congratulate the hearer.

In addition to sincerity conditions, the performative framework requires a truth conditions as well. An example that can illustrate this condition is in the utterance, “I promise to feed the baby” would have to be truthful and thus felicitous if there is a baby that the speaker would have to feed but it would not be felicitous if that the baby does not exist.

Austin’s (1975, p.14) formulation of the four conditions that are established under the felicity condition framework are as follows.

(i) A PREPARATORY CONDITION, meant to establish whether or not the circumstances of the speech act and the participants in it are appropriate to its successful performance.
(ii) An EXECUTIVE CONDITION, meant to determine whether or not the speech act has been properly executed.

(iii) A SINCERITY CONDITION involves Speaker’s responsibility for the illocutions in the utterance. Normally, Hearer will assume that Speaker is being sincere unless s/he has good reason to believe otherwise.

(iv) A FULFILMENT CONDITION determined by the perlocutionary effect of the speech act.

Speech acts, very much like other language theories, have their own problems and a particular problem identified by authors like Stubbs (1983) and Flowerdew (1980), was that it would be difficult, due to the nature of speech acts being a very broad language field, to actually define a limit to what it can do. Austin (1962) estimated there to be somewhere between one thousand to ten thousand illocutionary forces in English and that would about the similar among of speech acts available as well. In order to come to a certain kind of understanding where speech act is concerned, both Austin and then later, Searle (1975, 1976) recommended categorising the acts into several distinctive classifications. Austin proposed a breakdown into five groups and they are “verdictives, exercitives, commissives, behavitives and expositives” (Austin, 1975 p.151). He named these categories as the taxonomy of illocutionary acts and they are further defined as the following.

The first of the five groups of speech acts, verdictives, is defined by Austin as an act of “ giving a verdict, as the name implies, by a jury, arbitratora or umpire” (p.151) An illustration of verdictive acts are assess, acquit and rank.
The second act is exercitives which is defined as an act that “is the giving of a decision in favour of or against a certain course of action or advocacy of it” (p. 151). Examples that could illustrate this act are ordering, advising or warning (p. 151).

The third act is commissives which according to Austin is to compel the speaker into some kind of a commitment to the hearer. Examples to illustrate this act would be promising, vowing or pledging.

The fourth group is the expositives where the act requires some of form “argument of conversation” (Austin, 1975,p. 152) Among examples provided by Austin where this category is concerned would be affirming, denying and reporting.

The last category of this taxonomy is behavitives which Austin was not very pleased with but he added it to his list anyway. This act is defined as a an act that has very much to do with “attitude” and “social behaviour” (p. 152) Instances given for this act are apology, thank, deplore and commiserate.

The taxonomy may look impressive and very comprehensive, nevertheless, he admitted that this breakdown may not be the best of its forms. He still believed that the “taxonomy needs to be seriously revised” (Austin, 1962, p. 151).

Searle (1976) disapproved Austin’s classifications based on several reasons and he listed five reasons why he found the taxonomy lacking. He first pointed out that Austin’s taxonomy is not a
classification of illocutionary acts but of English illocutionary verbs (Searle, 1979). He has
highlighted that verbs such “intend” is not performative because according to him, by saying “I
intend...” or “He intends...” does not mean the speaker is “expressing an intention” and that the
ilocutionary verb phrase should be “to express an intention” and not “intend”. The second
weakness of this taxonomy, and the most crucial one is that there does not seem to be a reliable
classification. Among some of the classifications that he criticised are the exercitives were only
partly defined in terms of it being an exercise of authority and behavitives were not well defined
at all as they seem to involve the notion of what is good or bad for the speaker and the hearer as
well as expressions of attitudes. The third weakness is that some of the categories are
overlapping. Since there is no well-defined ruling there are some cases such as the act
“describe” which Austin listed in both verdictive and expositive. The fourth weakness is that
there are quite conspicuous types of action words within the categories. Austin listed such acts
together with thank, apologize and deplore as behavitives. However, Searle seemed to think
these are acts (dare, defy and challenge) that require hearer’s subsequent action and should be
categorized under exercitives along with order, command and urge. The fifth weakness is that
not all verbs listed within the classes are satisfactory. One of the instances that was highlighted
by Searle (1979) is that the verb appoint does not mean “giving of a decision in favour of or
against a certain course of action”. It is an act of performance and not of advocating. Thus, in an
example of “I appoint you as the next Head of the Department”, it is not to say that I advocate
that you be the Head of Department, it is more like I make you the Head of Department.

In order to overcome these problems, Searle (1969) came up with his own more defined
classification. The first thing he did was to analyse the similarities and differences of the
conditions identified as “felicity conditions” (as discussed in p.38) introduced by Austin. Later, he then labelled the acts into categories with shared conditions such as the “preparatory conditions, “sincerity conditions and essential conditions” (p.44). In order to illustrate, the illocutionary act of giving directives can only take effect if the interlocutors shared a common understanding that the one who utters it has to be in a position of influence (preparatory condition). The directive must be due to the fact that speaker expects it to be carried out (sincerity condition). Last but not least the directive should get the hearer to comply with the speaker’s directive (essential condition).

Nevertheless, he later found out there were still some problems where his self-formulated classification was concerned as there were still too many kinds of acts and it was almost impossible to put them in any particular order. Due to that he again, devised a new classification with twelve items and which are “representatives, directives, commissives, expressives and declarations” (Searle, 1976, p.62). The point of representatives is to represent a state of affairs where they have a word-to-world fit, the intention of which is to make the words fit the world; a belief is expressed in them and any proposition can occur within them, like a statement. On the other hand, directives aim at directing the hearer towards doing something; they have a world-to-word direction of fit; they express a wish and in them the proposition is a future act done by the hearer, such as in orders. The point of commissives is that the speaker commits himself to doing something, they have a world-to-word direction of fit; they express an intention; in them the proposition is a future act done by the speaker, for instance, promises. In expressives, a certain psychological state is expressed; they have no direction of fit; in them a wide range of psychological states can be expressed; in them the proposition ascribes a property or act to the
speaker or the hearer, as in congratulations. The point of *declarations* is to bring something about in the world; they have both a word-to-world and word-to-world direction of fit; in them no psychological state is expressed; in them any proposition can occur, for instance, an excommunication. Searle’s classification of speech acts is the most widely accepted, although it still has its problems.

Another renowned philosopher who contributed numerous substantial studies to the area of pragmatics but who is somewhat neglected, is Paul Grice. He was known defining pragmatics as a form of communication that is seen as a reason-governed activity (Grandy & Warner, 2004). His first work evolved around meaning in which he distinguished meaning into an utterer’s meaning and utterance type meaning. As established earlier in the introduction, Grice’s notion of an utterer’s meaning has a lot to do with the utterer’s *intent* of what the hearer should do. He exploits the grammatical mood or subjunctive mood as an especially important feature in his discussion of sentence meaning. Grandy and Warner (2004) cited an example of Grice’s work on an utterer’s meaning as below.

Suppose U utters ‘It is’ in response to being asked whether the door is closed. U means by uttering ‘It is’ that the door is closed. Again, suppose U, who wants A to close the door, utters ‘Close the door’. U means that A should close the door.

In the first case U wants A to think that U *thinks* the door is closed. In the second case, to think U *intends* that A make it true that the door is closed. (Grandy and Warner, 2004)
Utterer type meaning is Grice’s notion of *having a procedure in one’s repertoire*. The example of a flag signal given earlier in the introduction refers to his explanation of how a non-syntactic structure would signify a particular meaning that may contribute to the meaning of the whole, i.e. a blue flag means ten minutes to start a yacht race.

Meaning was also associated with semantic notions that can be explicated in terms of psychological notions. (Grice, 1957). Grice, primarily, was the one who initiated the study of meaning and the one to differentiate the speaker meaning from sentence meaning. He was also the one to introduce the verb “*implicate*” and “*implicature*” (p.24) which functions as noun that is actually referred to “the act of meaning or implying something by saying something else” (Davis 1998). In other words, *implicature* can also be termed as inference which a reader would do in order to understand what an author of a book would want to imply. Grice founded *Cooperative Principles* and he defined them as principles which contribute what is required by the accepted purpose of the conversation. Grice’s *Cooperative Principles* are classified into four types of maxims as which are listed below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Maxim</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Maxim of Quality</td>
<td>Make your contribution true; so do not convey what you believe false or unjustified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Maxim of Quantity</td>
<td>Be as informative as required.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Maxim of Relation</td>
<td>Be relevant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Maxim of Manner</td>
<td>Be perspicuous, so avoid obscurity and ambiguity and strive for brevity and order.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Grice, 1989, p. 28)
Buchanan (2013) pointed out that according to the Gricean rules a speaker can verbalise his/her referential intentions in a social interaction and would allow a direct reference in a simple sentence. Breheny, et.al. (2013) reiterated that Grice is particularly concerned with inferences that enrich comprehension beyond “What is said” that is beyond the semantic interpretation of an utterance in context. An illustration that can best describe this notion is when A asked B if he enjoyed his dinner and B responded ‘I enjoyed the dessert’. Grice’s observation would be that B did not enjoy the meal except for the dessert. Hence, with that one simple statement of “I enjoyed the dessert”, we can deduce that the speaker is trying to make some direct reference to the meal that he/she did not enjoy.

2.6.2 Requests

Directives are one of the five general classes of speech acts distinguished by Searle (1976). It comprises all those specific acts whose function is to get the hearer to do something which include acts of ordering, commanding, requesting, pleading, begging, praying, entreating, instructing, forbidding and others (Searle, 1975). As analysed by Searle, directive illocutionary acts in accordance to the felicity conditions are as listed in the table below.

Table 2.4: List of felicity conditions on the directive class (Searle, 1969)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Directive (Request)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preparatory condition</td>
<td>1. H is able to perform A. S believes H is able to A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. It is not obvious to both S and H that H will do A in the normal course of events at his own accord.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sincerity condition</td>
<td>S wants H to do A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Propositional content condition</td>
<td>S predicates a future A of H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essential condition</td>
<td>Counts as an attempt by S to get H to do A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I have chosen request as the focus of my study which is one particular illocutionary act that is classified under directives. I find this form of directive fascinating and intriguing at the same time as making requests require a certain skill that must be acquired and perfected in order to obtain a promising reaction from the hearer. This study is dedicated to examine and hope to share the working of requestive behaviour in a multicultural setting.

### 2.6.3 Request strategies

Searle (1976) established that a request should be uttered indirectly and it would not be very appropriate to utter it in a direct manner. The definition of directness would be in reference to the level of illocutionary intent the speaker wishes to make visible from his/her utterance. This is very much related to politeness as it is seen to have a very high level of imposition on the hearer and for that reason there is a need to use some form of a strategy where making requests is concerned because with the choice of strategy use the level of imposition on the hearer will be alleviated.

Blum-Kulka (1987) considers that there is a possibility that politeness may have more to do with conventionalization than indirectness and she has received support from a variety of sources regarding this claim. Drawing on questionnaire data investigating request behaviour in American, Australian, and British English and Hebrew, Blum-Kulka has discovered that conventional indirectness has been judged the most polite across the board while judgments about the politeness of hints (off-record indirectness) varied: whereas English speakers
consistently rank them second only to conventional indirectness, Hebrew speakers rank them quite low. In other words, contrary to the common assumption that politeness and indirectness go hand in hand, Blum-Kulka has discovered that more indirectness does not always guarantee more politeness. She has accounted for this by surmising that the amount of inferential work the listener must do to extract politeness from the speaker's utterance constitutes a separate imposition on the hearer's cognitive resources, which can subtract from the politeness of the utterance. In other words, with regard to the politeness of hints or off-record indirectness, there may be cases where the hearer may not be able to understand the hint altogether, hence the request strategy would definitely be a fail attempt as the hearer may not agree to react according to what the speaker intends. For example, in “The room is very warm”, the speaker is probably requesting the hearer to switch off the heater. However, the hearer may not understand the request and probably think that it was just a normal statement without any underlying meaning or probably he/she does not think the room is warm at all and refuses to even consider switching off the heater. Thus, the request would definitely fail in achieving its purpose.

Blum-Kulka has gone on to propose that politeness lies not in tentativeness but in achieving a balance between coerciveness and clarity. Tipping the balance in either of these directions can result in impoliteness: being too indirect can be as impolite as being too direct – albeit for different reasons. Despite its very limited understanding of context, this framework has inspired a wealth of research on requests, particularly in cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics (e.g. Blum-Kulka et al., 1989). The studies that have been conducted in these areas have taken a quantitative approach, generating a vast amount of data which have enriched the description of requests, while placing them on a scale of in/directness.
Blum Kulka and House (1989) have devised a system that consists of three general degrees that can distinguish and represent a universally valid scale of indirectness, where indirectness is defined as a measure of illocutionary transparency. These three levels are direct, conventionally indirect and non-conventionally indirect. With direct requests, the illocutionary force is indicated in the utterance by grammatical, lexical or semantic means. There are six categories of direct strategy and they are mood derivable (i.e. “Leave me alone!”), explicit performatives (i.e. “I am asking you to move your car.”), hedged performative (i.e. must ask you to clean the kitchen.”), obligation statements (i.e. “Madam, you will have to move your car.”) and want statements (i.e. “I would like to borrow your notes for a little while.”). The conventionally indirect requests express the illocution via fixed linguistic conventions established in the speech community. This request strategy consists of two sub-categories; suggestory formula (i.e “How about cleaning up the kitchen?”) and query preparatory (i.e. “Can I borrow your notes?”). The last strategy in the non-conventionally indirect requests require the addressee to compute the illocution from the interaction of the locution with its context. This one consists of two sub categories as well and they are the strong hints (i.e. “Will you be going home now?”) and mild hints (i.e. “You’ve been busy, haven’t you?”). These criteria are used to classify instances of requests from different languages into the right request strategy. The following paragraphs will explain these categories in further detail.

These levels are further illustrated below according to decreasing degree of directness (Blum-Kulka et al. 1989, p.278-280):
1. Mood derivable: the grammatical mood of the locution conventionally determines its illocutionary force as a request. The prototypical form is the imperative (“Leave me alone”). However, functional equivalents such as infinitive forms and elliptical sentence structures express the same directness level.

   Example: Leave me alone / Clean up the kitchen / Please move your car.

2. Explicit performative: the illocutionary intent is explicitly named by the speaker by using a relevant illocutionary verb.

   Example: I am asking / I am telling you to move your car.

3. Hedged performative: the illocutionary verb denoting the requestive intent is modified by nodal verb or verbs expressing intention.

   Example: I must / I have to ask you to clean the kitchen again

4. Locution derivable: the illocutionary intent is directly derivable from the semantic meaning of the locution

   Example: Madam you will have to / should / must / ought to move your car.

5. Want statement / Scope stating: the utterance expresses the speaker’s desire that the event denoted in the proposition come about.

   Example: I’d like to borrow your notes for a little while.

6. Suggestory formula: the illocutionary intent is phrased as a suggestion by means of a framing routine formula.

   Example: How about cleaning up the kitchen? / Why don’t you get lost?
7. Preparatory: the utterance contains reference to a preparatory condition for the feasibility of the request, typically one of ability, willingness or possibility, as conventionalised in the given language. Very often, but not necessarily so, the speaker questions rather than states the presence of the chosen preparatory conditions (query preparatory)

Example: Can I borrow your notes?

Could I possibly get your assignments done this week?

I was wondering if you would give me a lift.

8. Strong hint: the illocutionary intent is not immediately derivable from the locution; however, the locution refers to relevant elements of the intended illocutionary and/or prepositional act. Such elements often relate to preconditions for the feasibility of the request more inferencing activity on the part of the hearer.

Example: Will you be going home now?

9. Mild hint: the locution contains no elements which are of immediate relevance to the intended illocution or proposition, thus putting increased demand for context analysis and knowledge activation on the interlocutor.

Example: You’ve been busy, haven’t you?

According to the definitions offered above, the categorisation of the direct requests comprise:

Table 2.5 Categorisation of request strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUB-CATEGORIES</th>
<th>REQUEST STRATEGIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Mood derivable</td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Explicit performative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Hedged performative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Obligation statements</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Want statements</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Suggestory formulae</td>
<td>Conventionally indirect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Query preparatory</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the summary of the table above, it is quite apparent that a second language speaker would have to acquire a substantial linguistic and pragmatic knowledge in order to perform this unique form of illocutionary act. It is considered imperative for second language speakers to acquire a significant amount of linguistic devices that would enable them to be more competent and able to utter target-like requestive performance that are acceptable among the interlocutors.

In my study, I have also aimed to focus on the internal modification and external modification of requests in order to consider the meaning behind each choice of strategies made. Internal modification may be achieved through modifiers which can be defined as features embedded in the request that is connected to the Head Act (Blum-Kulka 1989). This linguistics features acts either as downgraders (mitigators) which are used to cushion the request or as upgraders that functions as a form of an intensifier to the coerciveness of a request. Downgraders are also classified into syntactic and lexical/phrasal downgraders (Fearch and Kasper, 1989) Syntactic downgraders consist of interrogative forms that is termed as negation (i.e. “Can’t you clean up the kitchen?”), past tense (i.e. “I wanted to ask you to clean up the kitchen”), and other mitigating devices like ‘please’, openers (“I would be grateful”..., “Do you mind”...), understaters (i.e. “Could you tidy up a bit?”), cajolers (i.e. “You know, it would be nice if you cleaned the kitchen today”) and downtoners (‘possibly’, ‘perhaps’, ‘just, ‘rather’ and etc).
Alternatively, external modification is referred to the supportive moves that are normally used before or after the Head Act. The function of this external modifications is normally used as a form of supplying reasons or explanations for the act (grounders), preparators (i.e. “I’d like to ask you something. . .”) and disarmers (i.e. “I know you hate housework, but could you clean up a bit today?”). Among other external modifications that have been found used in order to alleviate the level of imposition in making requests are as follows.

(i) Openers: elements in the form of greeting or vocatives whose function is to attract the hearer’s attention or to alert him/her to the subsequent request

Example: Excuse me. Do you have an extra piece of paper?

(ii) Self-introduction: devices that are used in situations where the requester and the hearer do not know each other in an attempt to pave the way for the request

Example: Hello. My name is Chad. I was wondering if I could borrow your book for two hours.

(iii) Preparators: devices that prepare the addressee for the subsequent request

Example: Will you give me a hand? Will you give me a ride to my college?

(iv) Grounders: devices that give reasons, or explanations that justify the request

Example: Could you give me a ride to my college? I have an exam after an hour but the bus I take breaks down.

(v) Disarmers: devices that indicate the speaker’s awareness of a potential offence and are hereby used to avoid the possibility of a refusal,
Example: *I’m sorry for bothering you, but if you don’t mind can you take me to my college?*

(vi) Imposition minimizers: devices that are employed to indicate consideration of the cost and to reduce the burden on the hearer

Example: *Hey, could you tape the seminar for me? If you are going there.*

(vii) Sweeteners: devices that are used to express exaggerated appreciation of the hearer’s ability to comply with the request in order to lower the imposition involved

Example: *I can’t attend the seminar and because I trust your good abilities I want you to tape-record the seminar for me.*

(viii) Promises of a reward: i.e., devices that are used by the requester, such as offering a reward, to increase the likelihood of the requestee’s compliance with the request

Example: *I really need a ride to class. I will compensate you.*

(ix) Closing: appreciation and thanking expressions used towards the end of the request as a closing formula

Example: *Thank you, Thanks a lot; Would you like to give me a paper please? I need to write some notes. Thank you.*
Some of these external modifications are evident in my data and there are justifications as to the use of these devices. This will be further discussed in my findings and discussion chapter.

Kallen (2005) has further suggested that some off-record strategies such as “understatement, irony, rhetorical questions, ellipsis, and silence” (p.133) should be included in requests that are considered to be at a different level of speech acts realisations and this an area that has not been fully understood and needs to be further examined. Trosborg’s (1995) has further refined the Conventionally Indirect strategy into two different categories and they are the hearer-oriented conditions (“Could you...”) and the speaker-oriented conditions (“May I...”). This additional categories would be a great help in further identifying special characteristics of participants using this particular strategy.

Another form of mitigation that interlocutors can exploit is the use of phatic discourse that if strategically used may be able to achieve certain effects. Furthermore, its incorrect or unexpected use may have very predictable consequences on social relations (Laver 1975, 1981). Nevertheless, in order to achieve this, L2 speakers may need to have a substantial proficiency level that may bring some tacit knowledge of phatic communion from their L1 that enables them to make some informed decisions about its use and contents. Otherwise, they may fail at controlling an inventory of pragmalinguistic strategies efficiently. L2 speakers must understand that phatic communion is ubiquitous and prevalent, a “most human process” (Sun 2004: 1462), which shows up through a plethora of acts like greetings, welcomes, questions about the interlocutors, leave-takes, wish-wells, farewells, compliments about obvious achievements or personal traits, complaints, narrations, chit-chat, or comments about trivial things or events (Malinowski 1923, p. 476–479). The most frequent conversational contexts where phatic
discourse typically appears are openings and closings (Laver 1975), where it surfaces as ritual (Edmondson and House 1981: 98) or formulaic utterances (Kasper 1984; Duda and Parpette 1987). It may also function as a form of propitiatory, where it acts as a leverage that may diminish any potential hostility attributable to silence and frames exchanges as friendly (Placencia 2004). In addition to that phatic discourse may pledge solidarity. As stated by Laver (1975), it acts as an initiatory that ensures interaction by “using emotionally uncontroversial communicative material, and demonstrating [...] signals of cordiality and tentative social solidarity” (p. 221). Laver has also reiterated that if used at the closing phase, phatic discourse ensures a future consensus owing to these functions (p. 230): a. Mitigating, inasmuch as it assuages any likely feeling of rejection b. Consolidating, as it emphasizes the enjoyable quality of encounters, mutual esteem and solidarity, amicability, and the continuation of contact.

2.6.4 Politeness

A secondary characteristic included in speech act performance that should also be looked into, is namely politeness. It is seen as something imperative in requesting as speakers have to be extra careful when performing this kind of act as it is seen as something that is inherently imposing on the hearer and that should give the speaker enough reasons to be more concerned with the relationship to ensure that solidarity is preserved and not in any form threatened. As such, both interlocutors must take special care in uttering their requests and they have to make sure they are sending the appropriate signal that invites harmony among them even though they have power over their hearers.
Brown and Levinson (1987) formulated a framework where politeness is concerned. The framework consists of several strategies that can be applied by interlocutors in order to preserve the notion of face.

In order to understand the concept of FTA, it is imperative to first understand the concept of face, which is a concept introduced by Goffman (1967). The concept is taken from the English folk term of “losing face” that ties the concept of face to the notion of being embarrassed or humiliated. Hence, the face is actually an emotional investment that has to be maintained, enhanced or preserved and no one would want to lose it (Brown and Levinson, 1987). In any forms of interaction, the face would be the most important and sensitive feature that everyone would want to safeguard. Failure to maintain other people’ face may result in something disastrous.

According to Brown and Levinson (1987) the concept of face can be categorised into two type; the positive face and the negative face. The “positive face is the consistent of self-image or personality” (p. 61). The most important thing to consider here is the positive face is always related to the idea of being appreciated, acknowledged and approved of by the others.

The negative face is referred to privileges and the rights to not be hindered by others which can be in a form of being independent of others with regard to actions and obligations. For example, a person is allowed to do anything he/she wants and that he/she are free from any form of expectation or should not be burdened by others.
Face wants would be another crucial factor that is involved in the preservation of face. This is also distinguished by the positive and negative face. According to Brown and Levinson positive face wants would be defined as “a want every member of a society that his/her wants be desirable to at least some others” (p.62). The negative face wants is identified as “the want of every “competent adult member” that his actions be unimpeaded by others.

In relation to my study where the focus lies in making requests, it is imperative to know how requests effect the notion of face. Requests fall under the category of acts that threatened the addressee’s (hearer’s) negative face want. Utterances in this act unavoidably impedes on the hearer’s freedom of action which puts a pressure on the hearer to do (or may also refrain on doing). Hence, special care needs to be observe in request making as it may affect the hearer’s reaction.

Brown and Levinson (1987) claimed that there is a basic classification of politeness strategies where indirectness is concerned and this different form of strategies are crucial when making requests especially in preserving the notion of face (Goffman, 1967). As requests are inherently imposing to the hearer, it is essential for the speaker to minimise the amount of threat on the hearer’s self-image. In order to achieve that the speaker must avoid any form of FTAs, otherwise he/she needs to use the different strategies that could assist in minimising the level of imposition on the hearer to save face.
Figure 2.2 above is an illustration as to how the Face Threatening Act (FTA) can be possibly perform. There are a few strategies that have been recommended by Brown and Levinson (1987). According to them, one of the strategies, off-record FTAs can be performed indirectly, thanks to their inherent ambiguity. They have the greatest potential for negotiation (including denial) and by choosing them the speaker removes him/herself from any imposition whatsoever. Examples of an off-record strategy are hints and the widely known request to close the window, “It’s cold in here”.
Apart from off-record, there are other different strategies which are presented in the form of four other strategies for performing FTAs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bald-on record</td>
<td>FTA performed bald-on-record, in a direct and concise way without redressive action.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive politeness</td>
<td>FTA performed with redressive action. Strategies oriented towards positive face of the hearer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative politeness</td>
<td>FTA performed with redressive action. Strategies oriented towards negative face of the hearer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance</td>
<td>FTA not performed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bold on record, the first strategy in the continuum is considered the most direct and it is only applied when the speaker is comfortable enough to use the imperative form and he/she is not concerned with the level of imposition of his/her request on the hearer. Usually, this strategy would be used when making requests to people who the speaker has very close relationship with, for instance, sibling or very good friends where there is not any need to observe the notion of face. An example that can illustrate this example would be “Put this in the box.” The final strategy (avoidance), is considered to be the most indirect strategy which is recommended to be used in situations that are considered to be highly threatening. This strategy is normally opted when the hearer does not want to respond to the speaker’s utterance, hence the most common reaction would be to just remain silent or probably change the subject of the conversation. On the other hand, positive politeness accommodates strategies that are used in order to reach a form of rapport among the interlocutors and some of the examples that are categorised under positive politeness are jokes or offers. One example of an utterance that can describe this strategy is “Be
a nice girl and make me some coffee”, this kind of utterance should only be uttered to people the speaker is familiar with, otherwise it may be misconstrued as an insult.

The next strategy is the negative politeness which is considered to be the most intricate strategy as the situation as to where it needs to be applied to are considered to be highly sensitive and highly imposing to the hearer. Brown and Levinson (1987:130) state that “negative politeness enjoins both on record delivery and redress of an FTA”. It requires the speaker to actually balance between the need to “Be Direct” and “Be Indirect” at the same time. A situation where there is a need to employ the imperative, mood derivational request but at the same not wanting to threaten the hearer’s notion of face and thus, the best option is to use the conventionalised form that allows the speaker to be indirect but at the same able to persuade the hearer to comply without compromising his/her public self-image. Brown and Levinson (1987), elaborated that this conventionalised form would “function as hedges on illocutionary force” (p.134). The recommended strategy for this condition would be to choose the off-record strategies that offer a range of options such as hints, metaphors, tautologies among others. An example that can illustrate this strategy is in the utterance “I can’t find my pen”, an off-record strategy in a form of a hint that requires the hearer to interpret the request uttered. The statement by itself can be considered very direct as it does not consist any modifications such as please, could, would and others. This kind of utterance would also minimize the level of threat to the hearer’s face as it gives the hearer the freedom to ignore the request without making it obvious to the speaker as he/she can choose to ignore the request and the speaker could not blame him/her because he/she could get away with it by pretending not the understand the underlying request, i.e. the hearer can interpret the utterance as a mere statement. On the other hand, if the hearer understood the
speaker’s intention (i.e. requesting for a pen) he/she would be obligated to offer the speaker’s
his/her pen because that would be the most appropriate thing to do; to assist when one needed a
helping hand. When attempting this strategy the speaker need to understand the risk of his/her
utterance, special attentions need to be given to the environment or where the situation takes
place for the intention the be clear and well received and should not be misconstrued by the
hearer.

The last but not least is there is another option and that is not to commit to any form of FTA and
according to Brown and Levinson (1987) that is even more polite compared to any form of hints
or metaphors. In some cases, it is safer to just remain silent or to a certain extent, if the need
arises, to change the subject or topic of discussion altogether.

In short, the above strategies function base on one particular foundation and that is to preserve
the notion of face or public self-image of the hearer. The yardstick that can be used to measure
the level of threat that can compromise the notion of face is very dependent on power, social
distance and degree of imposition (Brown and Levinson, 1987). These variables can be used to
measure the weight an FTA and the speaker can determine the best option to use in reducing the
level of imposition.

In spite of all these recommendations, there are a number of researches which have proven that
these may not seem to be as straightforward as presented. Blum-Kulka (1987) claimed that even
though there are evidences, theorised by Brown and Levinson (1987) and Leech (1983) to show
there is a strong relationship between the notion of indirectness and politeness, there still remain
some reservations where the correlation is concerned. In reference to these reservations, both Brown and Levinson had to admit that politeness may not be appreciated in certain circumstances. For example, when among friends and relatives it would be quite awkward to be very polite, they might think you are acting a bit odd and this is one of the points raised by my participant during the follow up discussion. She had equate being polite as being formal and that would not be appropriate nor would it be appreciated by her family members, “... it may... cause your family member to be uncomfortable...” Hence, these strategies may not be applicable to all circumstances and the speaker would have to be the one to weigh things first before making any statements.

Another reservation that was highlighted by Wierzbicka (1985) regarding the use of speech act and its differences in English and Polish. She claimed that the differences may not be explained via the politeness theory as Polish has the tendency to use more interrogative and conditional forms compared to the English use of the imperative. She had illustrated that in an utterance such as this “Why don’t you close the window?” may not be a proper request in Polish but might be misconstrued as an “unreasonable and stubborn behaviour on the part of the addresses” (Wierzbicka, 1985, p.152). She has also claimed that in Polish the use of imperative does not imply that the speaker is being ill-mannered or disrespectful which is perceived differently in English.

Bald on-record politeness strategies provide no effort by the speaker to reduce the impact of the FTAs. By choosing this strategy, the speaker will have to be careful because the hearer might not be very happy with the utterances made by the speaker. However, this type of strategy is
normally used by interlocutors who are very familiar with each other and are well attuned with the surroundings. An example of a bald on-record request would be “Put that coat away”.

The next option, which are the negative politeness strategies establish a sense of aloofness that must be observed by the speaker. When choosing this strategy, the speaker is actually trespassing on the hearer’s sense of liberation where obligations is concerned. For instance, if a speaker says “I’m looking for a pin”, his/her intention was to ask the hearer to offer him/her some assistance in looking for one without having to ask. Brown and Levinson’s model of politeness can be seen as one of the most influential work for examining politeness phenomena in human interactions. However, their theory has been criticised on a number of grounds. Their face-saving model (Figure 2.1) has been questioned mainly because the distinction between positive and negative face does not appear to be the same in non-Western cultures where the underlying interactional focus emphasizes collectivism rather than individualism.

Leech (1983) identified the approach of politeness as not having anything to do with pragmatic inferencing processes but rather with the attainment of social goals. In this way it is very much associated with the social interactive cycle and basic to the society’s universal conceptualisation of politeness; the ability to be able to choose the appropriate ways and means in achieving the maximum benefit from speaker and hearer at the minimum cost. This approach supports Goffman’s (1967) idea of a rational model person having a “public self-image” which the interlocutor wishes to project to other group members and a need to act without being impeded in any way by other members.
The point at which “polite’ utterances fade off again into additional FTAs cannot be determined by any set of rules for language usage. It is not only culture-dependent but also context-dependent within the same culture.

Haugh (2007) emphasises the notion of politeness implicature where he reiterates that little attention has been paid politeness implicatures. He highlighted that there is a point between politeness and implicature that needs to observed as it is considered as an interactional achievements of the dyadic form between a speaker and a hearer. This notion is very much similar to what Grice (1957) has described as signals but Haugh has related it to politeness which I find very interesting. This has also been raised by Brown and Levinson in their theory of politeness which they had this related to the notion of ‘polite intention’ to the speaker in the form of a particularised implicature (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p.6, p.95; Brown, 1995, p.169).

This notion can be further explained in a situation where a customer is seen looking around for something to buy. It would be very common for a sales promoter to approach the said customer with a question ‘Can I help you?’ This example illustrates that the speaker is actually placing a very high value on the customer’s well-being by putting herself or himself at the customer’s bidding, i.e to assist a purchase.

Leech (2005; cf. 1983, p.133–134) reiterated that the utterance above works very well with one of the criteria of politeness and that is the ‘‘generosity constraint’’ which is defined as placing a very high value on the hearer’s wants rather than the speaker. Consequently, having put forth the detailed discussion of politeness theory and its usefulness, Leech (2003, 2005) had presented a
concern that it may be evident that all this strategies would be very valuable to the English language and its culture, however, it is still uncertain that similar results will be obtained if it is being applied to a totally different contexts.

One example taken from Haugh’s (2007) study illustrates the politeness implicature. The setting was taken in Tokyo where an attendant of a museum had to inform one of the museum’s visitors that she was not allowed to eat in the museum. The manner of how this request was uttered was very unique as the attendant did not have to actually verbalise his request but needed only to apologise and the visitor immediately understood that what he wanted to tell her was. “Please you are not allowed to eat here”. The detailed sequence of the whole conversation can be explained below.

i. An attendant at the museum has apologised to the visitor.
ii. The attendant is going to tell the visitor something with negative implications for the visitor (inference from i)
iii. The visitor is unwrapping some food to eat (background knowledge).
iv. Eating in public places is sometimes not permitted (background knowledge)
v. The visitor may not be permitted to eat food at the museum (inference from iii and iv)
vi. Asking someone one does not know to stop eating requires an apologetic approach (background knowledge)
vii. The attendant is requesting the visitor to stop eating (inference from ii, v and vi)

(Haugh, 2007)

Hence, the implicature arising from the attendant’s apologetic approach is thus a request that the visitor stop eating in the museum. It is in no doubt that Haugh’s discovery is very interesting and it has shed some light in understanding politeness through implicatures, However, his study is focused only on the Japanese language and culture. It still remains to be seen whether other
cultures especially in a multicultural environment would account for the same phenomenon, as this study hopes to reveal.

2.6.7 Power

This term is used as a variable to signify the general symbol of all types of social difference and distance (Trudgill, 1983). One of the most important thing that a speaker needs to observe when making requests is to consider the social distance that exist between the speaker and the hearer. This variable has been considered as crucial by many sociolinguists and it has been open for research for the last thirty over years (Geertz 1960; Brown and Gilman 1960; Bell 1984; Holmes 1992a). Brown and Levinson (1987), for instance, identify relative social distance as a relevant social dimension in all cultures, though the precise factors which contribute to determining its importance in any community and even in particular interaction, will differ. But their importance must be assessed in context. For instance, the fact that people work together or share an apartment together may contribute to their feeling more friendly towards each other. However, in other contexts, such factors may be irrelevant or may even increase social distance. Housemates may not be so friendly to each other when they argue as to who cooks their meals most of the time, for example.

Leech (1983: 126) also identifies social distance as a very important variable that would help determine the interlocutor’s ability to observe politeness or how to be tactful. He points out that determining social distance involves considering the role an individual would adopt with regard
to a certain social event and how she/he would react. Thus, a teacher might reasonably and legitimately say to a student ‘get that essay to me by next week’ but not ‘make me a cup of coffee’ (Leech 1983:126). The teacher’s role confers authority over the student’s academic behaviour, and so the imperative form, get, is justified in the former case. It is not normally part of a student’s role to make coffee for a teacher, however, and a request of this kind would therefore need to be expressed with far more ‘tact’.

Hofstede (2001) formulated another theory on cross-cultural dimension when he considered categories of interpretation in a cross-cultural setting. One of the dimensions played a particular interest in power distance. Hofstede deliberated that power distance may determine how one culture may differ in the aspect of communication with another culture. He actually believed that there is a level or a limit that where subordinates or those who do not have any form of authority are able to deal with the fact that power is not something that everybody is blessed with and only a certain individual would be able to accomplish that. Hence, when involved in an interaction this distribution of unequal power would be adhered to and managed by the society to maintain solidarity. The power distance dimension of Hofstede was not well received by another theorist, Johannes Cronje. Cronje (2011) reiterated in his study of Hofstede dimensions, that rather than highlighting the differences as done by Hofstede, researchers in the study of speech act should consider looking at commonalities that can bridge cultural diversity in a multicultural environment. He accentuated in his study that two elements that require consideration, in a cross cultural setting, are reduction of communication uncertainty and construction of shared meaning. In the case of reducing communication uncertainty, the participants of his study were asked to express their needs and expectations. They were able to reduce their uncertainties towards each
other through a series of interaction and in the end they managed to come to certain understanding and able to synchronised their expectations. The construction of shared meaning element was achieved when the participants of his study decided to be more involved in the other culture that they were unfamiliar with. They shared informations with regards to way of living, the language and even provided pictures to further illustrate their explanation.

Hence, it would be appropriate to consider that though Hofstede’s *National Cultural Dimension* can be used as tool to measure culture behaviour, a closer inspection to the individual’s level, of the societies’ concern, would help in getting a better and clearer picture of a true culture behaviour that can be added to the understanding of this field.

### 2.6.8 Research on requests in Second Language Acquisition

Request making is an area of language research that has been made very popular among sociolinguists for several purposes. The main consideration for these studies is to ensure enough understanding can be ascertained to ensure that communication can be done smoothly and solidarity can be maintained (Kasper and Dahl, 1994; Rose, 1994; Kasper, 2000; Yuan, 2001; Kasper and Rose, 2002; Felix-Brasdefer, 2010 and Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2013). Requests are defined as a face-threatening act (FTA) because it can be interpreted that the speaker is trying to place some form of imposition on the hearer or it might also be interpreted as an act of exercising power (Brown and Levinson, 1987). Therefore, they require a substantial amount of linguistic knowledge on the part of a learner if he/she intends to make a request. They permit a
wide range of strategies, most of which are clearly identifiable formulas and they differ cross-
culturally.

Ellis (1994) provides a review of the substantial body of research that exists on requests nowadays. Although a number of studies have investigated learners’ perception and comprehension of requests (Olshtain and Blum-Kulka, 1984,1986; Ervin-Tripp, Strage, Lampert and Bell, 1987; Lee 2004; Dalmau and Gotor, 2007 and Woodfield and Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2010), most research has focused on the production of requests elicited in the form of written responses to a discourse completion questionnaire or oral responses to role plays.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STUDY</th>
<th>TYPE</th>
<th>SUBJECTS</th>
<th>DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS</th>
<th>MAIN RESULTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blum-Kulka and Olshtain 1986</td>
<td>Cross-sectional</td>
<td>Learners of L2 Hebrew; (mixed proficiency)</td>
<td>Discourse completion questionnaire</td>
<td>High intermediate learners used longer requests than low intermediate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House and Kasper 1987</td>
<td>Cross-sectional</td>
<td>Advanced learners of L2 English</td>
<td>Discourse completion questionnaire</td>
<td>Learners showed similar choice of directness levels but used less varied syntactic and lexical down- graders less frequently and produced longer requests.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanaka</td>
<td>Cross-</td>
<td>8 Japanese ESL</td>
<td>Role play</td>
<td>The learners were</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.7. Summary of researches done on requests strategies
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Design</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>Cross-sectional</td>
<td>learners in Australia</td>
<td>more direct than NSs and used politeness strategies inappropriately</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faerch and Kasper 1989</td>
<td>Cross-sectional</td>
<td>200 learners of English &amp; 200 learners of German</td>
<td>Discourse completion questionnaire</td>
<td>Learners tend to be more verbose; over use of politeness markers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rintell and Mitchell 1989</td>
<td>Cross-sectional</td>
<td>34 ESL learners – Low advanced level</td>
<td>Discourse completion questionnaire Role play</td>
<td>Learners’ requests longer than NSs. No major differences in choice of form or strategies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ellis 1992</td>
<td>Longitudinal</td>
<td>2 ESL learners</td>
<td>Pencil and paper records and audio recordings</td>
<td>Learners have limited ability in using requests and did not make elaborated requests.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rinnert and Kobayashi 1998</td>
<td>Cross-sectional</td>
<td>Native speakers of Japanese and English</td>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
<td>Japanese requestives hints more opaque than the English and use of requestive hints differs between the 2 cultures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Owen 2001</td>
<td>Cross-sectional</td>
<td>84 non-native speakers of Russians</td>
<td>Oral proficiency interview Role Play</td>
<td>High proficiency level produced a more native-like performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code and Anderson 2001</td>
<td>Longitudinal</td>
<td>35 Japanese students</td>
<td>Discourse completion questionnaire</td>
<td>Lower levels use more direct strategies but gradually replaced by conventionally indirect requests.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dong 2009</td>
<td>Cross-sectional</td>
<td>25 students</td>
<td>Questionnaire</td>
<td>Chinese students prefer to use mood derivable (direct) when speaking with friends compared to Russian.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shcherbakova 2010</td>
<td>Cross-sectional</td>
<td>39 Russian EFL learners</td>
<td>Discourse completion questionnaire</td>
<td>Russian EFL learners use more indirect request when addressing professors and more direct when addressing students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stranovska 2012</td>
<td>Cross-sectional</td>
<td>147 university students of foreign language</td>
<td>Questionnaire</td>
<td>Different use of request in L1 and L2. Students use direct request in L1 but less in L2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostafa Shahidi Tabar 2012</td>
<td></td>
<td>Male and female Turkish-Persian respondents</td>
<td>Discourse completion questionnaire</td>
<td>Female use more direct requests in Persian and Turkish compared to males.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tawalbeh and Al-Oqaily 2012</td>
<td>Cross-sectional</td>
<td>30 Saudi and American undergraduate</td>
<td>Discourse completion questionnaire</td>
<td>Saudi students prefer direct request in intimate situations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economidou-Kogetisidis 2013</td>
<td>Longitudinal</td>
<td>110 telephone request (54 females and 46 males)</td>
<td>Written discourse completion questionnaire</td>
<td>Request strategy chosen is more conventionally indirect.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valizadeh et al. 2015</td>
<td></td>
<td>39 (BA students) 54 (MA students) 47 (PhD students)</td>
<td>Discourse completion questionnaire</td>
<td>Request strategy used is conventionally indirect. &quot;Internal modifier&quot; and</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
"Supportive moves" was the most popular structures employed among PHD participants when uttering requests.

Studies conducted by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986), House and Kasper (1987), Faerch and Kasper (1989) and Rintell and Mitchell (1989) have one common finding, which is that high intermediate and advance proficiency learners tend to utter a longer request compared to the lower proficiency learners. However, there are no clear justification that could explain this finding further. It would help if there are further discussions that could further clarify the tendency of advance proficiency learners to produce long utterance when making request. Hence, I hope to clarify this findings with the results of my own study with the use of the model that I have formulated of which I will further explain in Chapter Four.

An additional point that I would like to highlight with regards to the study conducted by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1987), is that they have found that they have related the lengthy request utterance to pragmatic failure, their justification for this claim is that lengthy utterance may create misunderstanding among interlocutors. The participants of my study seem to have a different opinion where this phenomena is concerned. They seem to think that certain situations require lengthy request utterance as more information might help the speaker to convince the hearer to be more cooperative. I will further elaborate on this point in Chapter Four.
Many of the cross-sectional studies have investigated high-intermediate or advanced learners. One of the strongest findings from these studies is that these second language speakers may not be able to fully achieve a native speaker’s manner of making requests. Although they may eventually managed to master the language they may not be able to achieve a similar skill compared to a native speaker where the pragmatic aspect of the language is concerned particularly in speech acts. It may be quite impossible for the second language learners to achieve such control unless they are actually living among the community that speak the language for example in and English speaking country like the United Kingdom. However, it would be much more interesting to discover how they would manage to negotiate between their mother tongue and the second language in their interaction with the locals. This is one of the aim of my study.

Another observation that can be made from these studies is that none has actually taken into consideration the multicultural aspect of the society and each of the studies done was in isolation and they are not focused on the meaning behind each choice of request strategies made. It is hoped that this study will help to identify the request strategies chosen by different ethnic groups living in a multicultural environment but also why such choices were made. This will contribute to an understanding as of these groups are able to maintain solidarity among themselves considering they have different cultural backgrounds and ethnicity.

In this study, apart from determining the choice of request strategies used and considering the differences and similarities of the choice among the participants, I have also taken into consideration integrating Hofstede’s Dimensions of National Culture, Blum-Kulka’s Level of
Directness in Request Strategies and Grice’s Maxims to create a model that would act as a system that would rationalise the language performance that has been completed by the participants of this study. This is done to ensure as to how the choices were made. The model formulated would also be regarded as a form of a social affective resonance that would give some form of feedback to the global citizen as to what is acceptable and what is not acceptable to say in a global social context.

In summary, this chapter has discussed the theoretical framework of this study. The main three theories that I will use to analyse my data; Hofstede’s National Dimension, Blum-Kulka’s Request Strategies and Grice’s Maxims. These theories will be discussed to answer my three main research questions and thus further justify my findings.
3.1 Introduction

This chapter will not only discuss the methodology of this study but will also look into previous studies that have adopted the methods that I have chosen to analyse my data, particularly pertaining to the three theories that I have chosen to integrate in the model that I have formulated. I have organized it very much like a literature review to give a better perspective of what I have done in my analysis. The studies that I have selected and presented in this chapter are cited in order to help me gain a clearer insight as to how the studies have used and interpreted the three theories. It is also important for me to know how the researchers justified their findings as well.

In this study, I hope to explore how one aspect or manifestation of politeness theory is being realized in a multicultural setting and since English is the language that I wish to explore and to understand how this theory is being applied. It seemed appropriate to have this study conducted in an English speaking country, hence Sheffield was the most convenient choice as I am also part of the community and I believe that my experience and background knowledge of the locals may assist in understanding what my participants would have discussed in my data.
Another consideration of this study is that I am also interested in explaining not only the linguistic aspect of how and what the participants chose to fulfil their requests but also in investigating why they choose to arrange such requests in that manner. In other words, I wish to explore the rationales and justifications as to why they have chosen to say what they have said when they uttered their requests. Thus, I have also included some theories on intercultural communication that might help me understand how and why my participants have responded the way they did during the data collection.

The method of analysis applied for this study is a qualitative analysis where the data was analysed via an interpretative approach. The interpretivism perspective is considered to be closely related to the epistemology of constructionism (Gray, 2009). It is suggested that the interpretivist or constructivist is very much concerned with the participants’ attitude and perception regarding a certain condition that is being investigated. He or she as a researcher may also able to distinguish between the effects that are being examined according to his/her own inference and consideration. An interpretivist, or constructivist, may also have the tendency to be very dependent on qualitative facts with regard to gathering information via different methods and evaluations. He or she may inductively create theories or patterns to make meaning out of the data that he/she may have collected throughout the research process and some constructivists may combine qualitative and the quantitative approaches (a mixed method approach) as they see it fitting to make sense of their data and to give them a clearer and effective presentation of the findings and discussion that will help them develop their explanation to the issue that they are trying to unravel. However, Creswell et al. (2003) and McKenzie & Knipe (2006) have argued
that the interpretivist or constructivist perspective usually operates best when using qualitative methods.

Therefore, for the analysis of my study, I have decided that it is appropriate to use a qualitative methodology as it helps to come to an understanding as to how and why the participants of this study chose their request strategies and what the reasons and justifications were behind their said choice.

Once collected, data was then coded and categorized into several themes. The themes that emerged from the data were sorted and interpreted according to a model that I constructed based on three theories that I eventually conceptualised into a framework that would assist in my analysis and then later to justify my findings.

This chapter is therefore organised into a few sections that will consider certain aspects of the method and methodology of the study. Among aspects that will be discussed in this chapter are the sample, the instruments, ethical consideration, my position where this study is concerned and the model that I planned to use in order to analyse my data. The chapter will also discuss the limitations of my study.

3.2 Sample

The method of sampling that I have selected for this study is convenience sampling. According to Creswell (2008) when a researcher selects participants who are willing to and available to be studied, the researcher is actually conducting convenience sampling. He also mentions that in
convenience sampling the researcher must also consider selecting participants that would be able to provide useful information for answering questions in his/her study. This should be the main consideration that the researcher has to bear in mind when conducting convenience sampling.

The respondents for my study are selected from among overseas postgraduate students attending a full-time Masters course in a university in the United Kingdom. The target population of the university students was chosen due to their educational and social backgrounds consisting of proficiency levels: intermediate and advanced learners of English. For the purpose of this study, it was assumed that students at these levels would be more proficient in the English language and would be able to help provide the required data as recommended by Creswell (2008).

In the many studies that have been carried out concerning request, intermediate and advanced learners of the second language are those most able to adopt the choices of request strategies as native speakers. They may not perform the speech acts as well as the native speakers, nevertheless they exhibit comfortable control over the pragmatic or functional uses as those expressed by such speech acts (Olshtain and Cohen 1985). In a study conducted by Moon (1999), whose research dealt with the differences in complaint strategies by non-native speakers and native speakers of English, she discovered that non-native speakers with a high level of grammatical competence did not always use the target language appropriately but were more varied in their performance of pragmatic competence than that of native speakers. Yu (2011), Brown (2000) and Ellis (1994) emphasised that “studies in communicative competence have suggested exposure to the target language and increased cultural experience of L2 social convention may support successful L2 acquisition”. In a study conducted by Rose (2000), it was
shown that there is a significant correlation between proficiency level and the enhancement of conventionally indirect use of request strategies. He discovered that his Cantonese-speaking primary-school students who were considered to be very proficient in English chose conventionally indirect requests more often compared to those from the lower proficient levels. Thus, it can be observed that second language learners of English with a high proficiency level should perform the pragmatic competence similar to native speakers.

For this study, participants recruited for the first phase the DCT, for both cohorts are 106. For the second phase, the follow up discussion, I managed to recruit 15 participants for the interview and discussion from the two cohorts; the breakdown of the procedure of the data collection are 1 one to one interview, 1 interview with 2 participants, 2 interviews with 3 participants and 1 focus group discussion. The first round of data collection for the follow-up discussion involving the one to one interview and an interview with 2 participants were conducted involving the cohort at the end of the 2013/2014 academic year. At this point most of the students were in the midst of finalising their dissertation, hence not many managed to turn up for the data collection sessions. The second round of data collection of the follow-up discussion session was done in the earlier part of the 2014/2015 academic year. The students were only occupied with tutorials and lectures, hence I managed to recruit a few more interviews and 1 focus group discussion. The distribution of the participants for this study is a listed in Table 3.1.
Table 3.1 Distribution of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cohort</th>
<th>Data Collection</th>
<th>Nationality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DCT</td>
<td>Interview and Focus Group Discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013/2014</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>1. 1 participant interview – 1 set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. 2 participants interview – 1 set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014/2015</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>1. 2 participants interview – 1 set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. 3 participants interview – 2 sets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. 1 focus group discussion – 1 set of 5 participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total participants</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3 Instrument

I decided to use the Discourse Completion Test (DCT) as an instrument to collect the data for this study. The instrument was originally developed by Blum-Kulka (1982) to compare the speech act realization patterns of L1 and L2 speakers. The instrument contains incomplete discourse sequences that are created to represent socially distinguished situations. Every one of the situations present a brief description of the circumstances, specifying the setting, the social distance between the two interlocutors and regarding their status to each other.

It was imperative to use the DCT as an instrument to my study as it is considered to be the best device to measure the knowledge or competence of pragmatic functioning in this form of social interaction. Bebbe and Cumming (1996) believe that this device serves the purpose of examining the social norms for this study. It also focuses on ESL pragmatic choices, which is to consider if
there are any forms of transfer between L1 to L2 norms. It is, therefore, considered as the most appropriate tool to use as it is able to obtain data from quasi-naturalistic settings that are created based on familiar and realistic situations that the participants find sufficient and appropriate for the purpose of this study. Other studies have found that there are correlations between language use in naturalistic settings with the language use in quasi-naturalistic settings with some considerations made towards repetitions, hesitations and error in fluency, with regard to L2 or non-native speakers (Scholfield, 1995).

There are, however, conflicts pertaining to the effectiveness of the DCT in interlanguage speech acts research and there are many studies that have made attempts to justify its value. Many studies have been conducted to compare the data which is collected via different methods and assessments. Among major concerns that have been put forth is whether different data gathering methods may give different outcomes and to what extent they are different. Discourse completion tests, or as some may term them as “discourse completion tasks” (DCT) are considered to be the most typically used instrument when measuring speech acts where the participants or respondents react to a set of situations with a concise description in writing. The DCT is found to be commonly used in studies conducted by Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper (1989), Maeshiba, Yoshinaga, Kasper, & Rose (1996) and Kim (2007). There are some other studies that have compared the use of DCT with other natural setting methods such as role play. Rintell and Mitchell (1989) discovered that data collected via DCT is somewhat similar to the data that they have collected using the role play method. Another study conducted by Salazar-Campillo (2008), testing the request act both through role plays and DCTs found that ESL learners or non-native speakers of English produced somewhat similar lexical modifiers in role
play and in the DCT. The same result is also reported by Hassal (2001) and Vilar-Beltrán (2008), who both found that native speakers used more lexical modifiers (such as downgrading devices) than non-native speakers in role play and produced the same response via the DCT.

Beebe and Cummings (1996) have deduced that DCT is a “highly effective means of instrumentation” (p. 80). They went on further to summarise the effectiveness of the DCT as a sound method that can elicit valuable data and that would fulfil several purposes. The DCT is able to:

1. save time as it is able to collect a massive amount of data in a very short period
2. create an initial classification of semantic formulas and strategies that will likely occur in natural speech;
3. study the stereotypical, perceived requirements for socially appropriate responses;
4. gain insight into social and psychological factors that are likely to affect speech act performance;
5. ascertain the established form of speech acts in the minds of speakers of the language; and variables that may affect speech behaviour.

They have also discovered that participants’ would say the same thing if they are positioned in the same situation as they would respond to the DCT. Hence it is safe to claim that the written responses made by participants are valid as they adequately represent the actual oral presentation of the interlocutors when they encounter similar situations in their daily interaction.

Olshtain Blum-Kulka (1984) also established that the DCT enable researchers to elicit the realization of a given speech act by controlling contextual variability. The data collection by means of DCT is considered as more consistent and reliable due to the fact that all participants
respond to similar scenarios within the same written form. The data that I have collected for this study are stimulated data and may have some limitations of presenting the actual responses of what my participants would actually say in respective situations and the responses may not be the exact utterance that they might produce in an actual situation. Nonetheless, it might be good to highlight that the purpose of this study is to consider the participants’ verbal behaviour regarding the speech act examined in this study. Yuan (2001) has reiterated that the DCT has the capacity to collect an enormous amount of data that can actually provide an outline of a stereotypical realisation pattern of speech acts and may give an insight into cultural norms of verbal behaviour.

The original DCT created by Blum-Kulka (1982) contained an incomplete dialogue of which the sole purpose was to give some form of assistance or guidance for the participants.

Example: 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 and House, 1989:14)

Rintell and Mitchell (1989:251), and Marti (2000) have somehow found this arrangement a bit disturbing. They are rather concerned that the response made by the hearer might influence the participant’s request rather than performs as a mere guideline. In additional to that, in the Cross Cultural Speech Act Realisation Project (CCSARP), just one blank line (as demonstrated in the example above) is provided for the participants’ answers. Therefore, in my study, the incomplete
dialogue was not included as I felt compelled to agree with Rintell and Mitchell (1989:251), and Marti (2000) that it may influence my participants’ responses when reacting to the situations provided in the DCT. Hence, each discourse sequence will be followed by two blank lines where the participants should write their answers that would provide the speech act aimed at in the given context.

Another consideration that I would like to highlight here once again, is that there are still some researchers, particularly Wolfson et al., (1989), Rintell and Mitchell, (1989), Rose, (1994) and Yuan (2001) who doubt the reliability of using the DCT to measure speech acts. They feel that the DCT is still not appropriate enough to collect authentic spoken or genuine naturalistic situations. Kasper (2010) and Felix-Brasdefer (2010) have agreed to this scepticism as well and have reiterated that the DCT may not be able to be as authentic as the actual interaction and may not be able to equate natural discourse. Therefore, the findings of the study will be viewed as subjected to certain limitations and in order to overcome these limitations Woodfield (2010) has recommended that it would be best if the DCT be supplemented with some verbal report as it would provide more insights of the participants perceptions of the sociocultural aspects of the discourse situation; with regard to social status and social distance, which they will consider when making requests. Cohen (1996) seemed to think this combination may give the researcher a better understanding as to the rationale or justification the participants would give to the sociolinguistic forms they have used in order to realize the given speech act.

Hence, in this study, as a means of maximizing the reliability status of the DCT, I have also decided to include interviews and focus group discussions to provide more evidence of the types
of semantic or verbal formulas that my participants would use when reacting to the DCT. These additional methods to my data collection would help in providing further information as to the reasons and justifications why my participants chose their request strategies. Lorenzo-Dus (2001) has suggested additional methodologies would assist researchers in getting the “extra” that would give them better findings and would help in providing a different perspective that would give added value or an additional “brick” to the present knowledge.

Further elaboration of the methods and methodology for this study will be elaborated in the next section.

3.4 Procedure

This study is comprised of certain stages that I have outlined to show how I collected my data and how the data has been processed and interpreted.

Below (Figure 3.2) is a diagram that presents the process of how the data collection was organized.
3.4.1 Pilot

Prior to the actual data collection for the main study, a pilot study was carried out in order to obtain some form of foundation to build an instrument or an intervention for the main study. 95 English native speakers from a university-based course in initial teacher education were selected for this purpose.

There are several reasons as to why pilot studies are highly recommended for a potential researcher. In social science, the term pilot study is considered to address two different purposes in social science researches. Polit et al. (2001) term it as a feasible study that could assist in preparing for the major study. According to them, pilot studies are “small scale” versions or “trial runs” that would give researchers a feel for the real thing and a general idea of what to anticipate in the actual study. This was also reiterated by Baker (1994), who considers pilot
studies as a pre-testing or trying out a particular research instrument that would give the researcher a signal as to what might or might not happen in an actual or in the major study.

Feasibility studies or pilot studies are essential to researchers as a form of validation in identifying drawbacks or glitches in a study protocol. It is crucial to have any problems identified prior to the actual study to ensure that the data collected are of high quality.

Peat et al (2002) summarized the use of pilot studies in the following way.

1. Developing and testing adequacy of research instruments
2. Assessing the feasibility of a (full-scale) study/survey
3. Designing a research protocol
4. Assessing whether the research protocol is realistic and workable
5. Establishing whether the sampling frame and technique are effective
6. Assessing the likely success of proposed recruitment approaches
7. Identifying logistical problems which might occur using proposed methods
8. Estimating variability in outcomes to help determining sample size
9. Collecting preliminary data
10. Determining what resources (finance, staff) are needed for a planned study
11. Assessing the proposed data analysis techniques to uncover potential problems
12. Developing a research question and research plan
13. Training a researcher in as many elements of the research process as possible

(Source: Peat et al. 2002: 123)

In relation to my own pilot study, I discovered that the first point was very crucial for my study. I was quite concerned with the DCT particularly with regard to the participants’ ability to respond
accordingly, as to their ability to fulfil the requirements of each situation in the DCT. Hence, in all of the sessions, I prompted the participants to ask questions if they were unsure of anything pertaining to the DCT and surprisingly that helped the participants to be more comfortable and ease the awkwardness of the session a little. There were quite a number of queries from the participants which gave me some ideas that would help prepare me for the actual data collection. Some of the participants were unsure of how they could react to the DCT and I had to encourage them that they should be confident with their responses and that there is no right or wrong answer. That helped ease their anxiety and eventually they were more confident to response accordingly. During the actual data collection session, I did the same thing. I started the session with a little explanation of the DCT and I told the participants to be confident with their responses and that there was no right or wrong answer to the DCT. I had also prompted them to ask questions if they are unsure of the situations in the DCT. After that, I discovered that they were more at ease and more confident as well. Since that worked very well with both pilot and the actual survey, I did the same thing with the interviews and focus group discussions. It went perfectly well for the interviews and focus group discussions because the participants were more relaxed and very much at ease with the other participants as well. It helped created a sense of camaraderie among them and they were able to respond to each other very well and that helped me retrieve a wealth of data. Hence, the pilot study not only made me realised that the DCT was an adequate instrument for my study, it helped me in giving me some understanding as to my approach in eliciting information from my participants and that it was imperative to make them feel at ease and that they should be the one to decide on their responses and that there was no pressure in their performance. This notion catered for the thirteenth objective recommended by
Peat (2002), and gave me some experience of what a research process entails which I would never have understood if I had not experience it myself.

Apart from the first purpose, my pilot study was also a means for me to collect some preliminary data for my actual study. The data from this pilot study was later analysed and some responses were selected to produce a video that I planned to use as an intervention for my interviews and focus group discussions. I found this process fascinating and intriguing as it gave me some insights as to the request realizations made by the native speakers. It was quite a challenge, for me, to select the most appropriate responses for the video as all of them were very good and quite amusing as well.

The second purpose of piloting a study is to improve the internal validity of a questionnaire. Peat et al. (2002) have summarised the procedures of this purpose as the following.

1. administer the questionnaire to pilot subjects in exactly the same way as it will be administered in the main study
2. ask the subjects for feedback to identify ambiguities and difficult questions
3. record the time taken to complete the questionnaire and decide whether it is reasonable
4. discard all unnecessary, difficult or ambiguous questions
5. assess whether each question gives an adequate range of responses
6. establish that replies can be interpreted in terms of the information that is required
7. check that all questions are answered
8. re-word or re-scale any questions that are not answered as expected

9. shorten, revise and, if possible, pilot again

(Source: Peat et al. 2002: 123)

The main data collection was conducted the same as way the pilot study. The DCT was administered very much the same way as I did in my pilot study. As mentioned earlier, I began the session by giving some background information to my study and to also make them aware that there is no right or wrong answer so they would not feel too anxious as to their response to each of the situation. Some of the participants of the pilot study required some clarification with regard to the situations given in the DCT and I had to explain so as they were able to respond appropriately. This is also one of the recommendation made Peat (2002) as one of purpose of piloting a study is to get feedback from students with regard to identifying ambiguous situations that might affect the data collected. In the pilot study, I also noted that the participants took about 15 to 20 minutes to address the DCT. Noting the time taken by the participants when addressing the DCT helped me in the preparation of the major study.

In summary, my pilot study has served several purposes that would assist in my major study. The first was to test the instrument (the DCT) that I had chosen to use to collect my data. The outcome for this purpose was that I discovered that the DCT served its purpose in giving me some insights as to how my participants reacted to the situations presented in the DCT. Additionally, I also discovered that the participants for my pilot study required more than a single blank line when responding to the situations and this led me to include an additional blank line in the DCT that I have used for my major study. It also gave me some ideas about how to administer the DCT as well as the interviews and focus group discussions in the major study. It
gave me some authentic experiences in managing the participants’ anticipation towards the whole data collection process. The other purpose of the pilot study was to ensure that I would have enough input to create an intervention for my interviews and focus group discussions. This intervention will be further elaborated in the coming section.

3.4.2 Phase 1 Data Collection

The data collection went through two different phases. In Phase 1, the data were obtained through the use of a controlled elicitation procedure. A discourse completion task (DCT) was utilized as an instrument. Each situation given was a short description of the situational context, specifying the setting and the social distance between the participants and their relative status between each person. Respondents were asked to respond to the situations, thereby providing the objective of the speech act (Blum-Kulka et al., 1988). In terms of content, the situations depicted reflected every day occurrences of the types is expected to be familiar to speakers in Western culture. Data from this pilot were analysed and selected responses from the DCT were then recreated and videoed. The selected responses were based on a few guidelines taken from Blum-Kulka's Level of Directness scale and since it was recorded that the best level to reflect politeness are the Conventional and Non-Conventional indirect request strategies, thus I chose responses that were categorized under these two levels. The next step with regard to the selection was that I had to consider the linguistic forms that would be deemed appropriate for the two level of indirectness. At this stage I decided to consider Holtgraves and Yang’s (1992) coding scheme for politeness that is very much similar and easier to understand compared to the one’s formulated by Faerch and Kasper (1989). Both Holtgraves and Yang have identified three factors that are required when measuring politeness in request making which are formality of address
phrase, degree of imposition and indirectness. The criteria for each factors are described as follows.

I. Formality of address phrase is referred to the greeting at the beginning of the request which could be formal, informal or sometimes it could also be absent, it depending on the situation addressed. Some may even include titles such as Madam, Sir, Dr. or Prof.

II. Degree of imposition is referred to the level of imposition the requests may be. There are two degree of imposition identified in this coding scheme. The first one is high degree of imposition which we can relate to the request that is to be made to a lecturer when asking for an extension of an assignment (Situation 7 of the DCT). The second one is a low degree of imposition which can be related to the request made to a younger sibling to get a drink (Situation 10 of the DCT). Holtgraves and Yang formulated a list of linguistic forms and I have adopted some of the criteria that can be related to my data. The list is as follows:

   a. A request with a high level of imposition

      • Getting attention

      • Example: Good morning or Hi

      • Supportive sentences

      • Example: Are you busy right now? Do you have a minute?

      I have a question I need to ask…

      • Requesting with modifications

      • Example: Would it be alright for me to have a few more days to submit the assignment?
• Thanking
  • Example: Thank you very much for the consideration…

b. A request with low degree of imposition

• Getting attention
  • Example: Hi, Hello or names of the hearer (Andy, Patricia or Helen)

• Supportive sentences
  • Example: I am really tired…

• Requesting with or without modifications
  • Example: Get me a drink, (please).

• Thanking
  • Example: Thanks, you are a gem!

III. Directness is referred to the strategy used when making requests. I have adopted the indirect strategies’ and the coding scheme provided by Holtgraves and Yang as follows.

a. Suggesting
  • Example: How about closing the windows?

b. Asking about the hearer’s ability
  • Example: Can/could/will/would you close the window?

c. Hint or off record
  • Example: It’s cold in here…

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Even though this coding scheme was used by the researchers to analyse request strategies used in emails, I found the coding scheme appropriate in addressing my data as I could identify similar patterns of linguistic forms in my participants’ responses. Thus, for the purpose of my analysis I adopted and adapted the coding scheme as highlighted in the description above. The end product of this process was used to create a script for the two volunteers to use for the recording of the video. The scripts of each situation will be as described below.
Table 3.2 Description of the script according to the adapted coding scheme  
(Holtgraves and Yang, 1992)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SITUATIONS⁴</th>
<th>SCRIPT</th>
<th>CODING SCHEME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Situation 1  | 1. Hi Alan!  
               2. Did you have a good night last night?  
               3. I’m having some friends over tonight,  
               4. so it will be really great if you tidy up.  
               5. I’ll help you if you need me too.  | 1. Getting attention - Greet  
               2. Supportive sentence – ask for the hearer’s well being  
               3. Supportive sentence – give a reason prior to request  
               4. Request – suggestion  
               5. Reduce the imposition placed on the hearer by offering assistance. |
| Situation 2  | 1. Excuse me,  
               2. I’m sorry to be rude  
               3. but you’re invading my personal space  | 1. Getting attention  
               2. Supportive sentence – apology  
               3. Request - hint |
| Situation 3  | 1. Sorry to bother you.  
               2. I was wondering if I could borrow your notes  
               3. on the days I was sick.  
               4. It would be a great help.  | 1. Getting attention  
               2. Request – use of modification  
               3. Supportive sentence – explanation  
               4. Reduce imposition to the hearer – plead for hearer’s sympathy |
| Situation 4  | 1. What time are you leaving?  
               2. I was just wondering if there’s a space in your car,  
               3. so I could get a lift?  | 1. Getting attention  
               2. Supportive sentence - ask for potential availability  
               3. Request with modifications |
| Situation 5  | 1. Hello  
               2. I saw an advertisement in the newspaper and I’m looking to find more information about it.  
               3. Do you know who I should speak to, please?  | 1. Getting attention  
               2. Supportive sentence – explanation  
               3. Request with modifications |
| Situation 6  | 1. Excuse me,  
               2. but parking is not permitted here.  
               3. If you leave your car here, I will need to give you a ticket.  | 1. Getting attention  
               2. Supportive sentence – explanation  
               3. Request with modifications |

⁴ The situations in this table is shortened by using key words of the situations that are used in the actual DCT. For the full description of each situation please refer to Appendix One
| Situation 7  | Paper Extension | 1. I’m so, so sorry  
2. but I haven’t managed to do it to a point that I felt it’s appropriate yet. I could hand it in but it won’t be a true reflection of my ability.  
3. Please let me know if there’s any chance I could get an extension. | 1. Getting attention – apology  
2. Supportive sentences – explanation  
3. Request with modifications. |
|-------------|-----------------|-------------------------------------------------|
| Situation 8  | Early Presentation | 1. How are you getting on with your presentation?  
2. If you’re able, I really think it would work better this week, but only if you feel comfortable it would give you enough time. | 1. Getting attention – ask for hearer’s condition/well being  
2. Request with modifications  
3. Reduce imposition on hearer |
| Situation 9  | Tennis | 1. Sorry to bother you, kids  
2. but I’ve thrown my ball over your fence.  
3. Do you think you could chuck it back, please? | 1. Getting attention – apology  
2. Supportive sentence – explanation  
3. Request with modification |
| Situation 10 | McDonalds | 1. Andy  
2. Could you grab me a drink for as well?  
3. Here’s some change, tell me if it’s not enough. | 1. Getting attention – address hearer by name  
2. Request with modification  
3. Reduce imposition – offering money to pay for drink |
| Situation 11 | Change for Meter | 1. Sorry,  
2. I’m having a nightmare! I’ve got a job interview in a few minutes and I’ve had a morning from hell!  
3. Err…do you have change for a 5 pound note, please? | 1. Getting attention – apology  
2. Supportive sentence – explanation  
3. Request with modifications |
| Situation 12 | Smoke on Train | 1. Grandad  
2. I’ve seen some signs that say you can’t smoke on here  
3. You’d better put it out. | 1. Getting attention – address hearer by name  
2. Supportive sentence – explanation  
3. Request with modification and hint |
The final stage is the making of the video. Two volunteers, one male and one female, were identified by my supervisor, Dr. Rosowsky, and their names will not be revealed in this thesis in order to observe some ethical issues. The recording session took a few hours to complete and it was done on the premises of the university itself as it was considered to be the best location and the most convenient for everybody to meet. The video was recorded by Dr. Rosowsky who has also offered the use of his video camera and the prompts or scripts were prepared by me from the responses that I had selected from the pilot study. Once the recording was completed, I had to edit it by adding some extra information (introduction, title, acknowledgements, respective situations and others) and arrange it accordingly so that it would be easier for my participants to comprehend and react to it as they are expected to. The length of the video was about 40 minutes with all 12 situations from the DCT.

3.4.3 Phase 2 Data Collection

Phase 2 of the data collection as portrayed in the diagram (Figure 2.2) comprised of a focus group discussion and interviews. A lot has been said about eliciting data from a focus group discussion and interviews.

3.4.3.1 Focus Group Discussion

I decided to include focus group discussions as an additional mode of data collection to assist in increasing the reliability of the DCT that I used in my study. It is imperative, therefore, to understand the approach of conducting focus group discussions and the advantages of having this in my study.
To begin with, Stewart and Shamdasani (1990) consider focus group discussions as the most common way to explore a topic in depth that may be shared by many but not necessarily made known to public. It is further argued by Kreuger (1993) that a focus group aims to understand and not to infer, to determine the range and not to generalise, to provide insights into how people perceived a situation and not to make statements about the population. Focus groups are now considered a very popular method of data collection and, in recent years, amongst social science researchers (Charlesworth and Rodwell, 1997; Parker and Tritter, 2006). They are commonly used when the research objective is to conduct an in-depth exploration of a topic about which little is known.

According to Bloor et al. (2001), focus group discussions, in social science literature, have been considered as constituting a type of group interview where people are encouraged to share their opinions with regards to norms, values and beliefs of specific topics that would give some insights as to what the general population is going through. The interaction between participants enabled in focus groups enhances the quality of the data obtained by encouraging deep reflection on issues in a supportive environment. It is a particularly suitable method for gathering data when the topic is specific and where the researcher, as in this case, is seeking the reactions of participants to an idea, product, intervention or shared experience (Patton, 2002).

Parker and Tritter (2007) claim that gaining access to a sense of ‘respondent commonality’ is the most important factor where this method is concerned. When engaging in a focus group discussion participants would no doubt be more than willing to share if they have gone through the same situation or condition that they are interested in. For instance, a lifestyle circumstance
or condition. They also emphasise that the ‘focus’ aspect of the exercise is the premise upon which the collective meeting takes place (usually the ‘focus’ of the research being undertaken) and the driving force behind the key topic(s) to be addressed.

An additional aspect that is seen as crucial when adopting this method is the role of the researcher in a focus group setting. It is important to note the difference between the traditional group interview and the contemporary focus group method. The researcher’s role in a group interview is to act as an investigator where he/she asks questions and most of the time controls the dynamics of the discussion. The researcher would often engage in dialogues with a specific participant even though there are other participants are in the same room. The contemporary focus group discussion allows the researcher to facilitate the discussion rather than controlling it as is done in the traditional group interview. The participants are given key topics for discussion and the researcher acts as a moderator giving the participants the freedom to actively participate and share, argue or pose their own opinions without any interruption from the researcher unless it is required. Bloor et al. (2001, pp. 42–43) define the arrangement of this method as the following:

In focus groups … the objective is not primarily to elicit the group’s answers … but rather to stimulate discussion and thereby understand (through subsequent analysis) the meanings and norms which underlie those group answers. In group interviews the interviewer seeks answers, in focus groups the facilitator seeks group interaction.

Therefore, it is safe to deliberate that where focus groups are concerned, the researcher is encouraged to assume a peripheral role rather than the centre stage because the primary point for
this method is the inter-relational dynamics of the participants and not the relationship between researcher and researched (see Kitzinger, 1994a; Johnson, 1996).

Within a language setting, the use of focus group discussions is seen as a very crucial method for data collection as it is able to provide valuable data that could assist in getting functional and constructive insights of the language, concepts and norms that are relevant to groups of participants. This is due to the fact that the data would be less influenced by the researcher and more within the control of the participants. The use of corpus linguistic analysis has also highlighted consistent areas of experience between participants and groups across the dataset.

In addressing a query regarding the number of participants that would be ideal for a focus group discussion, I have cited a few experts in gaining some insight as what would be considered an ideal number. Wellington (2015) defines focus group discussion as a small group made up of six to ten individuals with certain common features of characteristics, with whom a discussion can be focused onto a given issue or topic. In a study conducted by Hunt and Churchill (2013), the number of participants for each focus group consists of four co-working General Practitioners. Dixon et al. (2010) have used on average four to eight participants for each focus group in a study they have conducted on parents’ and children’s perceptions of active video games. Krueger and Casey (2000), have recommended that six to eight participants in each group is an ideal number but a small group of four is considered viable and increasingly used.

In my study, due to certain constraints, I managed to recruit three to six participants for each focus group discussion. This may not have reached the ideal number recommended by other
researchers but I do believe the data that I have collected from these participants have fulfilled the requirement of what focus group discussion aims to acquire, which are powerful knowledge and insights into a certain issue that a researcher wishes to examine. Kamberelis and Dimitriadis (cf. Denzin & Lincoln, 2011) have accentuated that focus group discussions have a unique potential that requires the researcher to acknowledge and exploit its multi-functionality which they metaphorically relate to a prism. In this context they view focus group discussion as a method that would unveil important aspects that are inter-related and correspond with each themes of the study. It is up to the researcher to interpret and report what he/she would do with what they have discovered within the data. Thus, in the context of my study, despite the small number of participants in my focus group discussion, I conducted the discussion in the manner as described above (p.15) where the role that I assumed was the role of a facilitator rather than an investigator and I believe I have gained powerful insights pertaining to my topic of research in the same way that I would have gained with a large number of participants in a group.

Morettiv et al. (2011) accentuate that a focus group discussion offers research opportunities that would identify individual contributions and how it works within communication dynamics. Kamberelis and Dimitriadis (cf. Denzin and Lincoln, 2011) further highlight that focus group discussions have been used to answer the ‘how’ or the ‘why’ questions. According to the two researchers:

The primary goal of inquiry from this perspective is to generate rich, complex, nuanced, and even contradictory accounts of how people ascribe meaning to and interpret their lived experience with an eye toward how these accounts might be used to affect social policy and social change (p.546)
I find this method appropriate to my study as I would like to examine the use of request strategies by second language learners living in an English speaking country. The participants of my study will be able to relate to their lived experience and their interpretation of those experiences would be very important to the study.

3.4.3.2 Interviews

Apart from the focus group discussions, I also included individual interviews as another method of data collection that I decided to use for this study. The focus group discussion and interviews involve the use of a video which was created based on the data obtained from the pilot study. The video consisted of responses given by native speakers of English and was used as a form of intervention to initiate the discussion among the second language speakers. The participants will not only be invited to evaluate the responses given by the native speakers, but they were also encouraged to share their views and opinion within the group. Hence, I decided to consider to look into the advantages of using interviews highlighted by other researchers and which relate to my own study.

Wellington (2012) considers interview in educational research as a “platform” that allows participants or interviewees the opportunity to make their perspective known, where in the case of participating in a research, their opinions can be heard and read once the research is published. It might give them the opportunity to make some form of contribution if the research entails some policy making or changes to be made to a certain policy. Hence, on that note, Wellington cautions that the interviewer should not be leading the interview as he/she might influence the interviewees to agree with his/her own agenda.
Carter et al. (2008) have discovered that participants involved in interviews consider their involvement as an experience that is empowering and even therapeutic. They were found to feel very much appreciated to be given the opportunity to relate their stories to an interviewer who is able to connect with what they are experiencing. In addition to that they also feel that their stories would be able to inspire or even benefit others who may probably be experiencing them too. Hutchinson et al. (1994) have discovered something similar in their study. Their findings have verified and endorsed the advantages of conducting qualitative interviews. The advantages of participating in interview sessions act as a/an:-

1. catharsis
2. self-acknowledgement
3. contribute to a sense of purpose
4. increase self-awareness
5. grant a sense of empowerment
6. promote healing; and
7. give a voice to the voiceless and disenfranchised

There were a few interview sessions in my study and I had the opportunity to witness a few of the advantages mentioned by Hutchinson and his fellow researchers. The first advantage is that the interviewees were able to contribute their opinions and knowledge regarding the topic discussed. Most of my participants were very enthusiastic in sharing their views pertaining to the video that I used during the discussion. Some of them were able to relate to their own culture and compared that with what was said in the video, which I find very informative and useful for my study. Apart from that, since most of my interviews were conducted in pairs, the participants
were also able to learn from the session as well, particularly about each other’s culture and forms of making requests. They were able to exchange ideas and opinions in making requests in their own culture which might come in handy when they get to visit the respective countries.

Corbin and Morse (2003) have added a few more benefits of qualitative interviews that have been confessed by their participants. The additional advantages include the opportunity to:

1) talk to someone
2) self-reflect
3) emotionally cleanse
4) become knowledgeable about a topic of personal/professional interest
5) connect with a broader community based on shared experience
6) advocate for a community/cause; and
7) help someone else down the road.

In relation to my own interview sessions, the second advantage mentioned by Corbin and his partner, was very much visible. The participants were able to self-reflect with their own experience when making requests. Some of them even managed to reflect on their own reactions when they were in their childhood years, how they were taught to respect their elders when asking for things. That was indeed very enlightening as they shared humorous stories of their childhood too. The other advantage that the participants managed to learn from the sessions is that they were able to connect with a broader community, especially, with regard to the linguistic forms used by the native speakers when making requests. They actually admitted that it would be very useful when the need arise for them to make requests with the locals in Sheffield.
In summary, I find this approach very useful for both me, as a researcher and to my participants. Most of them left the sessions feeling very grateful and they even admitted that the session was very interesting and very enlightening as well.

3.5 Data Analysis

This section will be a detailed explanation as to how and why I chose to analyse my data in accordance with the research questions established for this study. The research questions are as the following:-

4. What are the request strategies chosen by students from different linguistic backgrounds?

5. How are the request strategies used by these students different?
   a) How do they vary their request strategies?
   b) Why are they different?

6. How do the aspects of social distance (SD), power and dominance (D), gender and status, influence these request strategies?

The first and the second research questions are answered based on the analysis of the DCT data which was analysed according to the level of directness (refer to Table 2.3 in Chapter Two), social distance (SD), power and dominance (D), status and gender of the 12 situations represented. The result of this analysis has provided a general idea of the participants’ choice of request strategies as stipulated by Blum-Kulka (1984). It has provided some insight into how the participants vary their request strategies according to the different situations given.
The DCT and the focus group discussions were analysed qualitatively and I employed the interpretative approach. The responses given by the participants were coded and categorized in order to answer the research questions established earlier in the first section of the paper. The coding and the categories will be according to the table (Table 3.2) below.

Table 3.3 Categorisation of Request Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUB-CATEGORIES</th>
<th>REQUEST STRATEGIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10. Mood derivable</td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Explicit performative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Hedged performative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Obligation statements</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Want statements</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Suggestory formulae</td>
<td>Conventionally indirect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Query preparatory</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Strong hints</td>
<td>Nonconventionally indirect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Mild hints</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Blum-Kulka et al. (1989)

In consideration of the third research question, I designed a model that has incorporated three theories which I consider my conceptual framework. These three theories will be used to give a clearer view as to how the third research question will be analysed and discussed.

This method is also employed to unearth another concern of this study which aims to investigate how the participants perceive politeness, especially how it is used as a mediator in requesting. It would also be interesting if the data reveal how second language speakers safeguard their own culture and the culture that they have ventured into.
3.5.1 Hofstede’s National Culture

As mentioned above, National Culture was identified during a longitudinal study conducted by Hofstede for a company known as IBM. The outcome of his research was the emergence of six dimensions which he identifies as Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Individualism Versus Collectivism, Masculinity Versus Femininity, Long-Term Versus Short-Term Orientation and Indulgence Versus Restraints. For the purpose of this study, I have identified only four of these dimensions in my study, Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Masculinity Versus Femininity and Long-Term Versus Short-Term Orientation.

My study, is not the only one that has found national culture appealing. In this section I will present some of the studies that have been done in accordance with Hofstede’s theory and how these dimensions were reflected in their respective fields. Hofstede’s Cultural Consequences have been in the research arena for more than three decades (Hofstede, 1980). The national culture model is still actively cited until the present and has inspired thousands of empirical studies across the globe (Kirkman et al. 2006). Smith and Bond (1999) have revealed that studies that have considered Hofstede’s model have managed to surpass and expand beyond his original findings.

There are more than five hundred studies citing Hofstede’s national culture done in 2015 alone. However, for this chapter, I have selected a few studies, from 2014 to 2015 that have used some of the dimensions that I have cited in the analysis of my own study. The following are the selected empirical study is, conducted in 2015, I have put them together to give a general
perspective as to how Hofstede’s *national culture* model has been used to examine and explore different respective fields.

The first study that I have decided to include in this section, is one conducted by Liu et al. (2015). They adopted five dimensions of Hofstede’s *National Culture* in their research and the five dimensions concerned were the *Individual Versus Collectivism, Uncertainty Avoidance, Power Distance, Long Term Vs Short Term Orientation* and *Masculinity Versus Femininity* dimensions. The study is about international contractors’ risk management. The findings show that *national culture* play an important role in contractor's risk management and they have adopted this framework (the five dimension of the *national culture* model) do assist contractors in making just decisions and effective plans in managing project risks. It is also useful to minimize the influences of culture shock when dealing with international contracts and a very effective guideline to develop a more realistic way of understanding and managing the differences which can be quite a handful to manage when dealing with international projects.

The five dimensions used in their study, are the same ones I planned to use in my study. As recommended by Liu and his fellow researchers, I decided to use the dimensions as a guideline in analysing my data along with the other two theories that I have chosen to integrate.

In a study conducted by Posick and Gould (2015), Hofstede’s *national culture* model was used to unravel the issue as to how violence can be related to culture. The dimension featured in this study was *Individualism Versus Collectivism* which is related to the integration of individuals into a primary group. The original idea was to utilise the Hofstede model to examine the
organizational culture. Conversely, they discovered that its utility extends well beyond that domain and can offer important insights into individual cultural values and behaviours. The findings of their study show that there is a consistency in the victim-offender overlap and that individualism was a cultural-level variable which suggests that culture should not be altogether ignored in studies on violence. Chua et al. (2015) also considered employing Hofstede’s *Individualism Versus Collectivism* dimension in their study to measure creativity in a specific culture. One of the findings of their study is that they recognised creativity can affect an individual’s performance by how a society’s has established its cultural norms. Another study that considers this same dimension was conducted by Stolarski et al. (2015). The study attempted to provide an in-depth observation on relationships. Particularly, with regard to intelligence and life satisfaction. One of the findings for this study is that they discovered the importance of this dimension in determining an individual’s life satisfaction. The results of the study have shown that an individualistic society seek life satisfaction in self-realization, developing personal qualities and achieving individualistic goals. In addition to that, on the collectivism cultural value, an individual derives satisfaction from social affiliation such as wealth and social status that are factors recognised by the society. The studies above used the dimension, *Individualism Versus Collectivism*, to deliberate on different factors; Posick and Gould (2015) had studied culture in relation to violence, Stolarski et al. (2015) studied the relationship between culture and its effect towards intelligence and life satisfaction and Chua et al. (2015) measured creativity in a specific culture. This proves that the dimensions formulated by Hofstede are compliant enough to accommodate various factors in any culture or field for that matter. As such, it would not be impossible to have them applied to my own study which is very much involved in delving into the choice of request strategies made by participants from various backgrounds and cultures.
From a banking perspective, Caretta et al. (2015) adopted the national culture model in addressing an issue that involved the supervisory authority in a banking system. The six dimensions adopted were Power Distance, Collectivism, Masculinity, Uncertainty Avoidance, Normative (Long Term and Short Term Orientation) and Indulgence. These culture orientations are not seen as equally exclusive but they are seen to be quite dominant in any organization. The researchers of this study related each dimension to the topic examined to do with supervisory authority in a banking system. The findings of this study asserted that Hofstede’s national culture model has proven that culture plays a very crucial role in the banking system. Caretta and his fellow researchers discovered that a Collectivism orientation can assist in reducing or preventing social costs and a Power Distance orientation can increase risk if the supervisory authority is too strict and not flexible.

Another study involving banking was one done by Baptista et al. (2015). The research adopted the national culture model and found three dimensions applicable to their findings. The study was about mobile banking acceptance and the use of the technology in Africa. The findings of this study confirm that using the national culture model assisted them to understand that Collectivism, Uncertainty Avoidance, Short Term Orientation and Power Distance are seen to be the cultural moderators that have affected the behaviour of consumers in Africa.

Baturay and Toker (2015) discovered that in Hofstede’s national culture, the dimension that discusses Masculinity and Normative (Long Term And Short Term Orientation) plays quite an important role in their study pertaining to cyber loafing in Turkey. According to Hofstede,
Hofstede, and Minkov (2010), the characteristics of Turkish culture are dependent and hierarchical. In other words, superiors are usually inaccessible, and the ideal leader is a father figure. Centralization is an important matter, and all systems are shaped based on it. People are expected to be told what they need to do from a boss, teacher, etc. Turkish culture is less competition driven and values leisure time (Hofstede et al., 2010).

Smith 2015 conducted a study of observing behaviour when lending help or assistance to some strangers and donating for charity. In this study, it was discovered that Hofstede’s Uncertainty Avoidance was found to be one of the factors that affect the nature of giving and assisting. It was very much embedded within the society and the findings concluded that nations scoring high on uncertainty avoidance score significantly higher on average levels of neuroticism.

Most of the studies discussed above are conducted quantitatively, findings are reported by the high and low of scores obtained by the participants. However, in my study, I decided to conduct mine by using the qualitative approach and the dimensions were used to justify my findings as to the cultural behaviour related to the choice of request strategies used by my participants. Therefore, my qualitative approach in discussing my findings with the use of Hofstede’s model has added as an alternative method to the present field of study.

Throughout my reading of studies employing Hofstede’s National Culture Model the only study that I found to be quite close to the heart of my research was conducted by Chejnova (2014) where she focused on e-mail communication between university students and a lecturer in the
Czech Republic. A total of 260 e-mail messages that contained a high imposition request for action and were addressed to faculty were analysed. The dimensions recognised in this study were the *Power Distance* and *Uncertainty Avoidance*. The two dimensions were addressed in connection with a study conducted by Hofstede regarding the cultural behaviour of Czech society that led him to the conclusion that the Czech society has a high power distance index. The latter dimension was seen as indicator that would describe the people of the Czech Republic as belonging to the members of a culture that leans towards uncertainty avoidance, who are generally more inclined to say what they mean directly. True enough in this study, Chejnova discovered that the students in her study were more inclined to use the direct strategy rather than indirect strategies.

In my study, I chose to analyse my data using Hofstede’s *National Culture* dimensions as part of the justification in understanding my data. Chejnova only identified two dimensions in her findings and the samples that she used were all from the Czech Republic which is different from mine as I chosen a set of participants from different parts of the world with different backgrounds and cultures but come together in a setting that is far from the ones that they are familiar with.

### 3.5.1.2 Blum-Kulka’s Level of Directness

The second theory that I include in my model is Blum-Kulka’s level of directness in request strategies. There are quite a number of studies done on cross cultural request strategies ever since it was introduced some twenty odd years ago.
As in the previous section, I have selected a few studies that employ this method in their studies and how the method has given some important insights to their respective fields.

The first one is a study conducted by Chen (2015). This study explored the cognitive processes of L2 learners engaged in an email task involving two requests to faculty. Apart from the email task, 15 pairs of the participants were also asked to participate in a verbal report. The findings of this study was that the Chinese EFL learners chose various politeness strategies to articulate their requests. The framework used to analyse this study was a combined framework between Blum-Kulka (1989) and Ericsson and Simon's (1993). It was sufficient to yield inductive result of the data. It is also interesting to note that Chen also made some connection to Hofstede’s *National Culture* in her study. She highlighted that “in Asian cultures, social hierarchy prevails over egalitarianism” (Chen 2015, p.58). The dimension that she referred to was the *Long Term Versus Short Term Orientation* of Hofstede’s *national culture*.

The next study I wish to highlight is one that was conducted by Ogiermann (2015). Her study examined the concept of in/directness in Polish children’s requests. The method of data collection employed by this study is video-recordings of family interactions during mealtimes. The data of her study was analysed using Blum-Kulka’s Level of Directness (1989) and the findings that she attained were that the Polish children tended to use more want statements which are categorized under the Direct request strategy.

Terkourafi (2015) used the Blum-Kulka framework in her study on linguistic accounts of im/politeness. Her findings were quite fascinating as she linked im/politeness with a conventionalisation that has a three way relationship between expressions, context and speaker.
She further argued that conventionalisation is a habit-based definition that gives speakers new
directions of expressing their request that may be viewed as highly polite or may also be
regarded as highly impolite. It all depends on context and expressions conveyed by the speaker.
This is the kind of connection that I wish to establish in my findings and discussion which will
be further elaborated in Chapter Four.

Another requestive speech act study which I have selected for this section, was conducted by
Eslami et al. (2015) on a group of Iranian ESL learners in considering the effectiveness of
pragmatic instruction through asynchronous computer mediated communication (ACMC). The
data collected was in the form of emails gathered from 74 participants, consisting of controlled
and intervention groups. A DCT was also used on all groups. Eslami and his fellow researchers
used Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper's (1989) categorization scheme in order to analyse their
data. The finding of their study presents evidence the EFL learners can acquire pragmatic
competency through well-organized instructions or lessons that are designed by experts or
English native speakers in a virtual communication environment. The other crucial finding is that
explicit instruction and feedback in L2 pragmatics appear to be more effective for the
development of learners' pragmatic competence.

Alcon Soler (2015) also conducted a study on requests using Blum-Kulka et al. (1989)
categorization scheme. In this context, the study was of email requests produced by 60 Spanish
students staying abroad (30 treatment/30 control group). The study focused on the mitigating
factors used by the students when responding to the email requests. The findings of this study
highlighted that students who study abroad for a long period of time tend to exploit explicit
knowledge gained from instruction when they use language for real-world purpose. In other words, the length of their stay in a certain country may have some influence in their use of explicit knowledge via the pragmatic instruction with what happens in the real email communication.

A study on multiple requests was conducted by Rover and Al-Gahtani (2015) which also employed the strategy coding approach designed by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989). The data was collected via role plays and natural interaction. The findings for this study gave insights into how participants of this study use multiple requests in two environments: within the same turn as requests-with-accounts and repeat requests, and across turns. The use of this form of requests were identified to differ depending on the functions or situations.

To ensure a good rapport, Ho (2015) conducted a study that explored the use of evaluative language in the construction of discourse grounders for request in professional emails. The use of “Head Act” (Blum-Kulka, 1989:275) is considered one of the linguistic elements used in maintaining rapport with colleagues and attending to the recipients “face wants’ in a management setting. The Head Act mentioned in this study is in reference to the minimal unit which can realize a request, where this unit acts as the core of the request sequence. An example that can illustrate this unit is “Get me a glass of water”. Head Acts are normally accompanied by an Attention Getter and Supportive Sentence (refer to p.17) as elaborated earlier in this chapter.

I would also like to draw attention to the manner of how Ho presented his data in his discussions. The example is as shown below.
Extract 1 [affect-(un)happiness]

Thanks for all the feedback you have given. We do need a clear-headed mind to look at what we have done in a rush last year. I am glad we now have some sort of specific areas we can look into in the evaluation gathering . . . I will take a good look again in the areas you have mentioned and see if we can ‘fine-tune’ our resources to benefit our students more . . So, let’s make a date when we can do that. Elaine, Yvonne and Clara, please let me know when is best for you girls.
(e-mail no. 124)

(Ho, 2015)

The method of presenting data in my study (Chapter 4 Findings and Discussion) will be similar to the one adopted by Ho (2015). I find his manner of presenting his data very distinctive and organized, as it sets the data apart from his own elaboration and justification of the data. It would make it easier for my reader to identify and relate to my discussion. Hence, this method of presentation will be applied throughout my findings and discussion chapter.

A study conducted close to my home is done by Farahnaz and Asma (2014) on the type of request strategies used by Malay students. The data was analysed according to the coding scheme introduced by Blum-Kulka et al (1989) in their Cross Cultural Speech Act Realisation Project research. The finding of this study identified that Malays have the tendency to use the indirect strategy more commonly compared to other strategies.

Safont-Jorda (2013) conducted a fascinating longitudinal study on a trilingual boy’s (called Pau) requestive development. The aim of her study was to contribute to research on child pragmatics by focusing on multilingual requestive development. It is indeed an intriguing discovery to note that requestive development can begin at such an early age and with a child
who has mastered three different languages; Catalan, English and Spanish. She employed a coding system which originated from Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) to analyse her data and her findings concluded that Pau’s requests in Catalan and Spanish were more direct while these forms should be more conventionally indirect in English. The second finding of this study was that the requestee’s perceived status would have an effect on the pragmalinguistic routines chosen, where in this context Pau’s request to his teddy cow was more direct compared to a request made to his mother. This is also one aspect of request strategies that I will discuss in my Chapter Four.

A comparative study of requesting was conducted by Chen et al (2013). The study examined the use of request and the differences between Chinese, English and Japanese. The participants for this study were taken from Xi’an International Studies University (XISU). The 61 participants were given the task to provide a list of expressions that they might use when requesting to borrow a pen and a list of people that they might have been in contact with everyday. The coding system used is the one designed by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989). The findings of this study revealed that Chinese requests are very much determined by power and distance and that they are not as direct as has been argued by other studies. They concluded that East and West politeness systems are fundamentally different.

Tabataei and Samiee (2013), conducted a very interesting study on cross-cultural differences in requestive speech acts between Persian and English. The study aimed to examine the pragmatic transfer of L1 to L2 among EFL Iranian leaners when requesting. 20 Iranian high proficient EFL learners and 20 low proficient ones (out of 64 EFL students of Teaching English as a foreign
Language (TEFL) at Masters level at Islamic Azad University of Najafabad, Iran (EFL learners)) were selected to respond to the DCT used for this study. Apart from that another 20 monolingual Persian native speakers (PNSs) and 20 English native speakers (ENSs) were also selected. The request strategies were classified into three different categories of Direct, Conventionally Indirect, and Non-Conventionally Indirect strategies (Blum-Kulka et al. 1989). The results revealed significant differences in the use of request strategies between EFL learners and ENSs. Lastly, the results also showed that the pragmatic transfer of requestive speech act does not occur from L1 to L2 in Iranian EFL learners. In my analysis, I will also consider this pragmatic transfer which I find quite intriguing. It will be interesting to discover if there are situations or conditions that would allow a speaker to have this transfer applied to their request’s realization.

‘Preparation talks’ are found to be another aspect of requesting that are practiced by Iranian Turkish speakers. The study was conducted by Tabar and Malek (2012) on 180 Iranian Turkish with the use of a DCT. The coding system used to analyse this data originated from Blum-Kulka et al. (1987). They discovered that preparation talks are one of the most commonly used strategy to mitigate requests which add a variety to the manner of requesting in this particular context.

Merrison et al. (2012), conducted a very thought-provoking study that considered what they termed “the work” of each part of the request production. They have included notions of Account, But-Justification, Equity and Equilibrium. The notion of Account is reference to the attribution of events to causal sources which can be exemplified by this utterance “…because I already have work commitments that I can’t change in such late notice”. The second notion that
Merrison and his fellow researchers is the *But-Justification* which is defined by Davies et al. (2007) as the following.

I may have done something for which I need to apologize but I’m doing other things that make me a good student/person. (p. 57)

A sample utterance that can illustrate this notion would be “I have caught a bug on the bus and am unable to attend your tutorial session today. Please, if there is any handout could I get a copy, so that I am up to date”. The *But-Justification* of the request above is the “so that I am up to date”. The last two notions highlighted in their study is the *Equity* and *Equilibrium*. These notions are very much related to the speech acts of apology and thanks, not so much in reference to requests. Both notions function as a balance sheet between speaker and hearer, as stipulated by both Leech (1983) and Holmes (1990) *Equity* and *Equilibrium* acts as a balance sheet of the relationship between speaker and hearer that is intended to remedy an offence that would assist in restoring equilibrium. I would equate this notion of restoring equilibrium with maintaining solidarity between the two interlocutors. It is also very intriguing that Merrison and his comrades relate the notion of *Equity* with the making of requests. They considered Davies et al.’s (2007) claim that in making requests the speaker would gain something at the cost of the speaker, consequently, the speaker actually is indebted to the hearer and by right should bear similar cost that has been incurred on the hearer. In other words, the next time the hearer requests for something similar, the speaker would have to comply. This leads to Goffman’s (1967) assertion that there is a need to maintain equity or the costs and benefits because it is concerned with the preservation of self-image and a person is required to put in a lot of effort in order to achieve this.
The question that was raised by Merrison et al. (2012) is how this equity can be maintained and they have answered this particular question by relating their participants’ manner of requesting with the use of *Account* and *But-Justification*. This is very much similar to my study as I have also considered to look into factors that are used to explicate the distribution of various features associated with these requests, which I find can be equated with Hofstede’s *National Culture*. This study is very much in line with what I have in mind in analysing my data and presenting my findings that would highlight the maintenance of solidarity in the realization of request making.

### 3.5.3 Grice’s Cooperative Principle

The third and the last theory that I have included in this model is the Cooperative Principle introduced by Grice in 1957. Studies that have been conducted utilizing this theory are many and at this point of time it is still going strong. I have decided to select a few of those studies and present them in line with what I have decided to discuss in my findings.

The first study that I wish to present is a study conducted by Hansson (2015) that has considered the use of the Cooperative Principle introduced by Grice (1957) in analysing administrative texts. He argued that administrative texts should be analysed as a combination that operates around a constitutive dimensional termed as calculated overcommunicative behaviour in public administration. Calculated overcommunicative behaviour, to put it in layman’s terms, is very much similar to the art of manipulation which is used by politicians to convince the audience or the people that things are being done as promised. It is interesting to note that Hannson has
identified that this art of manipulation can only operate or be put into effect if the audience have a culturally shared assumptions in social and emotional aspect of political life. Hence, it would not be able to function if the audience is not interested in what the politicians have to say. In order to come to certain form of understanding as to how this calculated overcommunication works, he created a framework called ‘overcommunication framework’ for explicating certain discursive macro-strategies of positive self-presentation used by public officeholders. The framework includes overinformativeness and prolixity, irrelevance, and excessive repetition that make up the three dimension of overcommunication. The first dimension, overinformativeness and prolixity are actually referred to as the Maxim of Quantity (overinformativeness) and the Maxim of Manner (proxility). The former advocates excessive information which actually flouts the Maxim of Quantity in a way that the excessive information gave an indirect effect rendering the audience into believing that there must be an important point that has been missed. Hence, a form of manipulation into making the audience reflect on things which are not actually obvious. The latter, flouts the Maxim of Manner in which is referred to as being brief in giving information and that prolixity should be avoided. The form of manipulation used here is very much similar to the overinformativeness and that it is a form of abuse to confuse the audience with lengthy explanations that may not be important at all. The next dimension, irrelevance is referred to the Maxim of Relation which is related to the notion of being relevant and Hansson pointed out in calculated overcommunicative behaviour this maxim has yet again been flouted. Irrelevant or boring informations were included in order to give the audience something of worth to ponder but in actual fact there were not. The last dimension, excessive repetition is in reference to information that is being repeated over and over again. This serves as a very effective calculated overcommunicative strategy as it fulfils a number of
purposes and that include to create a feeling of involvement and bring about desired conceptual change. I find this framework very fascinating as I have also considered the implementation of Grice’s Cooperative Principle to my own study. The maxims used in Hannson’s study will also be discussed in mine but not all maxims in my study will be flouted as much as they were flouted in Hannson’s. I have also integrated the Cooperative Principle into a framework with a few other theories that create a model to discuss my findings. Another aspect that I could relate to this study is that Hannson’s findings highlight the art of manipulation used by politicians to maintain a sense of positive image with their audience. Although I may disagree with the abusive representation of communication, I do admit that it does serve its purpose. In relation to my study, the use of the maxims in request making may also be seen as an art of manipulation but the objective is to maintain solidarity between the interlocutors and not to abuse each other.

Dunbar et al. (2015) considered the use of the Cooperative Principle in the analysis of their study. The experiment conducted by this group of researchers examined how professionals are assessed for credibility in face-to-face interviews and video conferencing. The findings of this study have noted that participants are found able to bond with their conversational partners through a “cooperative” discourse condition discovered by Grice (1989). The participants were able to interact better as they feel connected with partners who share similar experience and opinions. The connection that was highlighted in this study is one of the aspects that I will also discuss in my analysis.

Tseng (2015) conducted a study that examines a discourse that is related to creative product description. The term was termed due to its creative use of language and its being used in the
creative industries. Among the findings, she discovered that the four maxims comprising the Cooperative Principle; *Quantity, Quality, Relation*, and *Manner* are equally important and closely connected to each other in the production of effective creative product descriptions. The second finding was that the *Maxim of Relation* managed to enhance interest when writing the creative product descriptions.

A study on artificial conversations conducted by Chakrabarti and Luger (2015) showed that chatter bots, a software that engages artificial conversations used as a customer service application, works very well with the incorporation of Grice’s Cooperative Principle. Grice’s Maxim was used as a criterion to create the artificial conversation (chatter bots) to address customers’ concerns. 68 conversations were selected and evaluated by a panel of judges selected by the researchers. The most important discovery of this study was that the judges of the sample conversations found that the *Maxim of Quantity* was not as important compared to the *Maxim of Quality, Maxim of Relation* and *Maxim of Manner*. Their chatter bot was successful in maintaining a conversation with a customer based on a single context. This is a result of them pairing the semantics and pragmatics aspect of language grounded on a set of facts from a knowledge base. Using the Cooperative Principle was proven effective in addressing the customers’ queries and satisfying their concerns. The three maxims used in this study are also used in my own study. The use of the Cooperative Principle in creating artificial conversations has proven to be as effective as having a human to human conversation and it is interesting to note that this study highlighted the fact it is important to make the customer happy by telling them something they want to hear. In relation to requesting, as that is very much pertinent in my study, it helps to ensure that the hearer is happy to oblige in complying to a speaker’s request, it
is important to tell them what they want to hear. This will be further elaborated in my findings and discussion chapter.

Avenia-Tapper (2015) conducted a study using Grice’s *Maxim of Quantity* to examine differences in explicitness as a factor that may contribute to academic achievement gaps between higher and lower income students. This study connects the level of education with family income and these two variables are used to explore the relative differences in obedience and explicitness between high income and low income groups. In this discussion of her study, I will only focus on one aspect of her findings that is related to mine and that is the explicitness. Explicitness in this study is defined as the degree to which a text or utterance retains its meaning across space and time. It can be operationalized as the degree to which the text or utterance relies on deictic terms. Interestingly, in her study, Avenia-Tapper related power to capital or income earned by the students’ families. She illustrated that children from lower income families used more deictic terms such as pronouns (there, she, it) compared to children from higher income which were more likely to use noun phrases. She related this notion to Grice’s Maxim of Quantity that is defined as a speaker should not contribute more than he/she should. In other words, she defined “less explicitness” and “greater explicitness” as a grammatical choice based on how much knowledge the hearer has. In relation to my own study, the notion of explicitness is quite important as it depends very much on the hearer’s reaction towards the speaker’s requests and that very much depends on the amount of information the hearer requires in order to react accordingly. Another connection between my study and Avenia-Tapper’s is that she relates power to higher income but in my study I have related power with the authority a person holds over the other.
The next study, conducted by Nemesi (2015), is something that I would never have thought worth researching. She took the task of examining seven classic Hungarian Comedies and claimed that humorous speakers do not violate but flout a maxim. She analysed these comedies with the consideration of Grice’s Cooperative Principle along with other theories, including Politeness theory. As per her claim mentioned earlier, she discovered that conversational humor in fictional genres such as film comedies does not break the Cooperative Principle with respect to the viewer. By exploiting the maxims, the main job of a comic actor and the film crew is to comply with one of the core principles of fictional humour: “Have the maxims broken by the comic characters to trigger humorous effects.” In relation to my study, the flouting of Grice’s Maxim would also be part of the discussion of my findings.

One other study that reflects flouting Grice’s Maxim is a metapragmatic one on negation expression that is considered as flouting of Grice’s Maxim of Quality and was carried out by Ran (2015) in investigating the rapport-oriented mitigating device in Chinese interpersonal interaction. The negations used in this study are claimed to be a non-denial of speaker intention but in actual fact act as a rapport oriented mitigating device so as to avoid being quite offensive or face-threatening for the hearer in a certain context. She also asserted that the negation expression used is a literal violation of the Gricean Maxim of Quality because it demonstrates at an explicit level that ‘saying is doing its opposite’. However, the flouting or violation does not create implicatures, in the Gricean sense (1975), that have any important communicative functions. An example that illustrates this form of violation is in the utterance “Don’t take this the wrong way, but you shouldn’t have done it!” The utterance “Don’t take this the wrong
way…” aims to soften the unwelcome form or mitigate the conflict of the interaction which is very obvious in the following utterance “…but you shouldn’t have done it!” Hence negation in this study has proven its worth in salvaging the hearer’s face wants, which is one of the factors that I intend to highlight in my study of request making.

Tajabadi et al. (2014) have used Grice’s maxims in examining oral arguments with the intention of finding out which maxims are more frequently abided by and what maxims are more frequently violated by Persian speakers engaged in oral disputes in the Iranian Dispute Settlement Council. They concluded that when involved in a dispute Iranians’ were found to violate the Maxim of Quantity and Maxim of Relevance and the two most followed maxims were the Maxim of Quality and the Maxim of Manner. Apparently, both maxims have proven to be very important in a legal setting. Legal participants are required to provide truthful information with appropriate evidence within the legal context and both abide to the two maxims’ requirements. The two maxims have proven to work very well with requesting too. I will have this elaborated in the next chapter.

In a study conducted by Balajas (2015), the examples of errors in the transcription of a Mexican social network’s conversations were explored. The errors were examined to demonstrate the potential of such data in the development of sociocognitive language-processing theories (those that combine formal and pragmatic approaches). In this study, the Gricean maxims of conversation and the notion of implicature explain how interlocutors fill in referential gaps in order to carry out efficient linguistic communication of what would otherwise be incoherent exchanges.
Another fascinating study has been carried out on IKEA’s printed instructions for furniture assembly. The study was conducted by Friscione and Lambardi (2015) and they examined the use of implicature in pictorial communication. They concluded that though pictorial communication may be ambiguous, it is fair to say that contextual information together with pragmatic inferences are sufficient to disambiguate the information.
3.5.4 The Cooperative Intercultural Pragmatics of Request Strategies Model (CIPRS Model)

Figure 3.2 The Cooperative Intercultural Pragmatics of Request Strategies Model (CIPRS)

Hofstede's National Culture (2001)
- 1. Power Distance
- 2. Uncertainty Avoidance
- 3. Masculinity and Femininity
- 4. Long-term and Short-term Orientation

Blum-Kulka's Request Strategies (1989)
- 1. Direct
- 2. Conventionally Indirect
- 3. Non-Conventionally Indirect

Grice's Cooperative Principles (1957)
- Maxim of Quality
- Maxim of Quantity
- Maxim of Relevance
- Maxim of Manners

After the preceding discussion of how each theory has been used in studies before this, it is only apt now to elaborate on the justification as to why I chose to incorporate all these theories into a practical model that I will use in my data analysis.

For the purpose of the analysis of my study, I have designed a model named as ‘The Cooperative Intercultural Pragmatic/Practices of Request Strategies’ (CIPRS model) which is coined after the three theories that I decided to use as my conceptual framework. I believe that in this framework I can cover most of the elements discussed in the previous section. The three different theories incorporated in this model are as follows: the first theory is the National Culture dimensions
created by Hofstede from longitudinal research conducted for IBM. The second theory is Blum-Kulka’s request strategies and the last theory incorporated within the model is the Cooperative Principle by Grice as elaborated above. The three theories have been used in studies from various field in order to investigate various concerns. However, they have not been properly linked in the way I have envisaged for in this study.

In this study, I have combined all these theories and designed a model that would help me in identifying the conventions as to how requests were made and uttered by my participants and what led them to produce such utterance. I aim to investigate not only how they uttered such request but what are the propelling criteria that urged them to decide which request strategy that they would choose. Is there a principle that they would adhere to?

Hofstede’s theory is the first theory to be considered in the analysis of my study because it might be the first thing a person would think of before saying anything. A speaker brings with him/her a set of values and a culture that have been programmed into their conscience ever since she/he were very young. Hence in any occasion that requires him/her to react to a certain event, the first thing that he/she would do is to refer to the programmed values and cultures that he/she would be familiar with. In his book Culture and Consequences (2001), Hofstede quoted an anthropological definition by Kluckhohn (1951/1967) : “A value is a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means and ends of actions” (p.395). On the other hand, culture is defined by Hofstede (2001) as a collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another. Thus, values and culture would act as a conceptual
framework in a speaker’s mind whenever he/she is prompted to say something or react to an event. It is only apt to consider Hofstede’s *National Culture* as the primary theory to consider in my analysis as it functions as the first consideration of a speaker before making any form of utterance which, in this context, would be making requests.

The second theory, Blum-Kulka’s request strategies, refers to the level of directness an interlocutor would consider when making a request and varying it according to situations that he/she may be in contact with. This theory is imperative to my study as it is about the requestive behaviour of ESL learners. It falls as the second theory in my model because this would be the second consideration that a speaker would consciously make before uttering a request.

The third theory, Grice’s Cooperative Principle, is included because a speaker needs to deliberate on how best to arrange words of request that would ensure the hearer to comply and react to such requests. The role of the Maxims in Cooperative Principle act as a mediator that would maintain harmony between the speaker and the hearer in any requestive conditions.

### 3.6 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations have to be included in this study as it involves participants who are also students of a higher education institution. This is to ensure that no rights have been violated and the participants are given the privilege to be excluded if they find the DCT used in this study as offensive.

Two ethical applications were requested; one for the pilot study and the second for the major study. Both studies were given approval and have taken place after the letters were sent to my
supervisor and myself as the researcher. The details of the Ethical Application procedure will be discussed as the following.

3.6.1 Ethical Application Form

The Ethical Application Form consists of several sections. The first section is the background information of the research project that I identified and planned. The first part of the form consists of fifteen questions and the first question is regarding some personal information about me as a researcher followed by the duration of the data collection. The next question is regarding the aim of the project which is highly regarded as educational as it is a necessary project for a postgraduate degree namely a PhD. The fourth question requires for me to confirm that due to the nature of the project I would have to provide the participant a Consent Form and Participant Information Form prior to the data collection. These forms will be further discussed in the next section. The fifth question requires a summary of the research along with the aims, objectives and methodology of the study need also be provided to give the panel examiners some idea of what the research project is about. The following two questions were not relevant to my study as the study does not pose any physical or psychological nor distress to the participants and nor does it involve any security issues as the data collection will be done within the vicinity of the University premises and not after office hours. The next one requires some explanation as to the recruitment of the potential participants. The participants of my study were identified, approached and recruited with some collaboration from the Director of the full-time MA in Education on a voluntary basis. The first phase which was the survey with the use of DCT took place over a period of 20 minutes at the beginning or at the end of the selected MA teaching session, prior to some arrangement made with the tutors of the respective sessions. A subset of
the MA participants were identified, again with the approval of the Director of the MA for the second phase of the data collection. The participants viewed a video and a follow-up discussion took place between me and the participants. The following question requires some affirmation to the protection and well-being of the participants while taking part in the data collection and as there is nothing in test or the organisation of the text or the video activity that could physically and psychologically harm the participants, the participants are well protected. Furthermore, the DCT and the video activity is designed in such a way that no personal data such as names or any other identification was required and the participants were safely anonymous to anyone reading the thesis or any other articles regarding the study. The final question is regarding the production of the recorded material such as audio and video recordings. As the study involves some audio recordings of the participants during the follow-up discussion in the video activity, it is imperative to not disclose any of the recording to any third party other than me, my supervisor and the examiners. It is also crucial to ensure that by the end of the study all the data and recordings would be deleted.

3.6.2 Participant Information Sheet and Consent Form

The first ethical consideration that I had to ensure in conducting this study was that the participants were aware of their rights as a participant to my study. Hence, prior to the data collection sessions the participants were given two different documents that required their signature, the first one was the Consent Form and Information Sheet. The consent form for the first phase was replaced by the Discourse Completion Test, which indirectly gained the participants approval if they decide to respond to the DCT given. The second phase of the study also required the participant to initial another Consent Form which was not a DCT. The
Information Sheet is a document that gave the participants a brief overview of the study and what it entailed with regard to their collaboration in the study. Thus, the content of the Participation Information Sheet includes the title of the research project along with an invitation paragraph which explains the reason the participants were being invited to take part and the invitation cautions the participants to carefully read the information sheet very carefully before committing themselves to participate. The purpose of the research project was explained to the participants with regard to the background, aim and the duration of each of the sessions that they will take part in; 20 minutes for the DCT and another 45 minutes for the discussion. The participants were also given some form of justification as to the reason they were being chosen for the study and that they had been chosen because they were a non-native English speaker. Apart from that as a second language speaker they would probably have some empathy with the aim and the objective of the study. The following question ensures the participants that they were free to withdraw from any of the sessions if they decided not to participate and no pressure would be put on them if they were to decide as such. If they wished to take part they would be asked to respond to the DCT in which they will write down their responses on the DCT and if they decided to take part in the discussion they would be asked to view a video recording of the situations taken from the DCT consisting of responses given by native speakers. In the discussion they were asked to react to the situations by sharing their opinions or even disagreements if they so wish. The participants were also informed that the study would benefit them in a way that it would give them the opportunity to reflect upon an area of language that they may have not considered before and that it may help them in their daily interaction. The participants were assured that their personal details and their contribution to the study would be kept confidential and if they wished to read the final product of the thesis, they could obtain a copy from the department. They were also
informed that the recordings of their discussion would be disposed of once the project was completed and none would be used without their written permission.

The Consent Form is a form of declaration that the participants had read the Participants Information Sheet and that they had a clear understanding of the project. They have also understood that their participation is voluntary and that they could withdraw from the study at any point in time and that they understood that their responses would be anonymised but they would give permission for members of the research team to have access to their anonymised responses. The last but not least was their agreement that they were willing to take part in the study.

The two forms were signed by both the participants and then were returned to me for documentation.

3.7 Limitation to the Study

There are several aspects of this study that I did not anticipate and they have contributed to a certain limitation. The limitations are further elaborated in the following sub sections.

3.7.1 The Instrument

The DCT that I have chosen as a major instrument of this study has been sceptically scrutinised. I have decided to use it anyway because I find that the situations created to draw out requests responses from the participants are very much convenient and familiar to the participants. I find the DCT very comprehensive as it considers communication events from different perspective,
i.e social events that involves interactions between family, peers, lecturers and strangers. As established earlier in this chapter, this instrument may be seen lacking if we were to compare it to real live occurrences. Despite the fact that this instrument has been created for over 25 years, it has been used until present (as presented in p.94) by many researchers in this field and to a certain extent it has served its purposes. This instrument has been very helpful to me as I do not have the advantage where time is concerned and although it would have been very interesting to be able to record a real life request making in action unfortunately, the DCT is the only instrument that I could rely on at this point of time. In relation to the purpose of this study, although limited, it has given some foundation to create the model that I formulated in order to make sense of the responses made by my participants when reacting to the DCT. The interviews and focus discussion also assisted in providing more meaningful input to the choice of strategies that they selected when requesting.

3.7.2 The Sample

Another limitation to my study is that my participants were transitional, i.e. as they were only enrolled in the M.A programme for only a year and immediately after that most of them would return to their home countries. Based on that reason, participants who were involved in the first cohort 2013/2014 of the study were not available during the time the writing of this thesis commenced which was in November 2015. Hence, further communication with the first cohort of participants was not possible. There were some problems recruiting participants from this cohort as well due to some unanticipated shortcomings. By the time the data collection commenced, the participants had almost completed their last taught module and most of them were already very much occupied with writing their dissertations. I only managed to conduct the
first phase of the data collection with over fifty participants for the DCT and three participants for the second phase; the follow-up discussion. Hence, due to lack of participants I had to wait for the next cohort, 2014/2015, to register in October 2014. The first phase which involved the administration of the DCT was very encouraging. Even though I did not manage to get the whole cohort to respond to my DCT, 59 participants from the first cohort (2013/2014) was a good number. Furthermore, since I did not manage to recruit that many (only 3 participants) for the second phase of the data collection, I realised that I had to wait for the next cohort to enrol. Once the next cohort had settled in and started their first taught module, I managed to administer the DCT for the second time and retrieved about 47 DCT sets and for the follow-up discussion, I managed to recruit 12 participants. I am grateful that the nature of my study is flexible enough to accommodate this limitation. Even though my participants came from two different cohorts, the data that I have collected were not affected where reliability is concerned. The data I needed for this study was basically responses to the DCT and the participants’ reaction in the follow up discussion. Thus, having two different cohorts would not affect the data in any way. One last limitation with regards to my sample is that there are some data presented in this study will have some grammatical errors that have been committed by the participants, hence it is important to note that I might not be able to correct all of them since this study is based on the pragmatic and politeness features. In addition to that it is important to highlight that these requests (the DCT and the follow up discussions) are uttered by second language speakers and the errors are unavoidable.
3.7.3 The Procedure

I found the procedure of the whole data collection a little bit discouraging. It was not as easy as I thought it would be, perhaps it is because of the novelty of the environment. I was unfamiliar with the setting and the background of the premises, particularly the department. It was indeed a humbling experience because everything was very new and different from the environment that I am used to. Truthfully, I had never had any problems recruiting participants in my own university back home because I know the system and it was very easy for me to arrange myself around it. I have to admit I was very frustrated with the second attempt of collecting the DCT as it did not turn out to be better than the first attempt. The students were not that willing to volunteer and I found this quite unnerving. At the same time, I was fortunate enough to be given the opportunity to teach some of the cohort, and so I was able to recruit participants for my follow-up discussion much easier compared to the first cohort.
CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Speak politely...
(Al-Quran, 17:53)

4.1 Introduction

This chapter will discuss the findings of my study and the discussion will be presented according to the three research questions. The first two questions will address the choice of the request strategies used by the participants and how they differ. Hence the findings of the data will discuss the choice and the categories according to the level of directness that have been established by Blum-Kulka and her fellow researchers. The third research question will address the influence of the choice of request strategies used by the participants and the discussion will be based on the model of the three integrated theories that I have formulated for the study. The model will be named as the Cooperative Intercultural Pragmatics of Request Strategies Model and the three integrated theories in this model are Hofstede’s National Culture dimensions, Blum-Kulka’s Request Strategies and Grice’s Cooperative Principle. The model will be used to justify the participants’ choice of request strategies and how the influence of social distance, power and dominance, status and gender affect their choices.

This chapter aims to present the findings and discussions of the study. In the first phase of the data collection, the participants were given a set of Discourse Completion Tests (DCT) containing 12 situations. The situations are designed to suit the participants’ context as each situation is set in an environment that is very familiar to the participants (refer to Appendix One).
The second phase of the data collection involved a subset of the group of participants from the first phase who were required to give feedback on a set of videos containing responses made by English native speakers responding to similar situations (refer to Chapter 3 Methodology).

At this stage of the thesis, it is useful to remind the reader of my research questions. They are as follows.

1. What are the request strategies chosen by students from different linguistic backgrounds?
2. How do the request strategies differ from situation to situation?
   a. How do the participants vary their request strategies?
   b. Why are they different?
3. How do the aspects of social distance (SD), power and dominance (D), status and gender influence the request strategies?

Thus, this chapter aims to present and arrange the findings and discussion of this study according to the above research questions.

4.2 What are the request strategies chosen by students from different linguistic backgrounds?

*Speak gently*

*(Al-Quran, 20:44)*

The first research question considers the choice of request strategy used by the participant when making requests in a multicultural setting. It is important to note that this section’s main objective is to discuss the choice of request strategies chosen by the participants and any further explanation regarding the choice will be dealt with in the section that follows.
The responses collected by the DCT show that participants decided that the best request strategies to use for making any request to anyone be they colleagues, strangers, subordinates, lecturers, family or friends, are either Conventionally Indirect strategies, Non-Conventionally Indirect strategies or sometimes they choose not to make any requests at all (opt out) depending on the situation that they are in. They appear to believe that being indirect mitigates the level of imposition on the hearer and hence, make the request more polite. Most of the participants agree that being polite is important as they would want to maintain solidarity and most importantly the request must be made in a manner in which their request should not offend the hearer/requestee. Blum (cited in Van Dijk, 2011) claims that politeness is the intentional, strategic behaviour of an individual that is meant to satisfy self and other face wants in case of threat.

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5 Face wants would be another crucial factor that is involved in the preservation of face. This is also distinguished by the positive and negative face. According to Brown and Levinson positive face wants would be defined as a want every member of a society that his/her wants be desirable to at least some others (p.62). The negative face wants is identified as “the want of every “competent adult member” that his actions be unimpeded by others.
Table 4.1  The table below depicts the level of directness in request strategies that were used to categorise the requests chosen by the participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUB CATEGORIES</th>
<th>DETAILS</th>
<th>REQUEST STRATEGIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Mood derivable</td>
<td>The grammatical mood of the locution conventionally determines its illocutionary force as a request. The prototypical form is the imperative. However, functional equivalents such as infinitive forms and elliptical sentence structures express the same directness level. Example: <em>Leave me alone / Clean up the kitchen / Please move your car.</em></td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Explicit performative</td>
<td>The illocutionary intent is explicitly named by the speaker by using a relevant illocutionary verb. Example: <em>I am asking / I am telling you to move the car.</em></td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Hedged performative</td>
<td>The illocutionary verb denoting the requestive intent is modified by modal verb or verbs expressing intention. Example: <em>Madam you will have to/should/must/ought to move your car.</em></td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Locution derivable</td>
<td>The illocutionary intent is directly derivable from the semantic meaning of the locution. Example: <em>I would like to borrow your notes for a little while.</em></td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Want statement / Scope stating</td>
<td>The utterance expresses the speaker’s desire that the event denoted in the proposition come about. Example: <em>How about cleaning up the kitchen? / Why don’t you get lost?</em></td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Suggestory formula</td>
<td>The illocutionary intent is phrased as a suggestion by means of a framing routine formula. Example:</td>
<td>Conventionally Indirect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Query Preparatory</td>
<td>The utterance contains reference to a preparatory condition for the feasibility of the request, typically one of ability, willingness or possibility, as conventionalised in the given language. Very often, but not necessarily so, the speaker questions rather than states the presence of the chosen preparatory conditions. Example: <em>Can I borrow your notes? / I was wondering if you would give me a lift.</em></td>
<td>Conventionally Indirect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Strong hint</td>
<td>The illocutionary intent is not immediately derivable</td>
<td>Non-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
for the locution; however, the locution refers to relevant elements of the intended illocutionary and/or prepositional act. Such elements often relate to preconditions for the feasibility of the request, requiring more inferencing activity on the part of the hearer.

**Example:** *Will you be going home now?*

| 9. Mild hint | The locution contains no elements which are of immediate relevance to the intended illocution or proposition, thus putting increased demand for context analysis and knowledge activation on the interlocutor.  
**Example:** *You’ve been busy, haven’t you?* | Non-conventionally Indirect |

Blum-Kulka et al. (1989, p.18)

Table 4.1 is a checklist of the levels of directness which I have used in this study to classify the requests made by the participants. The checklist consists of nine levels of directness which are then minimised to three main levels of directness which are *Direct* (mood derivable, explicit performative, hedged performative, locution derivable and want statement or scope stating), *Conventionally Indirect* (suggestory formula and query preparatory) and *Non-Conventionally Indirect* (strong hint and mild hint).
Table 4.2 Distribution of request strategies chosen by respondents from the DCT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SITUATIONS (SIT)</th>
<th>STRATEGY</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DIRECT (%)</td>
<td>CONVENTIONALLY INDIRECT (%)</td>
<td>NON CONVENTIONALLY INDIRECT (%)</td>
<td>OPT OUT (%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIT 1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>63.0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIT 2</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>69.0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIT 3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>94.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIT 4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>56.0</td>
<td>38.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIT 5</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>56.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIT 6</td>
<td>38.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>56.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIT 7</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIT 8</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>82.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIT 9</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>82.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIT 10</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIT 11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIT 12</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>69.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the responses made from Situation 1 through to Situation 12, it was noted that a majority of the participants chose the *Conventionally Indirect* or the *Non-Conventionally Indirect* strategy as illustrated in Table 4.2. A minority of the participants chose to not respond at all especially in requests that they felt would surely be rejected or in some situations where they felt they would be better off accomplishing the tasks themselves (Situation 1,3,4,7 and 12). The reasons for this response will be further explained in section 4.3.3 (*Uncertainty Avoidance*).
Table 4.3 Below are some examples taken from the DCT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SITUATION</th>
<th>STRATEGY</th>
<th>EXCERPTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 1</td>
<td>Conventionally Indirect Preparatory</td>
<td>Hey Alan. Would you please to clear up the dining room? Because I'm having some friends for dinner and it's lovely [to] show a clean dining room to friends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dining/living room</td>
<td>condition</td>
<td>I think this is a public space and we all the responsibility to keep it clean so that the next one who use here can feel comfortable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-conventionally indirect Strong hint</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 2</td>
<td>Non-conventionally Indirect IFID + Mild hint</td>
<td>Excuse me, I'm afraid we do not recognise with each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strangers</td>
<td>Conventionally Indirect Preparatory</td>
<td>Could you please move away and stop bothering me?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Condition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 3</td>
<td>Conventionally Indirect Preparatory</td>
<td>Can I please have your notes June. I missed the class because I wasn’t feeling well.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecture notes</td>
<td>condition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conventionally Indirect Want statement + Preparatory condition</td>
<td>June, I need your help, please. I was sick for a while and missed the classes hence I need to have a look at someone's notes. Could you do me a favour by letting me have a quick look at your notes? If you don't mind of course.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 4</td>
<td>Conventionally Indirect Preparatory</td>
<td>Would you give me a ride if there were some space for me in your car. I mean you are going to headed the same direction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lift home</td>
<td>condition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conventionally Indirect Preparatory</td>
<td>Hi can I ask for a help? Can you give me a lift home? I would be appreciate if you can give me a ride.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Condition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 5</td>
<td>Conventionally Indirect Preparatory</td>
<td>Good morning/afternoon, madam. This is xxx. I saw the job advertisement in newspaper, I'm interested in this post and your company. Can I ask for more detailed information about the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job advertisement</td>
<td>condition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 6  No parking</td>
<td>Conventionally Indirect Want statement + preparatory condition</td>
<td>Hello I'm Sue, I'm sorry but I really want this job could you please send to me the whole information about this job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventionally Indirect IFID + Locution Derivable</td>
<td>Sorry, but you cannot park your car here, it is against the law. Please park your car elsewhere, there is a carpark nearby</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventionally Indirect IFID + Locution Derivable</td>
<td>Good morning miss! I am really sorry, but you have to move your car, since this is a no parking area. You could go there...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 7  Paper extension</td>
<td>Conventionally Indirect IFID + Preparatory Condition</td>
<td>Mrs. Nathaniel, I did my best to submit my work before the deadline, but I'm afraid I can't make it. I'm really sorry but could I ask for an extension?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventionally Indirect IFID + Preparatory Condition</td>
<td>I am sorry Mrs. Nathaniel. I am afraid I won't be able to hand my paper in time. Will it be possible to get an extension once?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 8  Paper presentation</td>
<td>Conventionally Indirect Preparatory Condition</td>
<td>Annie, I know your presentation is in next week but I think it fits will with the session before next week. So could you please give it earlier?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventionally Indirect Preparatory Condition</td>
<td>Could you reschedule your time and plan to present yr work a week earlier? Because the conten[t]s involved in your presentation is related to my lessons.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 9  Tennis ball</td>
<td>Conventionally Indirect IFID + Preparatory Condition</td>
<td>Excuse me. Can you please past back the ball? Thank you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventionally Indirect Preparatory Condition</td>
<td>Hi guys! Can we give me back the ball? Thank you in advance!</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 10  Drinks</td>
<td>Conventionally Indirect Want</td>
<td>Oh a long queue. I'm [exhausted]. I just want to sit down right now. Can you help get me a drink?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 11 Parking meter</td>
<td>Conventionally Indirect Preparatory Condition</td>
<td>Andrew is it ok if you buy the drinks alone because I'm feeling tired. Thank you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 12 No smoking</td>
<td>Conventionally Indirect Preparatory Condition</td>
<td>Hello. Could you help me please? I want to park my car, but I don't have the changes, so if you can give me some changes and I give you the note. Thank you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conventionally Indirect Preparatory Condition</td>
<td>Ma'am. Could you do me a favour[?] I have this important job interview now and have no time to get more cash for parking (show the £5 note at the same time) I will return it to you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non conventionally Indirect Mild Hint</td>
<td>Dear grandpa. Cigarette is harmful to your health and would you mind putting it out your cigarette?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Oh grand! We've talked about this! If I quit, you quit!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3 is a list of extracts taken from the DCT. These extracts were responses, produced by the participants, to the SITUATIONs created to measure the participants’ reaction where request is concerned when encountered by such scenarios.

In Situation 1 (refer to Table 4.3), the request made by the speaker is for the hearer to clean up the living/dining room that he had used the previous day. The first example shows that the speaker chooses to utter his/her request by employing the preparatory condition “Would you please to clear up the dining room?” He/she has also included some form of explanation as to why she needs Alan to clean the room “…Because I'm having some friends [over] for dinner” and he/she justifies her request by including “it's lovely [to] show a clean dining room to
friends”. This particular act of supplying additional information to a request is found to be quite common among the participants. One of the participants in follow-up group discussion gave a rationale as to why this is considered the best approach. They feel that with additional information the probability of the hearer declining their request will be minimal or that the hearer will comply without hesitance.

**EXTRACT 1**

mmmm..I think --... I...I...--...I prefer the...all my friends...um...I think it does not depend on which person. Even though, the person is very close to me... we have a very close relationship ...um...when he or she ask me to help her ...um...I would like to know...know the situation...first...yeah..i know, you know I will help you...you’re my close friend but I would like to know why...what’s your situation that in this case I can give you more help to help you in a better way. (G.1)

G.1 was actually identifying herself as the hearer or the requestee. She admitted that she would be more than willing to assist her requester if sufficient information was provided along with the request as she considered that more information would give her an idea as to how she could “...help...in a better way”

Another participant gave the same reaction when referring to additional information in making requests. R.3 responded that in Situation 8, where the speaker requested for a student (hearer/requestee) to present her paper earlier than the actual date, he would add a little more information to convince the student to agree. He said that,

**EXTRACT 2**

... if I were the Doctor (the lecturer) I would tell the student I think it’s a great value your presentation on me. Is it possible, could you please do me a favour...yeah...if it’s inconvenient...oohh...your presentation is...is also of great

---

6 Please refer to key transcription
value for me... I would tell the student directly that is a good value... it’s a good help for me... (R.3)

Hence, it can be deduced that the participants agree that when using Preparatory Condition it is wise to include additional information or what Grice (1957) terms as Reasoning (refer to section 4.3.2 p. 242), to persuade the hearer/requestee to comply with their requests. This term will be addressed further in section 4.3.

Non-Conventionally Indirect strategy is also one of the choices used by the participants in Situation 1, 2, 10 and 12. The choices of category that the participants used were Strong Hint and Mild Hint.

**EXTRACT 3**

*I think this is a public space and we all [have] the responsibility to keep it clean so that the next one who use here can feel comfortable* (Table 4.2 Situation 1)

The example above is a response for a request made by the speaker to clean the living/dining room. In this example the speaker has hinted that whoever has used the “public space” must be “responsible” enough “to keep it clean”. This gives the hearer the impression that the speaker is reminding him of his responsibility and to start cleaning the mess he has created so that the next person who would like to use the room “can feel comfortable”. This manner of requesting will be further elaborated in section 4.3.2 (CIPRS: Uncertainty Avoidance, p.235)

In Situation 2, the speaker began her request with an illocutionary force indication device (IFID). In this case she/he used “Excuse me”, and hinted to the hearer that she/he is “afraid” that they “do not recognize with each other”. Here, the speaker is indirectly telling the hearer that people
who do not know each other should not be talking to each other and with that notion in mind, the hearer should, consequently, leave him/her alone.

The use of Non-Conventionally Indirect requests such as Hints is not only seen as an approach to mitigate imposition but it sends out a signal that the speaker is only reminding the hearer of the task that should not be for the sake of the speaker alone but for the sake of others as well. Hints in requesting can be seen as a very polite manner of warning but still maintaining solidarity between the two interlocutors. Rinnert and Kobayashi (1999) term Hints as solidarity building that emphasizes shared, implicit knowledge and empathy that invites camaraderie and equality. Hints also suggest empathy between interlocutors and their relationship is intimate enough that they share similar presuppositions and expectancies that indicate the existence of an in-group closeness (Rinnert and Kobayashi, 1999)

Ruzickova (2006) summarizes the use of hints in a very intriguing manner. She considers Hints as expressing a core message of validation communicated between interlocutors and that is:

I know you and I understand you, moreover, I like you, I care about you and I approve of you; I will show you tokens of this regard by demonstrating that I share some of the same wants, goals and desires you value. I will show you (and others) that (at least on some level) I consider and treat you as a member of the same group that I belong to, and that we share some common ground. I also want you to know that this does not mean that I disrespect your individuality and personal space; however, it is more important to me for you to know that I appreciate you, rather than that I do not want to disturb you. (Ruzickova, 2006, p. 1200)

Other than Hints, the participants of this study, have the tendency to use an Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID) not only with Hints but also with other categories of request strategies.
The responses in Situation 6, 7 and 9 present choices of category that include preparatory condition and locution derivable in conventionally indirect request strategies.

Table 4.4 Extracts taken from the DCT to show some IFIDs use in requesting.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SITUATIONS</th>
<th>EXAMPLES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 6</td>
<td>Sorry, but you cannot park your car here, it is against the law. Please</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No parking</td>
<td>park your car elsewhere, there is a car park nearby</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Good morning miss! I am really sorry, but you have to move your car,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>since this is a no parking area. You could go there...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 7</td>
<td>Mrs Nathaniel, I did my best to submit my work before the deadline, but</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paper extension</td>
<td>I'm afraid I can't make it. I'm really sorry but could I ask for an</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>extension?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 9</td>
<td>Excuse me. Can you please past back the ball? Thank you.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extracts taken from the DCT are as listed in Table 4.4. The examples in each SITUATION illustrate the use of IFIDs by the participants. The most common IFIDs used for all three situations are “sorry” and “excuse me”. It was also used in Situation 2 where the speaker used “Excuse me...” to catch the hearer’s attention.

The participants seem to be using an IFID in their requests presumably because it has already been accepted as a common expression in requesting, even though the original function of IFID is to express or offer apology. Deutschmann, (2003) defines these types of IFIDs (‘sorry’, ‘excuse me’ and ‘pardon me’) as a functional category of anticipatory apologies that are termed as ‘Request cues’. He describes these types of apologies as IFIDs that have been truncated. For instance, a request of “I am sorry, could you repeat that please?” can be shortened to a mere “Sorry” or “Excuse me”. According to him, request cues have become so conventionalised in
English that their simple utterance is a request in itself and has never lost its quality as a politeness marker. Therefore, the participants consider adding IFIDs to their request as important to observe politeness and maintain solidarity.

In conclusion, participants from different linguistic background have chosen the indirect strategy, namely the conventionally and non-conventionally indirect strategy when making their requests. In other words, there were no significant differences identified in the choice of request strategies used by the participants, even though they come from different parts of the world with different cultures and different backgrounds.

4.3 How do the request strategies differ from situation to situation?

Speak kindly
(Al Quran, 2:83)

The second research questions aims to investigate the differences of choice made by the participants when making requests. Initially we have established that a group of participants are shown 12 videos of responses made by English native speakers. Based on the exercise, I discovered that my participants were not totally in favour of the responses made in that video. It was revealed that when making request the participants, regardless of their linguistic background, had similar choices in the request that they had made. The majority of them prefer to use the indirect strategy. However, the manner as to how they utter each request may differ from situation to situation depending on their background, culture, level of education and gender.
The first consideration in attempting to examine the request strategies used by the participants of my study is the linguistic form that they have used in uttering their requests and whether it differs from situation to situation. There must also be a reason behind each request realization and it is also interesting to note whether they have a similar manner of realising requests much like the native speakers with regard to the speech act knowledge and performance. For this particular reason, Faerch and Kasper (1989) decided to examine the use of internal and external modification in making requests and in this section I will relate the use of these two modifications with power as one of the social variables highlighted by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989).

In this section it is appropriate to consider the utterance of each request according to the coding scheme (Holtgraves and Yang, 1992) that was adapted and adopted in order to select the scripts for the video used in this study. The table (Table 4.5) below are some of the examples given by the participants which are taken from the DCT.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SITUATION</th>
<th>REQUEST</th>
<th>CODING SCHEME</th>
<th>REQUEST STRATEGY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Situation 1 | Clean up the living/dining room | 1. Hey Alan,  
2. I am having some friends over tonight and I’ve noticed that you forgot to clean the dining room  
3. Would you mind helping me with it? | 1. Getting attention – address the hearer’s name  
2. Supportive sentence – give a reason prior to request  
3. Request – reduce the imposition placed on the hearer by offering assistance. | Conventionally Indirect |
| Situation 2 | Stranger | 1. I’m sorry  
2. I’m in a hurry | 1. Getting attention  
2. Request – Hint | Non-Conventionally Indirect |
| Situation 3 | Lecture Notes | 1. Hey June,  
2. can you lend me your notes please?  
3. I couldn’t come to classes. I was sick. | 1. Getting attention – address hearer’s name  
2. Request with modification  
3. Supportive sentence – explanation for the request | Conventionally Indirect |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation 4</th>
<th>Lift Home</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Hey you guys.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Could you give me a lift?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Because it’s really late and I’m afraid to go home alone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation 5</th>
<th>Information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Good morning, Madam.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I'm Sue. I saw a job advertisement in a newspaper and I'm really interested in your company’s position.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Could you please give me more information about that?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation 6</th>
<th>Traffic Warden</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Hi Madam</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I am sorry to inform you that you parked</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lecture today?</th>
<th>of the hearer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3. Unfortunately, I couldn’t go there</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Could you lend your notes to me</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I’m really appreciate it</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supportive sentence – explanation for request</th>
<th>Supportive sentence – explanation for request</th>
<th>Supportive sentence – explanation for request</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3. I’m really appreciate it of the hearer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Request with modification</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Reduce imposition – show gratitude</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation 6</th>
<th>Traffic Warden</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Getting attention – address hearer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Supportive sentence – explanation prior request</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Request with modification</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conventionally Indirect</th>
<th>Conventionally Indirect</th>
<th>Conventionally Indirect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Getting attention – address hearer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Supportive sentence – explanation prior request</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Request with modification</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Situation 7 | 1. I am really sorry Miss  
2. but I haven’t had chance to finish writing my paper  
3. Is there any chance I could have a few more days to finish it? | 1. Getting attention – address hearer  
2. Supportive sentence – explanation prior to request  
3. Request with modification | Conventionally Indirect |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Paper Extension | 1. I am really sorry Miss  
2. but I haven’t had chance to finish writing my paper  
3. Is there any chance I could have a few more days to finish it? | 1. Getting attention – address hearer  
2. Supportive sentence – explanation prior to request  
3. Request with modification | Conventionally Indirect |
| Situation 8 | 1. It would better if you present this a week earlier | 1. Request with modification | Conventionally Indirect |
| Early Presentation | 1. Annie  
2. You have done a good job in preparing your presentation and I have found great value in your presentation which can actually help me with my lessons.  
3. So I wonder if you might possibly arrange your presentation earlier then planed.  
4. Your help is deeply appreciated. Even if is not convenient, your work is also a lot help for me. | 1. Getting attention – address hearer’s name  
2. Supportive sentence – explanation prior to request  
3. Request with modification  
4. Reduce imposition – show gratitude | Conventionally Indirect |
<p>| Situation 9 | 1. Hi | 1. Getting attention – | Conventionally Indirect |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tennis</th>
<th>salutation</th>
<th>Indirect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. I am sorry that I hit the ball over the fence and interrupt you</td>
<td>2. Supportive sentence – explanation prior to request</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Can you pass me the ball back to me?</td>
<td>3. Request with modification</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation 10 McDonalds</th>
<th>1. Getting attention – address the hearer</th>
<th>Conventionally Indirect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. My dear brother</td>
<td>2. Supportive sentence – explanation prior to request</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I really have a tough day</td>
<td>3. Request with modification</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Could you help me with a drink?</td>
<td>4. Supportive sentence – explanation</td>
<td></td>
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<td>4. I really want to sit for a while</td>
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<th>Situation 11 Change for Meter</th>
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<td>2. Do you by any chance have extra change for a fiver?</td>
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| 1. Oh dear grandfather | 1. Getting attention – address the hearer | Conventionally Indirect |
2. Smoking is harmful for your health
3. It will be better to put out the cigarette

| 2. Supportive sentence – explanation prior to request |
| 3. Request with modification |

The sample extracts listed in the table above (Table 4.5) have illustrated that the participants have chosen/preferred to use the indirect strategy when making their requests. It can be seen that the most used strategy is the Conventionally Indirect strategy but some have also decided to choose Non-Conventionally Indirect strategies in some of the situations provided in the DCT. In addition there were also a few participants who chose not to perform any request and would rather remain quiet and not say anything. The utterances which make up the requests do follow a certain sequence and most of the participants follow a similar pattern. Apparently, they have a mutual understanding as to the manner of making requests. From the extracts in the table (Table 4.4) above it is clear that regardless of their different L1, cultures and backgrounds, they seem to believe that when making requests they must include some form of attention getter (Holtgraves and Yang, 1992) or alerters (Blum-Kulka et al (1989) which could be in a form of a name, title, surname among others) or it could also be in semantic forms such as “dear brother” or “darling could you...”. One example uttered by the participant would be “My dear brother...”(Table 4.5: Situation 10)

The next structure is the supportive sentence or supportive move. It seen from the sample extracts in the table above that most of them would have the supportive sentence prior to the request or “Head Act” (Blum-Kulka et al. 1989). The supportive sentence can be in a form of
explanation or “grounders” as termed by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) “I am sorry to inform you that you parked your car in a ‘no parking’ area.” (Table 4.5 Situation 6).

Another form of supportive sentence that acts as a form to check the availability of the situation is an taken from the list “Did you go to the lecture today?” (Table 4.5 Situation 3). The use of this supportive sentence is so that the speaker could ensure that the request she/he was about to make was a possibility and that she/he would not be asking in vain that is if the hearer did not attend the lecture, it would be a useless request.

The purpose of using supportive sentence is that the speaker hopes the hearer would be persuaded to assist the speaker or comply with the speaker’s request. It could also be in a form of a promise or threat. As can be seen uttered by the participant in this example; “If you don’t I will call the police” (Table 4.5: Situation 2) which forms a threat to ensure that the hearer would comply to her request to stop harassing her.

The following sequence is the “Head Act” or the request itself. Blum et al. (1989) categorize it into two different factors; the strategy type and perspective. The strategy type would of course be the level of directness formulated by them. I have already established earlier in this discussion that the most used request strategies are the Conventionally Indirect and the Non-Conventionally Indirect strategies. The second factor of the “Head Act” is the perspective of the request and this considers the role of the speaker. According to Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) the speaker can make the request, speaker oriented (i.e. “Can I...”), hearer oriented (i.e. “Can you...”) or it can also be phrased inclusively (i.e. “Can we...”) and some would phrase it as impersonal (i.e. “It needs to
be cleaned”). In the extracts provided in Table 4.4, it is very obvious that the participants have decided to use the hearer oriented perspective. The participants are aware that there is a need to reduce the level of imposition that a request presents, hence the use of hearer oriented perspective would reduce the level of coerciveness and soften the request. However, not all requests would fit into this kind of perspective as Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) have reiterated and it is illustrated by one of the extracts from the table above; “I’m in a hurry” (Table 4.5: Situation 2). Hence, it may seem that the hearer-oriented perspective could be the most appropriate factor to add to a request but in certain cases it might not be the best choice especially in Situation 2 where the speaker had to ask the stranger to leave her alone or to stop talking to her.

Another consideration, when making requests is concerned, would be the use of internal modifications. There are two types that are quite commonly used among requestees and they are downgraders and upgraders. The one which is commonly used among the participants of this study is the syntactic downgrader and the most popular among them is the modal auxiliary. Faerch and Kasper (1989) have emphasised that downgraders are used to mitigate or soften the imposition in a request. It is quite apparent that the participants are aware of this as well and they have considered using this in most of their requests. Terkourafi (2015) has identified similar results in her study and that her participants uttered their request with this structure in mind as well and they have viewed that as highly polite.

In reference to the table above (Table 4.5) some of the participants have used another form of supportive move that is used to reduce the imposition placed on the hearer by their requests and
specifically one that is to show gratitude as found in the extract “Your help is deeply appreciated. Even if is not convenient, your work is also a lot help for me.” (Table 4.5 Situation 8). The other extract that can illustrate this use further is “I’m really appreciate it” (Table 4.5 Situation 3). Both of the extracts appeared after the requests. The participants have probably added this to soften the imposition of the request as recommended by Blum-Kulka et al (1989) and Faerch and Kasper (1989).

This finding also agrees with Faerch and Kasper’s (1989) that non-native speakers or in my own terms, second language speakers have a tendency to overuse the supportive sentence compared to native speakers. Economidou-Kogetsidis (2009) discovered the same result in her study. The second language learners (Greek participants) in her study displayed an underuse of lexical/phrasal downgraders (internal modification) as compared to native speakers, and to generally use more supportive moves (external modification). Similar to my own finding, the participants considered that the more supportive sentence is used to lower the level of imposition of the request on the hearer.

In addition to that, another thing that is worth emphasizing is that most of the participants used supportive sentences (external modification) that explain the requests in all of the Situations provided in the DCT. This signifies that they feel there is a need to explain their request regardless of the social variable between the two interlocutors. The speaker may offer some form of explanation when making requests to their peers (Situation 1 and 3) or to the superiors or to someone who they highly respect (Situation 7 and 12) and even to strangers (Situation 2 and 5).
However, there is some difference in the way these requests are uttered; for instance in Situation 1, the explanation given ("It wouldn’t be nice if other people come into our messy living room, would it?") is very much different from the explanation given in Situation 4 ("Because it’s really late and I’m afraid to go home alone"). Each of these Situations differ with regards to power and dominance; in Situation 1, where the Situation depicts a messy kitchen/living room, the speaker, even though he/she has equal status with hearer, is still considered as having a high level of power compared to the hearer and this is because the perpetrator for the mess is the hearer and not the speaker. Hence, the speaker having to notice that fact, decided that she/he has the right to be indignant towards the hearer. The explanation to her/his request was made in order to place a sense of guilt on the hearer, resulting in the hearer feeling obligated to comply and clean the mess because he/she is at fault. In addition to that, the hearer also felt compelled to save the speaker’s face because if there were any visitors he/she would not want the speaker to be accused of being part of the mess he/she created. The other Situation (Situation 4) where the speaker had to request for a ride home has a different form of explanation which is not similar to the Situation discussed before this. The objective of this form of explanation is to ensure that the hearer felt some form of sympathy towards the speaker, hence he/she felt obligated to help because he/she would not want anything that could harm the speaker to happen. This particular requestive behaviour may also be related to Grice’s (1989) notion of implicature, where the locution uttered by the speaker might establish some doubt on the hearer and thus, started to question his/her behaviour. Eventually, having the “seed of doubt” planted in the hearer’s mind, the speaker can expect the hearer to react according to the speaker’s bidding. Haugh (2007) terms this as politeness implicature a finding that he had observed in his study on politeness in Japan. Apparently, this requestive behaviour is also visible in other settings such as evident in
my study and it has been demonstrated that this notion of politeness implicature is being recognised by second language learners as well.

Thus, it is evident that the participants vary their manner of requesting according to the Situations provided in the DCT. Although the patterns are similar, the objective for each Situations differ according to the need required by the speaker. As to the reasons behind this variation or the motivations for uttering the requests differently this will be further discussed in section 4.3, where the CIPRS model is used to further justify the cause.

4.3.1 How do they vary their request strategies?

*Speak fairly*

*(Al-Quran, 17:28)*

This section will consider the responses given by the participants from the group discussion and their responses will be based on their feedback regarding the video that they were asked to view. The data will be arranged according to the scenarios and the scripts of the models from the video will be included to ensure that the comparisons made are easier to understand.

4.3.1.1 SITUATION 1 – CLEAN UP KITCHEN

The script taken from the video is as below.

```
Hi Alan! Did you have a good night last night? I’m having some friends over
```
tonight, so it will be really great if you tidy up. I’ll help you if you need me too.

The response given by the native speaker above was not seen as very satisfactory by the participants. The participants were quite adamant that they would not phrase their request in a similar way. Some of the comments made by the participants are listed below.

**EXTRACT 4**

*mmm..I think it’s fine..I wouldn’t say it’s totally polite…but I would say...hmm...he is being considerate...* (B.2)

**EXTRACT 5**

*How you develop you own perception and thoughts...because I believe that um...in my situation...I believe that um...ah...I prefer people to be polite with me so I need to be polite with people like others.* (H.2)

B.2 does not consider the script to be very polite and her opinion is supported by H.2. However, H.2 consented that there might be some form of agreement among the people who belong to a certain circle because she says that “*How you develop you own perception and thoughts...*” in a way determines how you say things and that includes when making requests as well. In her opinion, how she was brought up or her background dictates that she must be polite because she expects others to be polite to her too. Scollon et al. (2012) believe that the choice of language in discourse is not simply a matter of practical choice governed by efficiency of communication of information but it is a matter of negotiating the participants’ face wants. Hence, in relation to what has been said by H.2, any form of requests made must be reciprocal or shared in order to ensure that any form of imposition is mitigated to achieve solidarity.
G.1 has a different opinion where this video clip is concerned. She thought the speaker has given
a very polite response to the situation.

**EXTRACT 6**

*Yeah...this one impressed me most because...aar...she provide the help to the one
she request from...like a solution or something...even though it is caused by you...I
can help you resolve it...together.* (G.1)

Hence, she considered that if the speaker were to offer assistance in cleaning up the kitchen that
would be very good. It helps create a sense of togetherness and that would mitigate the level of
imposition altogether as it would seem that they are sharing the responsibility, even though both
of them were not involved in creating the mess in the first place. As she mentioned it “even
though it is caused by you...I can help you resolve it...together”.

**EXTRACT 7**

*I mean...it would be more polite for me to ...I dunno ... to offer some help but I guess
I didn’t think about it ...* (C.3)

A similar reaction was given by C.3. She thought it would be very polite to offer some help and
she thought she just did not think about it at the time when she responded to the DCT. Both of
them think that you offer some form of help which would reduce some of the pressure that is
being placed on the hearer and it would give him/her a sense camaraderie between the two
interlocutors.
Hence, there are two different reactions to the Situation above. The first two participants (B.2 and H.2) did not think the response given was very polite unlike the other two participants (G.1 and C.3). It is quite obvious they have perceived the response of the video differently and as claimed by “request is face respectability for the speaker and face usefulness for the addressee”. In other words, it is crucial for the speaker to ensure that the face of the hearer is very well taken care of by making the request as less imposing as possible and that will give the hearer the impression that to comply to the speaker’s request is actually to his/her advantage as it would elevate his/her image to the public and that would be a good thing.

4.3.1.2 SITUATION 2 – STRANGER

The script taken from the video is as below.

Excuse me, I’m sorry to be rude but you’re invading my personal space.

Some of the participants have confessed that they would not employ the same strategy that has been selected by the model in the video. Some of them admit that they wouldn’t be able to say anything as such. B.2 seems to think that she wouldn’t be able to be polite because she is unsure as to how she would actually react to such situations. Below is her reaction to the model’s response.

**EXTRACT 6**

*I would be paranoid totally insecure and everything but they were very straightforward they would confront and they would ask...I wouldn’t say politely but firmly trying to say that you shouldn’t do that because why I feel insecure but I think...I guess it would be different if I were in that situation (B.2)*
It very clear to see that B.2 was a bit unsure as to her reaction when faced with such an awkward situation such as this. She has decided that when confronted with the stranger she would probably act differently from the response provided in the video “I guess it would be different if I were in that situation”. The reason behind the reason was that she thought the response was too polite and she did not think it was very appropriate because the situation might be treacherous.

**EXTRACT 7**

*I dunno… get a taxi something to get me out of the situation but just not talking to them because if I talk to them and if I do not speak the way they want me to…hmmm… they could hurt me!* (C.3)

The response by C.3 was a rather devastating and drastic. She had obviously experienced something really upsetting for her to come up with this kind of reaction. Evidently, she did not agree with the response given by the video. There is a story behind this reaction which I will further elaborate on in subsection 4.3. This response will be analysed under the CIPRS model for the second dimension of Hofstede’s National Culture and that is Uncertainty Avoidance.

**EXTRACT 8**

*I would pretend like I was on a phone!!* (H.2)

Extract 8 was a very common response among my DCT participants, not in the exact sense but they would rather not respond or pretend to be occupied with other things and the most obvious thing that comes in handy is the mobile phone. Quite a number of my DCT respondents left this situation unanswered, however, there was one who had written this as her answer, “Speaking in a language that the man won’t understand...on the phone” which I find hilarious. She has actually taken advantage of the fact she is a foreigner, with a different L1 and used it as a means to get out of the awkward situation. This is probably the best strategy, opt out strategy (Blum-
Kulka et al. 1989) or “Don’t do the FTA” (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p.60) kind of a response. A form of implicature too, as theorised by Grice (1989), planting the seed of doubt in the hearer and in this context it would be that his/her approach is probably not welcomed by the speaker.

4.3.1.3 SITUATION 3 - LECTURE NOTES

The script taken from the video is as below.

```
Sorry to bother you. I was wondering if I could borrow your notes on the days I was sick. It would be a great help.
```

A majority of participants consider the model’s reaction to the request rather inappropriate. They consider the request as lacking in a number of aspects.

**EXTRACT 9**

*I remember, the boy…she/he just want…just ask to borrow the notes but he didn’t say why she…why he missed the class first…so...uum...I guess maybe he can state…why…the reason why he missed the class first to let her…his classmates to understand the reason and then borrow the notes…they will help.* (G.1)

G.1 thinks that the model’s response is inadequate. Her comment is defined as “being voluble” by Scollon et al. (2012) and it is also in agreement with what Grice (1957) terms as Reasoning. She thinks that to accomplish a request, the speaker needs to provide more information so that the hearer would understand and be more sympathetic towards the speaker.

**EXTRACT 10**

*…so state the reason first then other people will think about it in their mind and then to give you the answers but not ask directly at first …oh could you give a favour… without a reason.* (G.1)
She further emphasises that sufficient reasons must be supplied for the hearer to consider and not to just be direct and make the request.

The next two participants also agreed with G.1’s opinion. B.2 thinks that the model’s response was not “persuasive” nor was it able to “convince” the hearer to comply with his request.

**EXTRACT 11**

*Yeaah! It will be enough I think it should be more persuasive...should convince her enough that...um...* (B.2)

H.2 has added that maybe some form of incentive would help persuade the speaker to help. She thought if a “treat” was to be included in the request it might mitigate the imposition further and the hearer would be more cooperative in providing assistance. This is the kind of supportive sentence in a form of a promise that Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) suggest serves to persuade the hearer to do the speaker’s bidding if the speaker is willing to promise him/her a treat for lending her the notes.

**EXTRACT 12**

*Or maybe we could try like nevermind maybe we could treat you later* (H.2)

4.3.1.4 SITUATION 4 – LIFT HOME

The script taken from the video is as below.

| What time are you leaving? I was just wondering if there’s a space in your car, so I could get a lift? | 191 |
There was quite a mixed reaction to this video. Some participants seemed to think that the model’s response was not appropriate enough, whilst others seemed to think that they would rather not say anything but just manage a ride on their own, either by calling a taxi or walking home instead.

G.1 considers the response inadequate, as she thinks the model should at least include further information as to why it would be convenient for the hearer to assist her “because I live near you”.

**EXTRACT 13**

_Hmmm...yeah...uh...maybe...I think maybe she can...aar...say further...because that ah...because I live near you (G.1)_

4.3.1.5 SITUATION 5 – INFORMATION

The script taken from the video is as below.

```
Hello I saw an advertisement in the newspaper and I’m looking to find more information about it. Do you know who I should speak to, please?
```

Most participants consider the response made by the model as agreeable. If they were in the same situation they would probably react the same way. G.1 apparently is quite impressed with the response. She is particularly fascinated by the question “*Do you know who can I speak to?*” According to her, “*it is a very smart way...*” because the person in the line may not be the one to have the answers or the right person to talk to, consequently asking for the right person in the beginning would be “*a very clever way*”, to minimise the speaker’s anticipation.
EXTRACT 14

I like the last sentence... he says... Do you know who can I speak to? ... I think it is a very smart way... Very clever way. (G.1)

EXTRACT 15

I normally do that... uuum... trying to get some information about some company I will probably start like that... (B.2)

B.2’s response was very much similar as the rest of the participants whereby they did not have anything to contradict where this Situation is concerned. Hence, they have agreed that this would be the best manner and quite a common way to utter requests pertaining to seeking information over the phone and the right choice of request strategy as well.

4.3.1.6 SITUATION 6 – TRAFFIC WARDEN

The script taken from the video is as below.

| Excuse me but parking is not permitted here. If you leave your car here I will need to give you a ticket. |

The responses prompted by this video are rather intriguing. Most participants agree that they have never encountered this kind of a response back in their own countries and they consider this as a novelty.

EXTRACT 16

I think the traffic warden is really nice...... yeah... I never encounter any police traffic... being that polite! (B.2)

J.5 and F.5 reveal that in their countries, traffic wardens are very conscious of their status and that they are the law so they must be obeyed. They would never utter such request in that manner instead they would make it as a directive and possible be quite harsh in uttering it too.
Nevertheless, the manner as to how this request is uttered may also depend very much on who the hearer may be. If the car belongs to an official government officer or someone with a high status, the traffic wardens may utter their request differently. Hence, the request may differ according to class or status.

**EXTRACT 17**

*It depends on...um...how it is treated in your country...coz...um usually in my country ah...if someone did something wrong and they would [be] saying it directly like Eh! No parking here!...we won’t say it politely.* (J.5)

**EXTRACT 18**

*The same thing happen in Malaysia as well!!* (F.5)

H.2 and B.2 experienced a similar situation in Rome. They were under the impression that all traffic wardens, in some countries, are very strict and harsh. Their impression is evident from the expressions that they have used when describing the scene. Some expressions highlighted from their excerpts *are not nice enough* and *intonation is not that friendly* indicate that they do not approve of such actions.

**EXTRACT 19**

*...I think... Malaysia and the other parts of the world...we encounter this kind of situation in Rome* (H.2)

**EXTRACT 20**

*...that is not nice enough...because he said that “no...no parking here...solo passe...solo passe (Roman language)”* (H.2)

**EXTRACT 21**

*We were searching for parking but then...eer one policeman came to us and said...I think with the...umm the intonation is not that friendly* (H.2)
It is without a doubt that certain cultures react differently to the scenario illustrated above. Nevertheless, it would be good to note that there are other factors that may contribute as to how people react to the SITUATION. Among other factors that may result in a different response could be the different social status of the person concerned in a certain society. For instance, a traffic warden might be a bit more courteous to a VIP’s vehicle; he/she may not want to hand over a ticket if he/she knew the owner of the vehicle is someone of importance, i.e. a minister or someone with a high status.

4.3.1.7 SITUATION 7 – PAPER EXTENSION

The script taken from the video is as below.

I’m so, so sorry but I haven’t managed to do it to a point that I felt it’s appropriate yet. I could hand it in but it won’t be a true reflection of my ability. Please let me know if there’s any chance I could get an extension.

The manner of requesting uttered by the model has given yet another interesting observation. Some of the participants misconstrued the model’s response as being threatening to the lecturer. H.2 said “Somehow I feel like it’s like... she’s threatening the lecturer!” Others would rather not say anything but to try and burn the midnight oil and finish the assignment and some like G.1 thinks the student (the speaker) should state the reasons why the requestee could not complete the task on time.

EXTRACT 22

*If I were the tutor...I would...I want some more to...to know the situation more and in this case maybe I can help her? To tackle her problems* (G.1)
4.3.1.8 SITUATION 8 – EARLY PRESENTATION

The script taken from the video is as below.

How are you getting on with your presentation? If you’re able, I really think it would work better this week but only if you feel comfortable it would give you enough time.

Some participants were in favour of this response while others thought that further elaboration should be considered. H.2 considered adding incentives, *maybe I will give you 0.5... points*, *extra*, would help reduce the weight of imposition of such request.

**EXTRACT 23**

Yeah...maybe I will give you 0.5 extra. That’s what I meant by incentive sooo...depends on the effort that they want to give. (H.2)

C.3 considers the request made by the model acceptable because to her it would be like a “pressure” that would challenge the students (the hearer) to perform as expected.

**EXTRACT 24**

...maybe she or he would do it better because it’s under pressure that can happen I mean... and I’m asking her in a challenging way...would you be able to do that? (C.3)

4.3.1.9 SITUATION 9 – TENNIS

The script taken from the video is as below.

Sorry to bother you, kids but I’ve thrown my ball over your fence. Do you think you could chuck it back please?

Most participants agree to the model’s response to this request. However, C.3 had a different approach. She phrased her request in a manner that was very provocative, polite but challenging
at the same. The reaction that she would be hoping to achieve is to get the children on the other side of the fence to accept her challenge and throw the ball back to her.

**EXTRACT 25**

In my country, children are really mean and really [dis]obedient...if they have a ball in their court, they will get the ball home...it’s theirs. Because they’re always playing and if their ball gets into the neighbour’s yard and they’d lost it. They will never give it back! It’s mine, it’s in my yard why should I give it back. So if that situation happened to me I will kinda challenge them to get it over the fence (C.3)

4.23.1.10 SITUATION 10 – McDONALDS

The script taken from the video is as below.

Andy, could you grab me a drink as well? Here’s some change, tell me if it’s not enough.

The participants agreed that the response made by the model was either not polite enough or they might not even make such requests. H.2 thinks that he should at least add some lexical markers such as please and ended it with a thank you. It would probably make the request less threatening.

**EXTRACT 26**

If he add please maybe it will be more polite? Maybe if he ended it with a thank you (H.2)

B.2 considers making such request as inconceivable because she worries that the task may not be realised according to her expectation. Below is her confession.

**EXTRACT 27**

I think what normally what we do is we go and buy...Because I would worry that the drink would fall and she would keep the change and she wouldn’t count right all sort of negative thoughts (B.2)
4.3.1.11 SITUATION 11 – CHANGE FOR METER

The script taken from the video is as below.

Sorry, I’m having a nightmare! I’ve got a job interview in a few minutes and I’ve had a morning from hell! Errr…do you have change for a 5 pound note, please?

The observation made by the participants for this response is quite intriguing. B.2 admits that she would dismiss the first part of explaining and would go straight away to the begging part, as she has, charmingly, phrased it. Scollon et al. (2012) terms this notion as “exaggerate”, that is to utter the request in a manner that involves the hearer and the speaker must play on the hearer’s sympathy. Once the speaker gains the hearer’s sympathy, then the request made would surely be granted.

EXTRACT 28

…and it’s quite different from how... I would respond to the situation. I would like... I would like go straightforward to the begging part (B.2)

4.3.1.12 SITUATION 12 – SMOKE ON TRAIN

The script taken from the video is as below.

Grandad, I’ve seen some signs that say you can’t smoke on here. You’d better put it out.

This video was found to be quite scandalous to some of my participants. Most of them admit that they would not dare to utter their request in a similar manner as to how the model has phrased his. B.2 reveals a rather alarmed expression and her comment is as follows.

EXTRACT 29
If I have a grandfather...I wouldn’t say anything like that! ...so it’s better to not cause any trouble now...I wouldn’t say so straightforward to him! (B.2)

B.2 is not the only one who shares the same concern. W.3 agrees by confessing that she would only say that smoking is harmful for your health and would rather highlight the health of her grandfather rather than ask him to put it out as uttered by the model in the video.

**EXTRACT 30**

I just write that smoking is harmful for your health and the ...To highlight the health for my grandfather (W.3)

Most of the participants are in agreement that to utter such request in the same manner as the model would is of great disrespect. C.3 deems talking to a grandfather directly as “spoilt!” and she doesn’t approve of it. H.2 would react to it by adding some options such as “maybe you can smoke somewhere else” just to minimise the level of imposition and at the same time, trying to show some form of respect that the uttered request is not a proper reprimand.

**EXTRACT 31**

...you’re not allowed to smoke here but maybe you can smoke somewhere else. (H.2)

In conclusion, it can be deduced that the choice of strategy used by the model and my participants may be similar as most of them agree that the best choice of request strategy to use in most of the situations provided by the DCT would have to be the indirect strategy, particularly the Conventionally Indirect and Non-Conventionally Indirect strategies. Nevertheless, the manner as to how they utter their requests greatly differs. A majority of my participants do not agree with how the models react to each of the situations, although it is safe to say that they do not disapprove of all of the responses, just about 80 percent of them. Their justifications for
having to disagree with the responses have been put together and the themes that emerge from these discussions will be further explained in the next sub-section which is 4.2.2.

4.3.2 Why are they different?

*Speak justice*

*A-L-Quran, 6:152*

This section will give a further elaboration as to why the participants choose to phrase their requests differently compared to the models’ responses from the video. A few themes emerged from the discussion and each theme will be discussed in separate sections. I feel that it is important to highlight that these are themes that have inspired me to create the model that I have formulated to discuss the third research question which is *How do the aspects of social distance (SD), power and dominance (D), gender and status, influence these request strategies?* The themes that I have put together for this section is very much taken from the participants themselves and I have translated these themes into the three integrated theories in the model later in the chapter. This model seems like a good system that could be used as a teaching instrument that I plan to implement as part of my faculty’s curriculum, as it would greatly help second language learners master the art of request making in a global setting.

4.3.2.1 Culture and background

In this sub-section, culture and background are taken into account as the first justification given by the participants of my study to explain the differences in making requests between the participants and the responses that they have viewed from the video. As mentioned in the above
discussion, most of the participants did not find the responses from the video as appropriate and it should be clarified that the scripts for the video were taken from the pilot study where the respondents are native speakers.

Hofstede (2005) defines culture as something that is always a collective phenomenon which is at least partly shared with people who live or have lived within the same social environment, which is where it was learned. Thus, it is understandable that the observations that have been made by the participants are considered sound observations. Culture does play a very important role in determining how one reacts in one’s daily interactions, which influence what one would say and how one would phrase one’s request too.

One of the participants, V.5, has reflected that native speakers are considered to be “more direct compared to our Asian people”. This comment is made in reference to Situation 2, a scenario that involves two strangers where a request made by the speaker was to be left alone. She admits that if put in that situation she wouldn’t have the time to say anything but to just flee. In Situation 6, which involves a traffic warden and a driver, she seems to think that the traffic warden was very nice. Hence, she comes to a conclusion that there is a culture difference that influences how one chooses to express one’s request. F.5 shares the same opinion where her country is concerned. She has observed that traffic wardens in her own country (Situation 6) can be a bit harsh as they are very much aware of having an upper hand where the law is concerned.

EXTRACT 32
...but I think native speaker both male and female they are ...they are all direct more direct compared to our Asian people...(V.5)

EXTRACT 33
...they are really nice...everybody speaks like that...even strangers...because I think this is the culture difference...(V.5)
H.2 also expresses the same idea. She believes that in some situations (like Situation 4: asking for a ride home) there are “culture differences as well as religion” that restricts her from asking other people to give them a ride home unlike the locals who are more open to ask because they are not confined to any forms of restrictions.

**EXTRACT 34**
*I think because the culture differences as well as religion maybe prohibit something…* (H.2)

Different culture practices are also visible in Situation 12 (asking grandfather to stop smoking in train). Some of the participants are quite shocked with the response given by the model in the video. B.2 is adamant that what is portrayed by the video is not how she was brought up to speak. Being respectful is very important to her and that* respect* is part of* culture.*

**EXTRACT 35**
*That’s being respect…I’ve been taught that is respect
Yeah I think it’s culture yaa haaa?* (B.2)

Similarly, D.5 and J.5 are in agreement with B.2. They both acknowledge the fact that* elder people*, especially a grandfather or any elderly relative you are related to should not be embarrassed in public and in such a Situation they would rather remain silent. This is very much related to Hofstede’s* Long Term and Short Term Orientation* dimension which has something to do with the notion of respect for tradition and there will be further elaboration of this point done in section 4.* Long term and Short term Orientation.*

**EXTRACT 36**
*I won’t speak in that way to my grandpa because that way kind of make him feel embarrass[ed]...because he is elder people* (D.5)
EXTRACT 37
...it depends on your relationship with your grandpa. If he is in high position you can’t really critique...so for me I would just say nothing! (J.5)

In Situation 7, where a student requests an extension for an assignment due, B.2 stresses that in her experience only a native speaker would phrase a request like the one given by the model in the video but not a person from her own country. H.2 agrees that culture difference is the reason why such utterance differs. This notion is very much relevant to the Power Distance dimension formulated by Hofstede (2001) which considers the power or sense of authority and the manner of which it is treated in different cultures. I will further elaborate on this point in section 4.3.1

The CIPRS : Power Distance.

The following extracts consider how the manner of how one reacts to a request also depends on their background. According to my participants, some of the scenarios presented by the DCT could be life threatening or could pose some problems if they were to react to them.

EXTRACT 38
You see that’s what she’s actually saying...this is what I’ve done and it’s done in a rush so ... I haven’t actually put in my best...to it. So...give me an extension and I promised you it would be better (B.2)

EXTRACT 39
Hm...but that’s part of something different from our culture… (H.2)

B.2 claims that in her country she is brought up to be very cautious of strangers. She further elaborates that people in her country do not merely approach a stranger and ask for assistance. They might just be kidnapped or robbed or worse murdered.
H.2 worries that if she asks a stranger for help the person might be serial killer! She claims that she would rather avoid asking favours from strangers and would rather find her own solutions. B.2 also confesses that women in her country, especially if they are young, generally are “paranoid” and they have a very good reason to be due to the high crime rates of rape and murder that have been largely reported in that country.

A similar scenario happened to C.3. She comes from a background where talking to a stranger or where stranger approaches a young woman means there is a high probability that he intends to rob her.

She would normally avoid contact with this person and would run into the nearest shop to get help. I find this response of C.3 very much related to Hofstede’s Uncertainty Avoidance’s dimension and this will be further examined as I do find this very insightful and it would be a very good advice to adhere to when visiting some countries which might have similar background as C.3’s hometown.

This theme, culture and background, as I have mentioned earlier in this sub section may appear to be a little bit vague and much too general but I hope to give a clearer elaboration of this theme
through the model that I have formulated later in this chapter. I have translated this theme into a number separate categories that will be linked directly to Hofstede’s *National Culture* dimensions and this theme will cover a few dimensions such as *Long term and Short term Orientation*, the *Uncertainty Avoidance* and *Power Distance*. It is hoped that by exploring this theme through the dimensions would give a better perspective in understanding the requests uttered and the strategies chosen by the second language learners.

4.3.2.2 Volubility

The second factor that is identified in this study is that the participants have the tendency to be voluble. Scollon et al. (2012) define this as a linguistic strategy of involvement where according to psychological studies of conversation exchange and formal interviews, being voluble is perceived to be “*warm*” or “*affiliative*”.

The participants are in agreement that when making requests, it is essential for the requester to give as much explanation to the requestee as possible to ensure that the requestee understands the need or the urgency of the request made by the requester and eventually would offer or agree to assist the requester.

**EXTRACT 43**

*...if for me I will describe or explain...a long time then get to the point (X.5)*

**EXTRACT 44**

*...if I want to ask somebody to help me...we will explain a lot...we may explain first what my reason is and then is it convenient for you to...and then ask for help. We will not say...directly... (V.5)*

X.5, V.5 and G.1 are among the participants who feel very strongly about being voluble. They consider this as an approach that can create some form of connection between the
speaker/requester and the hearer/requestee. Scollon et al (2012) describe this as the sharing of a symbolic system that is to some degree an expression of involvement and that being able to elicit sympathy from the requestee would guarantee cooperation and the requester might just have her wish conceded. In other words, all three participants have an agreement that if they were to comply with a request they would need some form of explanation and reasons as to why the request was made. As stated by V.5 “…if I want to ask somebody to help me...we will explain a lot…”, she seemed to consider a lot of explanation would create some form of sympathy from the hearer and he/she would not feel the weight of imposition the request might carry.

This theme is also very much like flouting Grice’s (1989) Maxim of Quantity which is referred to the amount of information an interlocutor has to provide to clarify his intention and it should not be more than is needed. This will be further elaborated in 4.# that will demonstrate how this theme is discussed via the model.

4.2.2.3 Linguistic ability

As a second language speaker, it is undoubtedly, quite challenging to be able to interact with great fluency in another language that is not the native language or the L1. Interruption of L1 is always a concern among second language speakers. According to Woodfield (2012), they encountered linguistic difficulties, which included L1/L2 translation, selection of appropriate vocabulary items, and access to only limited pragmalinguistic resources. The tendency of translating the L1 to L2 (second language) is quite a common phenomenon for L2 speakers. Thus, it should not be a surprise that linguistic ability is considered as one of the factors that
contributes to the reason why the participants made their choices and how they articulate their requests.

In some aspects, second language speakers, with a considerable high level of fluency in the English language, are aware of some forms of linguistic markers such as lexical modifiers (‘please’, ‘openers’, ‘softeners’ and other lexical modifiers), modals (‘could’, ‘would’, ‘should’ and etc.), syntactic modifiers (conditional structures, tense and other aspects) and the use IFIDs (‘sorry’ or ‘excuse me’) in requesting.

**EXTRACT 45**

...different expression...because you’d notice that...in here...people will begin...ah...by using excuse me or please actually we talk...even with your friends...not say please or excuse me something like that or I’m sorry something like that...(V.5)

V.5 acknowledged the differences between the local (native speakers) manners of requesting is slightly different compared to second language speakers. She highlighted the fact the locals are very comfortable with the use of lexical modifiers, such as please and IFIDs such as excuse me and I’m sorry with close friends or among families, as an indicator of being polite. This is not something, she admitted, that she would use when speaking to her own friends and families. G.1 agreed with this notion too. She considered the use of lexical modifiers or IFIDs as too polite and that they would think of her using them in her requests as being too formal and this might be a bit awkward for both speaker and hearer.

**EXTRACT 46**

Oooh...I think it depends...if that person is your family members that you are very familiar with uum...maybe...your request sentences can be more brief not use very official very formal words. In this way...it may...cause your family member to be uncomfortable... ’why are you behave so formally today??’(G.1)

In Extract 42, G.1 recognized the use of modals in requesting. She further elaborated that the use “could you...” or “do you mind...” would signify that the speaker is trying to be polite. A
speaker should be able to carefully choose their words when uttering requests. The examples of use of modal given by G.1 indicates that she is aware of the use of syntactic downgraders as a tool to mitigate the level of imposition in making requests. Economidou-Kogetsidis (2009) has stated that second language learners have the tendency to use more syntactic downgraders for this very reason and that is to mitigate the level of imposition of the request on the hearer.

**EXTRACT 47**

...yaa from this situation I feel that...if...if...if you want to be polite...firstly, you have to...aar...you have to let others know that you are in a difficult situation and you really need the help from others so you need to state your situation very clearly...and then...aar...be careful with your choice of words like could you...mind or do you mind...?, could you...aa...please...? the words like these...aar...excuse me...sorry... (G.1)

B.2 seemed to think that starting a request with I’m sorry is admirable as it indicated that the speaker is not ashamed to admit that he had made a mistake. She further added that adding the word please is an indication that the speaker does acknowledge that when asking for assistance, he or she must be polite. In this context, “I’m sorry” does not mean to apologize but merely a form of getting attention. It is also categorize as an IFID that is used in making requests.

**EXTRACT 48**

He use the...he started off with I’m sorry... because I’m sorry there is like admitting that it was his fault and saying please is like ... um...um...being politely asking ... (B.2)

One of the possible reason that could provoke this tendency to overuse supportive sentences in their requests could probably be because of the pragmalinguistic transfer (Blum-Kulka et al. 1989) which was originally defined as “pragmatic failure” (p.11) but later on explained as second language learners overgeneralising, simplifying or reducing the sociopragmatic or
pragmalinguistic interlanguage knowledge that they have brought along with them from their own language and culture. This is also agreed by Thomas (1983) and Gass and Selinker (2001). They have reiterated that the second language learners are very much dependent on their own L1 behaviour and culture practices. Ibrahim Fathi Huwari (2015) rationalised that this act of transfer can be caused by how each speech act is perceived in their own cultural background. This is evident in his own study of examining refusal strategies used by Jordanian EFL learners. He concluded that the participants of his study scored quite low when considering their right to refuse any form of acts that is presented to them and this is very much related to their culture and values. However, this is not clearly elaborated in the article and it would be very interesting to know the specific culture or values that invoke such responses from his participants.

Another linguistic aspect that is found apparent in this study is the use of phatic utterance. Phatic utterance is defined by Crystal (cf. Coupland and Coupland, 1992) as an exchange of utterances that functions as a form of interaction to create an atmosphere or maintaining social contact. It may not mean anything in particular but merely be a form of pleasantries that initiates conversation. Some researchers namely O’Dell and Broadhead (2008) and Dellar and Walkley (2012), define phatic communion within the category of “small talk” which indicates that whatever that is uttered for no particular reason.

Table 4.6 Extracts taken from the DCT to show some phatic communions used in requesting.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SITUATIONS</th>
<th>EXAMPLES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 2</td>
<td>It’s really nice to talk to you…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stranger</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 3</td>
<td>June, did you go to the lecture today?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecture Notes</td>
<td>Hey June, how was the class?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 3</td>
<td>Hey, how's the day?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ride Home</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 7</td>
<td>You work [really] hard in your PPT...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paper Extension</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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A list of phatic communion used by the participants in making their requests can be seen in Table 4.4. Cruz (2013), discovered that students use phatic communication as “ice breakers” that help them to initiate and end conversations. Extract 44 below, illustrated this function. The participant’s response to the stranger by uttering “It’s really nice to talk to you...” wasn’t even truthful but was said to stop the hearer from talking to her. In this situation, the use of phatic communication was not so much on initiating a conversation but to end it altogether as the participant found it rather unnerving for a stranger to start talking to her but she didn’t want to upset the hearer by asking him to stop talking to her.

**EXTRACT 49**

*It’s really nice to talk to you…*(Table 4.5 DCT: Situation 2)

Laver (1981) states that another function of phatic communication is to instigate or to act as an opening to a dialogue or conversation between two interlocutors. Some of the participants used this form of phatic communication to initiate a request that might help the speaker to obtain the right kind of reaction from the hearer.

**EXTRACT 50**

*Hey June, how was the class? …*(Table 4.5 DCT: Situation 3)

The participant began the request with the enquiry “…how was the class?”, to give the hearer time to process where the conversation was directed to. The phatic talk used here helped the speaker to proceed with her request with the knowledge that the hearer would know what she was referring to, thus, making easier for the hearer to comply with her request.
Extract 48 considers another form of phatic communication that is used to initiate a request. The situation entails a speaker who has to make a request for the hearer to do her presentation earlier than the actual date. This form of phatic utterance is used to mitigate the level of threat that might be visible in the request that the speaker would impose on the hearer. The participant used this form of phatic utterance to assuage the level of intimidation the request posed upon the hearer as a form of acknowledgment that the hearer had put in a lot of effort on the “PPT”, hence posing the request as a reward instead of as a punishment. Laver (cf. Cruz, 2013) categorised this as a speculative predictive mechanism, specifying how speakers are able to stake claims about solidarity/intimacy and status relationships through particular encoding choices within phatic talk which is recognised by Brown and Levinson (1987) in their politeness model as a local demonstration of person-respecting and relational management. In other words, phatic talk or small talk is a means of redressing the FTA (Face Threatening Act) by starting a conversation particularly about anything apart from the request itself. This motion signifies that the speaker is trying to create a friendly atmosphere that both speaker and hearer are familiar with or are interested in, hence create a sense of harmony and solidarity that would eventually soften the imposition of the request that would follow after the small talk. At the same it also represents a sense of respect that the speaker is not solely seeking the hearer’s attention for the sake of the request but for the sake of the hearer’s presence and also maintaining harmony in the relationship between the two interlocutors. Thus, phatic talk or small talk is considered very crucial in ensuring solidarity between the speaker and the hearer.
EXTRACT 52
*You know dear brother, I am so tired because I have a hard day...* (Table 4.5 DCT: Situation 10)

In the extract referred above, the situation requires the speaker to request the hearer (brother) to buy them some drinks. The speaker initiated the request by informing the brother the state of his condition and how “hard” his day had been. Cruz (2013) categorises this as an exploratory type of phatic talk. The participant used this phatic utterance to convey indexical information that can only be understood if the two interlocutors were familiar with each other enough to know what the other was up to prior to the conversation. It can also be interpreted that the speaker used this form of phatic talk to gain sympathy from the hearer and eventually would go ahead and buy the drinks as act of attentiveness.

Table 4.7 Extracts taken from the DCT to show some phatic tokens used in requesting.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SITUATION</th>
<th>PHATIC TOKEN</th>
<th>EXCERPTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 1</td>
<td>‘Hi’</td>
<td>Hi Alan could you please clear up the mess? My friends are coming over and if you need help. I would help you with cleaning up as well.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dining/living</td>
<td>‘Hello’</td>
<td>Hello Alan! You know I am having some friends over tonight. Could you please clear up the...room?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>room</td>
<td>‘Hey’</td>
<td>Hey June, how are you? Could you please lend me your note to me? I was sick and missed last session</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 3</td>
<td>‘Hi’</td>
<td>Hi June, may I borrow you notes for the previous class please?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecture notes</td>
<td>‘Hello’</td>
<td>Hello guys. I am sorry to ask, but if you are going back home, would it be too much trouble to give me a lift? I can pay for part for gas, of course!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lift home</td>
<td>‘Hi’</td>
<td>Hi, can you give me a ride?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION</td>
<td>Scenario</td>
<td>First Utterance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Job advertisement</td>
<td>‘Hello’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘Hi’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>No parking</td>
<td>‘Hi’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Paper extension</td>
<td>‘Hi’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Paper presentation</td>
<td>‘Hi’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Tennis ball</td>
<td>‘Hello’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘Hi’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Drinks</td>
<td>‘Hi’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘Hey’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Parking meter</td>
<td>‘Hi’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘Hi’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.7 contains extracts that are taken from the DCT to indicate some use of phatic tokens used in requesting by the participants of this study.
Phatic tokens (Table 4.7) such as “hi”s, “hello”s and “hey”s with names were also used as greeting exchanges by participants in this study prior to their respective requests. Even though the greeting exchange may not convey any particular meaning, it held some form of commitment between the two interlocutors that signals openness, seriousness and truth (Cruz, 2013). It can be deduced that participants who had used phatic communion were second language speakers who were aware that by employing this in their requests they had shown that they were very much in favour of maintaining harmony and thoughtfulness at openings because of the working consensus it creates thanks to its functions (Laver 1975).

It is fascinating to note that the participants who are second language speakers were very much acquainted with the use of phatic communion in making their requests. Apart from the use of the conventionally indirect strategy in requesting they included phatic communion as small talk that functions as grease to lubricate the beginnings of requests which eventually further mitigate the threat of the request made by the speaker.

### 4.3.2.4 Language advantage (native speakers)

Another factor that seems to affect the choice of request and how the participants phrase them is what the participants’ term as the language advantage. The consideration made of this particular factor could arise from the fact that when a second language speaker is being thrown into an environment that forces them to resort to the native language spoken in that environment what he/she lacks is confidence in speaking as seen done by the locals. The language transfer may not be as smooth as he/she thinks it would be despite the fact that they are quite fluent in speaking the locals’ language. G.1’s solution to such a predicament, “language difficulties”, as she
phrased it, is by using “our [facial] expression”. She believed that facial expression is a universal form of non-verbal communication. Thus, it can be used as another strategy when conveying requests. However this may not be able to be further investigated to understand this strategy as this study only focuses on the sociopragmatic aspect of request making.

**EXTRACT 53**

*I think of our non English... native English Speakers when we come across such situations, the most difficulty for us is as a non English native speaker. Yes because the difficulty is that we...um...we do not know how to say some very powerful and effective to stop such situation. We want to pr...protect ourselves...but aah...we have the language difficulties...um...so in this case we...um the only way we can do this is to show through our [facial] expressions...* (G.1)

4.4 How do the aspects of social distance (SD), power and dominance (D) and, status, influence the request strategies? (gender)

*Speak not in vain*

* (Al-Quran, 23:3)

This section will discuss the third Research Question which considers the aspects of social distance (SD), power and dominance (D) and status influencing the choice of request strategies the participants use in each of the situations. In this study, I have been able to identify certain dimensions of Hofstede’s *National Culture* that I see visible and very much realised by my participants. Hence, the findings will be arranged according to a model that I have constructed based on the data to further clarify how national culture works in the performance of requests in a multicultural setting of an institution of higher education.
The data for this research question has reflected the supposed reality that participants go through a certain process in their mind before uttering requests for each situation. They abide to a certain set of order that is somehow influenced by factors such as their background, culture, gender and their linguistic ability. Blum Kulka (cited in Van Dijk, 2011) stated that intra-cultural ability, or situational variability is another aspect that implicates systematic differences in the realisation patterns of speech acts, depending upon the social constraints embedded in the situation. In particular, the situation variability considers the factors that are involved in requesting behaviour and the factors involved are the “speakers’ perceptions of expectants rights, obligations, the likelihood of compliance to the request and the degree of difficulty in realizing a particular request” (Blum-Kulka et al. 1989, p.25). Having all these to consider, there is a high probability that some form of a system must exist in the minds of the interlocutors before they are able to utter the most appropriate request to their counterparts. The attempt that I wish to make is to
consider and verbalise the system that seems to be present in the mind of requestees and that acts as checklist that enables the requestees to come up with the best option before uttering any form of request. Hence the birth of the Cooperative Intercultural Pragmatics of Request Strategies Model (CIPRS) which is formulated based on my interpretation of the findings that I have retrieved from my data.

The discussion of this section will be arranged in separate sub-sections that will portray each national culture dimension followed by Grice’s Maxim and Blum-Kulka’s request strategies. The choice of request used by the participants will be explained in detail and extracts of responses made by the participants pertaining to the choice will be presented in each of the sections.
4.4.1 POWER DISTANCE

The analysis and discussion of the data in this section will be based on power distance, a term introduced by Hofstede (2001) who believed that power exists in all cultures. Power distance is the first dimension identified by Hofstede in his longitudinal study that he conducted with the IBM company. Power plays a very important role in a society and thus the need to be able to address it properly heightens the demand for the speaker to understand and put a lot of effort into ensuring that the hearer’s negative face is placated. This would measure how politeness is achieved and at the same time getting his/her request granted. The sequence of this discussion is indicated in the figure above (Figure 4.2) and as can be seen the model is created in order that it depicts processes that are related to one another. It was discovered in the data that when uttering requests the participants observed this model but did not necessary comply with the order shown.
Hofstede (2001) defines power distance as inequality which is handled differently by society. It is associated with areas such as prestige, wealth and power; different societies put different weights on status consistency within these areas. He discovered this dimension in his study conducted in IBM involving a large database of employee value scores collected between 1967 and 1973. The data covered more than 70 countries, from which Hofstede first used the 40 countries with the largest groups of respondents and afterwards extended the analysis to 50 countries and 3 regions. Subsequent studies validating the earlier results included such
respondent groups as commercial airline pilots and students in 23 countries, civil service managers in 14 counties, 'up-market' consumers in 15 countries and 'elites' in 19 countries.

His findings are significant to the area of cross cultural studies to help in establishing an understanding of cultural differences. “The principle of surviving in a multicultural world is that one does not think, feel and act in the same way in order to agree on practical issues and to cooperate” (p.237)

The concept of power distance in Hofstede’s study originated from Mulder (1977) who defines it separately as power and power distance. Power is defined as the potential to determine or direct (to a certain extent) the behaviour of another person or other persons more so than the other way around (p.90) and power distance is defined as the degree of inequality in power between a less powerful Individual (I) and a more powerful Other (O), in which I and O belong to the same (loosely or tightly knit) social system (p.90). Hofstede borrowed the definition and revised it according to the purpose of his study and coined it as the following.

The power distance between a boss B and a subordinate S in a hierarchy is the difference between the extent to which B can determine the behaviour of S and the extent to which S can determine the behaviour of B. (p.83)

In his study, Hofstede (2001) discovered that power distance emerged as a defence mechanism that protects S from B’s displeasure. Thus, S’s submissive behaviour is considered as natural to avoid conflict.
Hofstede’s power distance dimension, in my study, is associated with Blum Kulka’s (1989) social distance and dominance aspect of identifying politeness in her CCSARP research. I find the two terms similar as they both seem to be considering reputation and power. Blum-Kulka (cf. in Van Dijk, 2011) concedes that when identifying the position of power between interlocutors, politeness is used to construct and acknowledge social roles and relationships that enable both interlocutors to negotiate and minimize imposition.

Blum-Kulka uses the following example to demonstrate an analysis of politeness phenomena that reflects variations of politeness strategy chosen by interlocutors when observing power.

Two girls, Racheli (4 and 7 months) and Naomi (5 and 10 months), are dressed up as queens for the celebration of the Jewish holiday of Purim in the kindergarten. One of them is wearing a crown she has brought from home.

Racheli : This? It’s mine. ((Probably in response to Naomi touching her crown))
Naomi : Ye::s?= 
Racheli : =it’s mine 
Naomi : >it’s but is it possible to wear ((it))? < Yes?
Racheli : Only to try if it’s your size 
Naomi : Yes, Then if it’s my size is it possible to wear it a bit? 
Racheli : Yes,((Racheli hands her crown over to Naomi))
Naomi : Good, it’s an excellent size for me. ((Speaking in a high pitched voice,
very pleased))

(Blum-Kulka, 2008)

The social context depicts that both girls are in awe where crowns worn for the festival are concerned. Blum terms the crown as “value good” and for which one of the girls (Naomi) yearns. The manner as to how she phrases her request of wanting to try it on shows some form of negotiation so as not to offend the girl who owns it (Racheli). Naomi recognises Racheli as the one who is in the position of a momentary power, hence she tries her best to coax Racheli by accepting the fact she (Racheli) owns the crown and requests to try it on. Racheli once comforted with the idea that Naomi understands the ownership of the crown sees no reason to deny the request.

It is interesting to note that even at this very young age the two interlocutors are already aware of what power entails. One of the participants in my study also acknowledged this phenomenon. The following is an extract taken from the data.

**EXTRACT 54**

*I remember when I was a child...I used to...straight forward right?...but my sister didn’t like it too much and they punish me! Really...because...my mom...my mom use straightforward to say me are you blind?!!*

*No, you blind!*

...so my sister give me punishment...hit me very hard and after that I oh that’s wrong being direct so I must find another way to say it out...so I have conclude I better say in another way...because I was very, very young... (H.4)
H.4 recalled his first lesson in the identification of power which happened when he was very young. The lesson was taught by his sister in a form of punishment (…*hit me very hard*) to indicate what he had said to his mother as wrong and that he should have said it differently than the words uttered by the mother. The recognition of his error came to him in his thoughts that what he has uttered is too “*direct*” and when speaking with someone of a different hierarchy in the family he would have “*better say it in another way...*”
4.4.1.1 Power Distance in the present study

In the instrument used in this study, the DCT, power distance was made evident as the situations were created to observe participants’ reactions and responses to each of them. All the 12 situations were arranged in different settings among strangers, friends and families. However, for the level of density, as to how power distance is measured, each situation is marked as high and low. Situations 1 (‘living/dining room’) and 3 (‘borrowing of notes’) are identified as situations where the social distance is low (–SD) and level of dominance between the two interlocutors is equal (x=y). In other words both interlocutors are either friends or peers where power existence is considered as less face threatening. Situations 2 (‘stranger’) and 11 (‘change for parking meter’) are determined as situations which are created with high social distance (+SD) as both situations involve strangers unknown to the speaker but with equal level of dominance which are still considered less face threatening. Situations 3 (‘asking for a ride’) and 5 (‘asking for information’) are considered as high social distance (+SD) and the speaker is less dominant than the hearer (x<y). The situations require the speaker to seek favours from the hearer. The hearer has the advantage because he or she has access to what the speaker needs and this adds weight to the power distance as this allows the hearer to deny the speaker’s request. Situations 6 (‘no parking’) and 9 (tennis ball) are situations with high social distance (+SD) and the speaker has a higher dominance level (x>y). The power distance in these situations is considered face threatening to the hearer as the speaker is seen as an individual with authority. Situations 7 (‘paper extension’) and 12 (‘smoking in train’) are situations which are low in social distance (-SD) but the speaker has a low level of dominance as both situations deal with individuals who are of higher status or authority. Hence, the request made by the speaker is considered as very
threatening to face. Situations 8 (‘early presentation’) and 10 (‘McDonalds’) are also situations that have low social distance (-SD) but with a high dominance level where the speaker is considered as the one with the authority. The request made by the speaker is non-threatening.

Table 4.7 below shows how the situations are categorised according to social distance and dominance that will be used in the analysis of this study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SITUATIONS</th>
<th>SOCIAL DISTANCE</th>
<th>DOMINANCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 and 3 Living/dining room + Notes</td>
<td>-SD</td>
<td>Speaker is equally dominant to Hearer (x=y)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 and 11 Stranger + Change for Metre</td>
<td>+SD</td>
<td>Speaker is equally dominant to Hearer (x=y)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 and 5 Ride + Information</td>
<td>+SD</td>
<td>Speaker is less dominant than the Hearer (x&lt;y)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 and 9 Traffic Warden + Tennis Ball</td>
<td>+SD</td>
<td>Speaker is more dominant than the Hearer (x&gt;y)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 and 12 Paper extension + Train</td>
<td>+SD</td>
<td>Speaker is more dominant than the Hearer (x&gt;y)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 and 10 Early Presentation + McDonald</td>
<td>-SD</td>
<td>Speaker is more dominant than the Hearer (x&gt;y)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this chapter, nine strategies have been identified and are classified into three main categories of directness depending on the extent to which the illocution is transparent from the locution; direct, conventionally indirect and non-conventionally indirect requests (refer to table below). In the category called direct, the five most direct request strategies are combined to yield a category in which the illocutionary force is indicated in the utterance by grammatical, lexical or semantic means. The two original strategies type 6 and 7 are classified under the conventionally indirect
strategy, which expresses the illocution via fixed linguistic conventions established in the speech community. Furthermore, the two types of *Hints* are considered as one strategy labelled hints, or non-conventionally indirect, which requires the addressee to compute the illocution from the interaction of the locution within its context. Weizman (1989), came up with a brilliant analogy, using Hints in making requests like “*to have one’s cake and eat it too*” (p.72). In other words, using Hints in making requests is like trying to ask somebody (hearer) to do something but at the same time the speaker does not want to be responsible for making such requests. An example that can illustrate this strategy is “It’s cold in here”, the utterance is very opaque in the sense that there is no explicit request being made but the hearer may have to interpret is one. For instance, the window may be open, hence that is the reason why the room is cold and the best manner for the hearer to react would probably be to go and close the window. However, the hearer may choose to opt out by ignoring the utterance altogether and not comply with the request. In the context, both interlocutors may need to have a mutual understanding of the condition of the utterance for the request to be successful which could either be positive (the hearer goes on and close the window) or negative (the hearer chose not comply with the request).

The formation of these three broad strategy types has also been undertaken in other studies such as Blum-Kulka et al. (1985), and Blum-Kulka and House (1989). Other recent studies, include Jalilifar, A. (2009) and Nguyễn, T. T. M., & Basturkmen, H. (2013). Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) show empirically that the grouping of request strategies into three broad categories is valid across several languages.
These levels are illustrated below in Table 4.8 according to decreasing degree of directness.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUB CATEGORIES</th>
<th>REQUEST STRATEGIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Mood derivable</td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Explicit performative</td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Hedged performative</td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Locution derivable</td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Want statement / Scope stating</td>
<td>Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Suggestory formula</td>
<td>Conventionally Indirect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Query Preparatory</td>
<td>Conventionally Indirect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Strong hint</td>
<td>Non-conventionally Indirect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Mild hint</td>
<td>Non-conventionally Indirect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this study, it was discovered that when making requests, speakers find it important to have a great need to be aware as to whom they are performing their requests to. The participants were very fastidious in choosing phrases or words depending on who the hearers were. They appeared to be very conscious of the unwritten rules that power exists even when they are asking for favours from friends or people whom they have very close relationship with.

Table 4.10 The Choice of Request Strategies Used by the Participants from the DCT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SITUATION</th>
<th>STRATEGY</th>
<th>EXCERPTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| SITUATION 1 Dining/living room | Conventionally Indirect | 1. *Hi dude! I will invite some friends tonight and have a dinner in our room. So I just wondering whether you can clear up what you have left yesterday.*  
2. *Hi Alan. The party you had last night was really excited and we all had a good time. However, the dining room is extreme messy today. My friends will come to our flat and have dinner. I hope I can make a good impression for them. Thus could you please clear up the messy dining room with me?*
| SITUATION 2 Strangers           | Non-conventionally Indirect | a. *I'm so sorry! I am quite late for my class and I’m afraid I need to go.*  
b. *Sorry I don't feel like talking today*  

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| SITUATION 3 | Lecture notes | Conventionally Indirect | 1. Do you perhaps mind if I would like to borrow your notes for couple of days? I will give it back to you as soon as possible. |
| SITUATION 4 | Lift home | Conventionally Indirect | 2. June! Would you lend me your notes. I missed the class because I was sick. If you don't mind I want to study myself with your notes. |
| SITUATION 5 | Job advertisement | Conventionally Indirect | 1. Hey you are here too! Is it convenient for you to give me a lift home? You know me we live in the same street and it is very late now. Please! |
| SITUATION 6 | No parking | Conventionally Indirect | 2. Are you guys leaving now can I join you if you enough room in the car? |
| SITUATION 7 | Paper extension | Conventionally Indirect | 1. Hi, this is Sue! I am quite interested about the job that you have advertised in the newspaper. I just want to know more details about it. Would you like to tell me more details about that. |
| SITUATION 8 | Paper presentation | Conventionally Indirect | 2. I am interested on the job you have advertised recently, but I still need some more information. Could you please send me further information on that? |

1. Hello, madam! I am sure you might not notice that this area is 'no parking' area. So would you like to move you car to the parking area? |
2. Madam it is a 'no parking' area, please do not park here |

1. Dear Mrs. Nathaniel, I am really sorry to bother you. But I did not finish the task as your demand. Could you please give me an extension to finish it, because I really want to complete it in high quantity. Thank you. |
2. Dear Mrs. Nathaniel, may I postpone the time of submitting paper later cos I haven't finished it. The paper is really not very easy for me so I think I need more time to perfect it. |

1. Annie, could you present your work a week earlier? Because it will match my class as well and students will have a better understanding |
2. Annie, would you mind present your work a week earlier? I think your work would go well with my part this week. If you're not ready, it's ok. However, I'd like you to work along with me |
The table above (Table 4.10) shows some of the examples that reflect the choice of request strategies used by the participants in response to the Situations given in the DCT.

How power distance is reflected in this study can be seen in the following extract taken from the table above. As we know, this situation requires the speaker to request the roommate to clean up the living room or dining room that they share.

**EXTRACT 55**

*Hi Alan. The party you had last night was really excited and we all had a good time. However, the dining room is extreme messy today. My friends will come to our flat and have dinner. I hope I can make a good impression for them. Thus could you please clear up the messy dining room with me? (Table 4.10: Situation 1, no.2)*
The speaker starts off with a form of greeting (Hi, Alan) and then the speaker uses compliment to prepare his or her next utterance as to how he or she had enjoyed the party (...had a good time). This, in turn, functions as a buffer or cushion to soften the impact of the next utterance that highlights the condition of the room that the party had caused (...the dining room is extreme messy...). The speaker then appeals to the hearer by informing him/her that she/he is expecting guests and that she/he might want to impress them too. This is done in hope that the hearer will somehow be sympathetic and play on his/her guilt in a way to solve the matter at hand. The speaker concludes his/her utterances with a final request for the hearer to clean the room with a suggestion that they would do it together (...with me?)

The manner as to how this request works relies very much on how the two interlocutors regard each other’s social position. Blum-Kulka (cf. Van Dijk 2011) identifies this form of request as a negative politeness strategy that requires the speaker to provide the hearer with a form of freedom from imposition by using linguistic markers of deference and appealing to the hearer’s rationality through logical explanation. The speaker in the end concludes the request by asking for cooperation when she/he suggests that they accomplish the task (of which she/he did not contribute to) together. Releasing the hearer from carrying out the task alone hence lightens the burden and thus increases his willingness to cooperate.

This example also demonstrates the negotiation of momentary power where the speakers acknowledge that he/she was not at fault where the mess is concerned (by right she/he has the power to instruct) but she/he avoids using directives (i.e: clean the mess you make!) in order to maintain solidarity. It is also interesting to note that even though this situation is labelled as low
social distance and both interlocutors are equal where none dominates the other, the speaker chose to observe power. In other words, even though, the speaker has every right to choose a direct strategy, he/she chose not to so as to maintain solidarity.

Situation 3 is another example that can be taken as an indicator of a power distance phenomenon. It demands the speaker to request a lecture note from a classmate.

**EXTRACT 56**

*Do you perhaps mind if I would like to borrow your notes for couple of days? I will give it back to you as soon as possible.* (Table 4.10: Situation 3, no.1)

The speaker acknowledges the ownership of the “value good”, as termed by Blum (cf. Van Dijk, 2011), which happens to be, in this context, the lecture notes. The use of a downtoner (*perhaps..*) to soften the request made to the hearer, indicates that the speaker recognise the hearer as the one in position of momentary power and realises that the hearer may deny his/her request. In order to further minimize the imposition, the speaker then offers a pledge to the hearer by promising to return the lecture notes back to the hearer “*as soon as possible.*”

In situation 12, power distance is observed in the request made by the speaker for the hearer to stop smoking in the train.

**EXTRACT 57**

*Grandpa, it's a non-smoking coach. See the poster there and it's really a small room with many people. Cigarette is bad for you and other as well* (Table 4.10: Situation 12, no.2)
It is noted that the speaker (a grandson/granddaughter) uses the non-conventional indirect strategy as he/she phrases the request by highlighting the condition of the context they are in. That is, passengers are not allowed to smoke in the train (…it’s a non-smoking coach). He/she then goes on to emphasise that the train coach is really crowded (…small room with many people). He/she continues with a plea for the hearer (who happens to be his/her grandfather) to consider putting the cigarette out by appealing to the condition of the hearers health as well as others (…Cigarette is bad for you and other as well). The speaker employs this strategy by giving strong hints (where the hearer would have to infer what the request is about) rather than a direct request of asking the hearer to stop smoking. The power distance in this context is recognised as what Hofstede (2001) discovered in his study to be a defence mechanism that protects the speaker from the hearer’s displeasure.

It is noted that a number of participants from this study agreed that they found the situation a bit unnerving because they considered it difficult to express such request, especially if it is made to their own grandfather. Excerpts taken from the focus group discussion will present this condition.

**EXTRACT 58**

*That’s being respect...I’ve been taught that is respect. You should not like point out one mistake in front of him or her* (B.2)

**EXTRACT 59**

*Grandpas are really stubborn, so.... Cause they are grandpas... Yeah I mean you’re old and respect, so you just cannot “hey grandpa! Just put out!” You have to give him a reason why you’re asking* (C.3)

Both B.2 and C.3 agree that when making a request to an elderly member of the family, especially a grandfather, the speaker must be very careful as to how he/she should have it
phrased as he/she would not want whatever that has been uttered to be misconstrued as being unpleasant and disrespectful. This would be further explained in the next dimension.

All these examples have demonstrated how requests are achieved in sequentially appropriate moves and in finely tuned negotiation between requester and the requestee. The final aim for these to take place is to maintain solidarity and to minimise imposition. The speaker needs to understand that in all negotiations the hearer’s negative face must be protected and thus, ensure that the speaker’s request is granted. This confirms that where power is concerned, as reiterated by both Blum-Kulka and Hofstede, in any interactions the speaker needs to identify and determine the relative power the speaker and the hearer both have in order to accomplish communication goals.

It can be deduced from the responses taken from the DCT completed by the participants, when making requests, be it with friends, acquaintances, strangers and people of a higher level of status they choose to perform it indirectly.

The choice of requests chosen by the participants is similar to what has been reiterated by Brown and Levinson (1987) and Ogiermann (2009) that since requests threaten the hearer’s negative face by restricting her or his freedom of action, in order to assure the hearer’s compliance with a request, it is necessary to formulate it in a socially and culturally appropriate way.

As part of the analysis of this study, I have also considered including Grice’s Cooperative Principle to further explain the participants’ choice of request strategies. The first maxim, the
Maxim of Quality, was one of the maxims which appeared to be taken into consideration when a participant was faced by a situation that requires the consideration of power distance.

The Maxim of Quality indicates that when interacting a speaker must make his or her contribution true. Hence, it is imperative that when one speaks one must not convey what one believes to be false or unjustified (Grice, 1957). It was discovered in this study that the participants were very careful when performing requests. They believed that before performing a request they must ensure that sufficient information is provided to lessen the probability of being rejected. As was ascertained by Grice (1957), the “…speaker must intend to produce belief at least in part by means of recognition of intention.”

One of the participants in this study, in fact adheres to Grice’s CP, as can be seen in her statement below.

**EXTRACT 60**
Yaa from this situation I feel that…if…if you want to be polite…firstly, you have to…aar…you have to let others know that you are in a difficult situation and you really need the help from others so you need to state your situation very clearly... (G:1)

G.1 considers that it is polite for a speaker to explain her condition and situation first to the hearer before making any form of request. She uses the word “difficult” and “need” to demonstrate how crucial the hearer’s assistance would be to the speaker. This would probably arise from a shared notion that people would be very sympathetic to anybody who appears to be helpless and desperate. I believe that this is something shared among the participants as some of them agree that with some additional features, for example facial expressions with added lexical modifiers such as “please”, the hearer would think twice before refusing their aid. Some excerpts taken from the focus group discussion can attest to this point.
If he add please maybe it will be more polite? Maybe if he ended it with a thank you…

In my situation I would emphasise on the word please and thank you…So when people say please or thank you I will wholeheartedly do…

And if it were my younger siblings I would do a cute act like please-- (making face)…

Gestures ya (hand waving)…

It is also interesting to note that G.1 used the word “clearly” to further decide how it would be in the hearer’s best interest to offer his or her aid. This was also reflected and agreed by the other two participants. It seemed to be an agreed impression that by using gestures, facial expression and lexical modifiers, such as “please”, in requesting help to give a clearer indicator as to how they hope to achieve their goal, the hearer would not be able to refuse their requests.

I find the findings in my study very much different from the one conducted by Chejnova (2014). Her findings, where requesting via email completed by her participants is concerned, were that her participants preferred to use the Direct strategy more compared to the Indirect strategies such as preferred by my participants. She related these findings to the Power Distance dimension as she claimed that the culture of the people in Czech Republic belongs to a culture that leans towards that dimension, hence they are more comfortable to use direct strategies compared to any other strategies.
Hence, relating back to Hofstede’s dimension of power distance, be it in whatever language an individual speaks, if one understands how to synchronise terms, expressions, facial expressions, shared notion of human behaviour and the understanding of survival, individuals would be able to interact and communicate well with the society in whatever situation.

4.4.2 Uncertainty Avoidance

This section will be discussed and arranged according to the figure above. Similar to the previous section, the requests made by the participants may not follow the order as depicted in the figure. In the study conducted by Hofstede (1966) uncertainty avoidance is one of the national culture dimensions identified as one of the most important dimensions that can be seen quite apparent in intercultural communication. The term, uncertainty avoidance, is borrowed from Cyert and March’s book *A Behavioural Theory of the Firm* (1963). In his study, Hofstede suggests that the level of stress in a society in the face of an unknown future in general is dealt with through
technology, law and religion. However, an organisation may have a different approach when dealing with such stress and that is managed by means of technology, rules and ritual.

In relation to my study, I find that the participants connect well with the approach employed by an organisation. The examples below are chosen to further explain and give evidence as to how this approach is performed.

Table 4.11 Extracts taken from the participants’ response to the DCT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SITUATION</th>
<th>STRATEGY</th>
<th>EXCERPTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| SITUATION 1 | Non-conventionally indirect | 1. Hi Alan. Would you do me a favour? My friends are coming to have dinner but the dining room is a little .......  
2. Hi Alan. How are you? Dining room is a common room which we can eat and discuss something but everyone should have a responsibility to clean up it |
| SITUATION 2 | Non-conventionally indirect | 1. Hello Abg Zul (pretending to call someone) I am here at 15 Filey Street you says you will come in 5 minutes right? I will be waiting in Yafai shop tonight.  
2. I am married |
| SITUATION 3 | Conventionally indirect    | 1. June, I need your help, please. I was sick for a while and missed the classes hence I need to have a look at someone's notes. Could you do me a favour by letting me have a quick look at your notes? If you don't mind of course.  
2. June I was sick yesterday, could I borrow your notes, because you are my best friends in this classroom and you are good at this subject |
| SITUATION 4 | Conventionally indirect    | 1. Hello guys. I am sorry to ask, but if you are going back home, would it be too much trouble to give me a lift? I can pay for part for gas, of course! |
| SITUATION 6 | Nonconventionally indirect | 1. *Excuse me Madam. Would you mind to place ur car in a right area*  
2. *Could you please move your car in parking area* |
| SITUATION 7 | Conventionally indirect | 1. *Mrs. Nathaniel. I know I have to hand in this paper, but...*  
2. *I'm sorry Mrs. Nathaniel. I cannot finish my assignment on time because of personal reasons I don't want to finish it in a hurry to hand in a careless work. Could you please give me more days to complete it?* |
| SITUATION 8 | Conventionally indirect | 1. *Hello Annie! How is your presentation going so far? I think it would be much more beneficial for you and your peers to see the presentation at my lecture next week. It will give broader context on the subject. Do you think you can finish it earlier?*  
2. *Annie, I was wondering if you could have your presentation one week earlier, because I find it way more compatible for it to take place in my lecture. I think it will be more worthy for you, as well as, easier to connect with the rest of the students.* |
| SITUATION 10 | Conventionally indirect | 1. *Hi Andrew, I am so tired. Could you help me to queue for me. Thank you so much and I will help us to find a table to sit*  
2. *Andrew, can you do me a favor? I'm tired help me to buy a drink? I will pay for your share as well* |
| SITUATION 11 | Conventionally indirect | 1. *I am sorry, can I get any change from you? Because (explain)(explain)(explain)*  
2. *Hello I am sorry to interrupt you, but I am so urgent to do my job interview and this chance is so cherished for me. But I lack my change for parking. Could you please borrow some change? I will give you my phone number and I will give* |
The table above (Table 4.11) contains a list of responses by the participants to indicate how Hofstede’s second dimension was used by the participants in uttering their requests.

There are ten situations cited in this study that feature the second dimension of national culture, uncertainty avoidance, created by Hofstede. The request strategy chosen for these situations lies between the conventionally indirect and the non-conventionally indirect. The first situation is where the request is meant for the hearer to clean the dining/living room after the party he/she had the night before.

**EXTRACT 65**

*Hi Alan. How are you? Dining room is a common room which we can eat and discuss something but everyone should have a responsibility to clean up it* (Table 4.11: Situation 1, no.2)

The speaker chose the nonconventional indirect strategy, strong hint to be more specific, rather than a direct strategy where he/she can just instruct the hearer to clean it. He/she chooses to emphasize the fact that the dining room “is a common room” which everybody should have access to and it is everybody’s “responsibility” to keep it clean. This strategy corresponds to the method employed by Hofstede’s organisation approach that overcomes stress by means of abiding to the rules and regulations which have been created by mutual consent among the room mates in that particular accommodation.

Good rules lead to the desired outcome if they are obeyed (their rational side) and concur with the values of the people whose behaviour they try to influence, which means they are likely to be obeyed (their unrational side). (Hofstede, 2001, p. 147)
Both interlocutors understand and accept the rule of being responsible to clean up the room after they have used it and the request made by the speaker reminded the hearer of this rule and the expectation of having it done should also be noted by the hearer. Hence, solidarity is maintained.

It is also interesting to note that the speaker begins his/her request by greeting and enquiring about the hearer’s well-being (*Hi Alan. How are you?*). Greeting has always been considered as welcoming and purported to be one’s way of acknowledging the presence of the hearer. In addition, enquiring about one’s health or well-being has always been seen as a sign that one cares for the other’s physical condition. As a header for a request it is considered as quite common and non-face threatening.

The second situation that accentuates another aspect of uncertainty avoidance that is taken from the data in this study is in Situation 2, where the speaker is being approached by a stranger and he/she has started a conversation which is found to be rather uncomfortable by the speaker. Thus, the speaker would have to request the hearer to stop talking to him/her. An excerpt from the data taken from a participant is a follows.

**EXTRACT 66**

*Hello Abang Zul (pretending to call someone) I am here at 15 Filey Street you says you will come in 5 minutes right? I will be waiting in Yafai shop tonight.* (Table 4.11: Situation 2, no.2)

The speaker chooses the non-conventional indirect strategy that is mild hint for this situation. Mild hint is defined as a locution that contains no elements which are of immediate relevance to the intended illocution or proposition. It requires the hearer to interpret through context analysis.
and knowledge activation by the speaker. This strategy adheres to the aspect of ritual addressed by Hofstede where the dimension is concerned. In his study, ritual refers to the daily habitual practice in an organisation which is very much related to a routine or a norm that is recognised by every member of the organisation. In this study, ritual is interpreted as something that is common and understood by the interlocutors through context analysis or background knowledge.

The speaker performs her requests by pretending that she was engaged in another conversation on the phone, hence, signalling her inability to talk to the stranger who has approached her earlier and at the same time hoping for him to stop talking to her. The probability of the situation is that the stranger might be a man and the speaker might be a woman as her response via the phone call identified the caller as a man (“Abang Zul”) which is translated from the Malay or Indonesian language which means “brother”. The speaker then goes on with the monologue by informing the caller of her whereabouts (“I am here at 15 Filey Street”) and then indicating that the caller will be joining her within a very short span of time (“...you says you will come in 5 minutes right?”). She has also implied that she will not be standing there for long and they are to meet somewhere else (“I will be waiting in Yafai shop tonight.”)

This choice of strategy has also been recommended by my participants in the focus group discussion. The excerpts given below reaffirm the recommendation.

**EXTRACT 67**

…but for me I am a Malay so I think...being a Malay girl I am... I will be like very uummm...I would totally withdraw from the situation...I would run...or I would scream... (B.2)

**EXTRACT 68**

Yeah totally avoid... (H.2)
EXTRACT 69

The only confrontation I would say is if I brought a police with me…..a brother with me or… (B.2)

Further discussion with the two participants leads to the explanation of the scenario taken from the questionnaire.

EXTRACT 70

I would pretend like I was on a phone!! (H.2)
Ok Hi I’m at the…ok...wait for me for five minutes (B.2)
Yeah…I will be there shortly…I’ll be there shortly (H.2)

In relation to the ritual accentuated by Hofstede in this dimension, it seems to be a norm when one is placed in an uncomfortable situation (in this context the stranger has been ignored by the woman) that the best action to take is to stop the conversation all together and move on. In addition to that, the use of technology is seen incorporated in this situation. The participant uses the mobile phone as a medium to signal her request to the hearer. Technology or the use of it, is another aspect of uncertainty avoidance that is highlighted by Hofstede.

The next extract considers a different direction. When a stranger walks up to a person it is not advisable to strike a conversation especially if you are a woman and the stranger is a man. Below is a clearer explanation of the reason behind the situation.

EXTRACT 71

Whenever that happens in Chile…it’s really...really dangerous too be walking at night...Especially if I’m a woman... Especially if I have something with me...I always have my trombone, or my guitar...so it kinda......obvious that I’m gonna get robbed! So... Yeah! So if I’m walking and somebody starts talking to me…I had to just cross the street or maybe just go into a store...and get help! Not like “help...help! Somebody help!” Like I dunno... getting a soda...I have to go inside to store to get a soda and stay there and if the guy or the girl outside is still there...I’ll ask for help inside... Or I’ll just, I dunno... get a taxi something to get me out of the situation but just not talking to them because if I talk to them and if I do not speak the way they want me to...hmmm... they could hurt me! (C.3)
In this context, Situation 2 may pose to be life threatening and whoever encounters such an incident would have to know the common or natural action to be taken in order to avoid conflict. The effect in the previous extract may not be the best approach on how to handle this situation. Blum-Kulka (2008) terms this strategy as opting out, where the speaker chose not to respond or utter any form of request as it may be considered as a treacherous action that may cause harm to the speaker.

Grice (1957) has a different terminology for this particular strategy and in his study he defines it as *Implicature*. Similar to what Hofstede identified as ritual, Grice’s *Repertoire* is defined as the background knowledge or shared information and understanding between two interlocutors that is required in order for *Implicature* to take place. In reference to the second and third Situation 2 extracts, Grice’s (cf. Grandy and Warner, 2004) notion of *Reasoning* seems to take place but in a form of an unstructured utterance type and this is categorised under the *Maxim of Relevance*. Consider the example in Situation 2, which features the act of answering a call by the participant/speaker. The speaker has in her repertoire the procedure of answering a call where she wants her hearer to think that she is busy and that she would not be able to hold any form of conversation with the hearer. Both the speaker and the hearer would understand the signal as they have previous knowledge, in other words, have experienced it, if not practised this particular act before. The speaker reasons to the conclusion that the act of answering a phone call is an effective way of getting the hearer to believe that she doesn’t want to talk to him. The possibility of such reasoning makes the act a particularly efficacious way of meaning that the speaker is requesting the hearer to not speak to her or that she finds it uncomfortable to speak to
the hearer. The outcome of such an act is then to hope, on the speaker’s part, that the hearer would understand her unstructured utterance type of a request and leave her alone.

In the second example of Situation 2, avoiding the stranger and walking into a store is considered as another form of reasoning. The speaker realises that she might be in danger of being robbed as that might be a possible scenario when a stranger walks up and starts a conversation with a lonely woman at night, which does not promise a very friendly approach, where her country is concerned. Hence, the hearer once he has realised that the speaker has walked into the store would immediately understand the signal of the speaker’s silent request. It would be pointless or even dangerous for him to pursue the matter.

I would also like to connect this finding with the “connection” discourse condition which is also another factor that is related to Grice’s Cooperative Principle apart from reasoning. The “connection” that is shared between the interlocutors is very much evident in the reaction of both speaker and hearer which should act as a signal or indicator that both recognise its meaning and react accordingly. In the first response the phone used as a means of avoiding the hearer indicated a signal for him/her to quit talking to the speaker. The signal should be understood by the hearer and if he/she understood and reacted by leaving then the “connection” would have been established. Similarly, the second response as when the speaker ran into the shop is another signal that is indicated by the speaker that she did not wish to talk to the hearer and thus, if the hearer reacted by leaving or by not following her into the shop, this is an indicator that the “connection” has been established as well. This finding is quite different from the ones claimed by Dunbar et al. (2015), where in their findings “connection” is identified in an experiment
where they explored the credibility in face-to-face interviews and video conferencing. Apparently, “connection” in their study was reflected by the bond that they have seen established between interlocutors when they share similar experience and opinion.

In a nutshell, the discussion above has given some insights as to the reasons why the participants have decided to choose indirect strategies and the factors that they have considered prior to making such requests before actually uttering them to the hearer.
4.4.2 Masculinity versus femininity

The figure below (Figure 4.4) determines how the discussion of this analysis has been carried out. Masculinity and femininity is the fourth dimension identified in Hofstede’s study. He reiterates that the duality of the sexes is a fundamental fact which different societies cope with in different ways; the issue is what implications the biological differences between the sexes should have for the emotional and social roles of the genders. He claimed that women at large consider social goals such as relationships, helping others and the physical environment as imperative compared to men, who are more inclined towards ego goals that are more quantifiable, for instance careers and money. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) have consented that this is the most controversial dimension compared to the rest of the dimensions but it is also important to note that there is some truth in its existence in reference to national culture and there might be cases that it may have some variations as to how it is visible in certain cultures. Another point worth noting is that this dimension has nothing to do with the national wealth but has more connection with value issues that are related to ego versus relationship with others (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). Therefore, this is the consideration that will be further elaborated in this section, the manner of making requests by the male and female participants of this study.
Hofstede (2001) emphasizes that, “Gender role socialisation starts in the family; it continues in peer groups and in school. It is furthered through the media, starting with children’s literature and reinforced by motion pictures, television and the press” (p.280). The role is later manifested in everyday life, particularly, in interactions. In this study, some of my participants have highlighted that there are differences in the manner a male and female interlocutors utter their requests and these differences are evidence in the participants’ responses taken from the DCT. Initially, it was not my intention to consider this dimension as I was not sure there was anything phenomenal or distinctive about this dimension. However I was later propelled to deliberate and include it in my analysis as I did discover something quite thought-provoking. Hence, I have selected a few examples from the data and created a table with a list of illustrations below and it contains a list of extracts from the data retrieved from the DCT. The extracts will be closely examined and discussed in line with the Masculinity and Femininity dimension used as a
checklist to determine the differences of utterance completed by both the male and female participants. The findings prove to be quite enlightening and as much as possible I have tried to make the connection with the dimension as clear as possible.
Table 4.12 List of responses by the male and female participants taken from the DCT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SITUATION</th>
<th>STRATEGY</th>
<th>EXCERPTS TAKEN FROM A FEMALE PARTICIPANT</th>
<th>EXCERPTS TAKEN FROM A MALE PARTICIPANT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 1 Dining/living room</td>
<td>Conventionally indirect</td>
<td><em>Alan. I'd like to invite my close friends for dinner tonight. Would you mind if I ask you to clean up the living/dining room?</em></td>
<td><em>Could you please clean the room my friends are coming.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 2 Strangers</td>
<td>Nonconventionally indirect</td>
<td><em>Excuse me. I'm so busy to meet my friends and study in library. Goodbye</em></td>
<td><em>Please get away from me!</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 3 Lecture notes</td>
<td>Conventionally indirect</td>
<td><em>Excuse me June. I am afraid I missed last lecture. Would you mind lending me your notes, please?</em></td>
<td><em>Hi June, would you lend me your notes to look since I was sick and didn't go to class. I wanna learn what you have learnt.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 4 Lift home</td>
<td>Conventionally indirect</td>
<td><em>Hey I'm Simon I live next to you I'm sorry for interrupting you but I'm afraid of going home alone when you want to go home. Can I go with you?</em></td>
<td><em>Hey, guys, do you mind if I join you in your way home?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 5 Asking for information</td>
<td>Conventionally indirect</td>
<td><em>Hello! I saw your advertisement recently in the newspaper. I am interested in applying to this position and I would like to know more information. Could you help me?</em></td>
<td><em>I am really interested in the job advertised in a newspaper. Could you let me have more information about it. It would help me make a quick decision!</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 6 No parking</td>
<td>Conventionally indirect</td>
<td><em>Excuse me, madam. This is 'no parking' area. Could you please move your car a little bit?</em></td>
<td><em>Sorry, you have to move your car from here no parking area is here</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 7 Paper extension</td>
<td>Conventionally indirect</td>
<td><em>I'm terribly sorry Mrs. Nathaniel but I haven't managed to finish my paper. I have been working really hard on it though. Could I just have an extension of a few more days please?</em></td>
<td><em>I have been sick for the last two week and could not concentrate on my work. Unfortunately, can I get an extension for that?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 8 Paper presentation</td>
<td>Conventionally indirect</td>
<td>Annie, you plan of presentation is well-organized and I feel it will fit in the content of a week earlier lecture. I know it makes you rush, but could you give it a week earlier?</td>
<td>If time and condition allow, can you do presentation one week earlier? Your topic matches the lesson content if you do it earlier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 9 Tennis ball</td>
<td>Conventionally indirect</td>
<td>Hello guys. I'm so sorry, my ball is flying into your court. Could you help me to give it back to me? Thank you very much.</td>
<td>Hi pals, would you mind passing the ball to me. Thank you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 10 Drinks</td>
<td>Conventionally indirect</td>
<td>Andrew, I'm totally burnt out today, could you help me to get a drink. I wait for you at the table there. Is that ok?</td>
<td>Hi bro, I'm tired, could you get me a drink?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 11 Parking meter</td>
<td>Conventionally indirect</td>
<td>Excuse me Madam, I'm really sorry but I need changes for parking right now because I have an important appointment in 5 minutes. Could I ask you to exchange £5 into small changes?</td>
<td>Madam, could you do me a big favor?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 12 Smoke on train</td>
<td>Conventionally indirect</td>
<td>Grandpa, I understand you want to get some air but lighting a cigarette could make people uncomfortable and it is not allowed. I will buy you a drink, please put out your cigarette grandpa. Sorry</td>
<td>Grandpa, smoking is not allowed on a train</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The table above presents some of the data taken from the DCT that represents the choice of requests chosen by different genders. First, both males and females show a strong preference for conventional indirect strategy. However, the manner as to how they phrase their request is quite different.

Table 4.13 Extracts taken from the DCT of responses made by a female and male participant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SITUATION</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 3</td>
<td>Excuse me June. I am afraid I missed last lecture. Would you mind lending me your notes, please?</td>
<td>Hi June, would you lend me your notes to look since I was sick and didn't go to class. I wanna learn what you have learnt.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.12 illustrates the difference in the manner of uttering request by a female and male participant that were taken from the DCT.

Hofstede’s denotes that in this dimension, the female participants in his study are more social goal inclined compared to the male participants. This situation (Situation 3) requires the speaker to request a loan of lecture notes that he/she had missed. The female participant in this study, if we are to consider the above example, seems to share the same notion. The speaker phrases her request by starting of with the utterance of “Excuse me,...” an illocutionary force indicating device (IFID) that signals an apology for seeking the hearer’s attention to acknowledge her presence. This approach fits in very well with Hofstede’s notion that female participants are more sensitive to others and they are more prone to observe solidarity within a relationship compared to the male participants. The
The next utterance “I am afraid I missed last lecture”, indicates an explanation that is uttered in hope that the hearer will be able to understand why her attention was sought after by the speaker. The utterance also functions as a form of a plea that would hope to gain the hearer’s sympathy that the speaker has missed the class and that she regretted having done so, even though, she hasn’t provided any form of explanation as to why she missed it. The speaker then refers to the “value good” (Blum-Kulka, cf. Van Dijk, 2011), in this context the lecture notes, as a form of acknowledgement to the ownership of value good and thus requested if the hearer would mind “…lending…” the speaker her “…lecture notes”. The speaker then ends the request with “…please.” Placencia (2005) identifies the word “please” as a diminutive categorized under internal modification which is associated with politeness which is more popular among female participants.

The male participants were more inclined to recognise the ego goals which are career and money (Hofstede, 2001). The speaker initiates his request with a greeting “Hi June” and proceeds with the request “would you lend me your notes to look” a query preparatory that begins with a conditional (would) that signals an indirect request. He then adds a form of explanation that may not sound at all apologetic but merely states that his health condition was the reason for his absence to the lecture “since I was sick and didn't go to class”. Here it can be noted that the male participant phrases his request by including the statement “I wanna learn what you have learnt”. The statement demonstrates that he does not want to miss out on the lesson and that feeds on the ego goal that is very much related to his career. Thus, the hearer should grant him her lecture notes and grant him his request.
One of my participants (B.2) shares the same observation. Below is an excerpt of her opinion during the focus group discussion.

**EXTRACT 72**
This Alex and June...um--...I can’t imagine myself in this situation...I don’t really...um--....but I guess because they were different genders so I guess that’s why he...he...ask not persuade enough you know...maybe...maybe because the gender issue I don’t know but gender would be one of the consideration...maybe (B:2)

This remark was made after viewing a response of this situation made by a male native speaker. B.2 clearly thinks that the speaker was not persuasive enough when making his request. In this situation, the participant was making the point that the request made by the speaker in the video did not actually work really hard in trying to persuade the hearer. This is in consideration of the fact that if the hearer was a male or the speaker another female, he or she may have to be a bit more careful and probably give an even more lengthy explanation as to why he or she may need to borrow the notes, as she had said “but I guess because they were different genders so I guess that’s why...” Some of the participants also acknowledged that there are situations where some of them do feel that there would be a better probability of getting their requests granted if they were to approach the opposite gender.

Another observation made by another participant regarding a similar scenario depicts a similar attitude.

**EXTRACT 73**
I think from my observation so far...girls we tend to sugarcoat things...if we want one thing we have another way of explaining to make it to a certain extend more polite more nice. Whereas for boys they would go straight to the point...(F.5)
F.5 concludes that “girls we tend to sugarcoat things” indicating that women have the tendency to make their utterances appear to be more pleasant or acceptable. Moreover, she also thinks that women have a different “way of explaining” that is different from men and that they (women) “…make it to a certain extent more polite more nice.”

Apparently, F.5 is not the only who has observed this phenomenon, Chumaceiro (1998) in her study discovered that women are more inclined to use ‘diminutive of politeness’ to mitigate the request and to express solidarity with the interlocutor which is somewhat similar to F.2’s observation that “girls...tend to sugarcoat things” to achieve the same goal.

For Grice (1989), when uttering a response, in this context a request, it is imperative to observe the Maxim Of Quality, where the utterance is expected to be “genuine and not spurious”(p.28) In considering the above observation made by my participant, being polite entails a speaker providing as much information as possible to convince the hearer that he/she is genuinely in need of some assistance and that “sugarcoat”-ing things might lessen the level of imposition on the part of the hearer. Green (1996) claims that Lakoff terms this concept as offering options, where the speaker reduces the level of imposition by giving the hearer the choice to ignore or deny the speaker’s request but the speaker may persuade the hearer by hedging or implicating his/ her intent. However, it should be noted that this notion is only common among the women speakers as the “…boys they would go straight to the point” as is observed by the participant. This can be seen apparent in the table presented above where the length of requests made by the female
participants is quite lengthy compared to the length of the ones made by male participants. Generally, these results reflect that choices of request strategies may be similar between genders. However, the manner as to how each gender utter their request may show some pragmatic variation (Schneider and Barron, 2008b, p.15).

Below is another set of examples taken from the DCT that is similar to the example given above.

Table 4.14 Another set of extracts of a female and male participant taken from the DCT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SITUATION</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SITUATION 8 Paper presentation</td>
<td>Annie, your plan of presentation is well-organized and I feel it will fit in the content of a week earlier lecture. I know it makes you rush, but could you give it a week earlier?</td>
<td>If time and condition allow, can you do presentation one week earlier? Your topic matches the lesson content if you do it earlier</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the example above (Table 4.14), the female requester, in this Situation, would probably be the lecturer, started her request by complimenting the hearer’s work, “Annie, your plan of presentation is well-organized.” Then she continued with some explanation as to how she felt the presentation “will fit in the content of a week earlier lecture”. She further added that she understood that her request would make the hearer uncomfortable as it would probably make her “rush”. Here we can see what Hofstede (2001) has highlighted that female interlocutors are more social goal inclined as can be seen evident in her next utterance, the request proper, “could you give it a week earlier”. She had made her request in a manner where the hearer would not see it as a directive but more a suggestion that even if she refused to comply it would not be taken negatively.
The difference is very obvious if we are to refer to the male’s version of the request. The speaker’s initial statement was very matter of fact, “If time and condition allow” giving the indication that the time and condition are separate factors that are detached from the hearer and have nothing to do with the requestee. This is unlike the request uttered by the female participant above where the concern is very much on the student’s ability. The speaker then continues with the request, “can you do presentation one week earlier?”, followed by an explanation, “Your topic matches the lesson content if you do it earlier”, which of course does not have any indication as to the hearer’s well-being but more to how her presentation would contribute to the content of the lesson for that week. Hence, the emphasis was geared towards the goal rather than the hearer’s benefit.

I would also like to highlight that the female participants of my study were very much concerned in ensuring that the hearers were happy with what the speaker has to say in making the request. The use of the Maxim of Relevance would assist in creating this sense of satisfaction that would lead to the hearer wanting to accommodate to the speaker’s wish. Chakrabarti and Luger (2015) have a similar finding where this Maxim is concerned and they have identified that it has helped in keeping their customers happy in their study of analysing customers’ reaction to their chatter bot study (refer to Chapter 3, p. 146)
4.4.3 Long term and Short term Orientation

The fifth dimension of Hofstede’s National Culture dimensions long-term and short-term orientation (LTO), was developed in the East, specifically China. It drew partially on the teaching of Confucius which Hofstede (2005) narrowed down to a few factors. These factors were then classified under two categories: Short-Term Orientation and Long-Term Orientation. (refer to Chapter 2 p. 46)

![Figure 4.5 CIPRS : Long Term and Short Term Orientation](image)

The present study has observed that some of these values have been acknowledged and used by the participants when making requests. Some participants have claimed that they utter requests in a way that they want the hearer to infer that there is a moral behind the request. Hofstede terms this as one of the value categorized under the negative pole.
which is very much related to fulfilling social obligations. A complete elaboration of this dimension can be found in Chapter Two sub-section 2.3.2.5.

Table 4.15 Key Differences Between Short and Long Term Orientation Societies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SHORT TERM ORIENTATION</th>
<th>LONG TERM ORIENTATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effort should produce quick results</td>
<td>Perseverance, sustained efforts toward slow result</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social pressure toward spending</td>
<td>Thrift, being sparing with resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respect for traditions</td>
<td>Respect for circumstances</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concern with personal stability</td>
<td>Concern with personal adaptiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concern with social and status obligations</td>
<td>Willingness to subordinate oneself for a purpose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concern with “face”</td>
<td>Having a sense of shame</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The excerpts below are made in response to Situation 1 where the request is made to the hearer to clean the living/dining room.

**EXTRACT 74**
*I can help him but...if I just help he might not get the point...need to show my wishes...*(I.4)

The first example was taken from the focus group discussion and the participant I.4, explains why she disagrees with what was shown on the video. She refuses to offer assistance in cleaning up the room because she wants her roommate to be responsible for her actions. She further elaborates that “*if I just help he might not get the point...*” She wanted to teach him that he should clean up after his own mess and she emphasised that she “*need[s] to show*” the hearer of her “*wishes...*”
Apparently, I.4 is not the only one who shares the same concern. C.3 seems to think that she should not bear the burden of helping to clean up a mess she did not participate in making.

**EXTRACT 75**

*I didn’t offer my help or anything cause he was the one (laugh) doing all those messy things so…I dunno* (C.3)

She continues to say that she will only help when asked, otherwise her response would be

“*no I mean why should I help you were the one who did this!*”

**EXTRACT 76**

*If they ask for your help…I mean of course yeah! Hey man I can help you but if you do the “hey could you please…could you please…clean the living room. I can help you if you want…?”* (C.4)

H.4, D.5 and V.5 seem to consider this differently. They view offering assistance as a hint that the hearer would have to interpret as something that is not permanent and that it is a one-time offer only. This implies that the speaker is willing to assist at that particular moment but if it recurs than the listener would have to clean it up himself.

**EXTRACT 77**

*…come on together do it…I think best way to…right to…encourage people to do together…and after that please bear in mind maybe…you have to do it by yourself this is the last we help you to clean the mess…this is the first warning and the last warning…* (H.4)
EXTRACT 78
...if the kitchen is messy and I think I cannot handle maybe I will say can you help me and do that together ... (V.5)

V.5 also expressed that she is embarrassed to ask the friend to clean up the mess as she considers her friendship more important than the mess in the kitchen. She further explained that if they are very close friends that she wouldn’t mind doing it as she knew her friend would do the same thing if she were the one to create the mess. V.5’s consideration of not wanting to embarrass her friend is also in line with Hofstede’s SHORT TERM ORIENTATION of being concern with “face”.

D.5 further emphasised that she would only be helping to teach the roommate about “skills”. Below is her justification as to why she would offer her assistance.

EXTRACT 79
...we already close friends at that time, I mean actually it happened here. When we moved in I tried to built the relationship between my roommates...so...and then finally we become friends and she is a little bit younger than me...so when I find that the kitchen...it’s easier and messy and the...I tried to tell him...like um--...no a girl actually I don’t mind if I clean and I’ve clean it for several times...I don’t mind but sometimes I think after I’ve cleaned for several times I just thinking that maybe this is not good for her because I think this is some kind of skills you should learn after you studying abroad this is something you should learn...I just said that it is quite convenient after this you can just spend several minutes you finish it. Of course I normally do with him...no her together is mot...I think it’s rather polite way and not making her embarrassing because I do that with her together and I’m not complaining always. I just that something like ah--...kinda of teaching her something like this some skills to do this...quite convenient... (D.5)

D.5’s justification was very much in line with what Hofstede terms as short term orientation, which is categorised as concern with social and status obligations. She considered her form of requesting as a way to teach her friend about skills that a person
needs when “studying abroad”. She also mentioned that she wouldn’t mind doing it but she was afraid that it may not be “good for her” implying that her helping the roommate might ruin her friend’s survival skills. Hence, she felt that she is obligated to contribute to her friend’s learning experience by helping her accomplish the task together rather than doing it herself. D.5’s concern with “face”, very much similar to V.5, was made apparent with her expression of not wanting to make her roommate feel embarrassed by cushioning her request in the manner that will not threaten the roommate’s face.

In the case of I.4 and C.3, the request strategy chosen was QUERY PREPARATORY of the conventionally indirect strategy, unlike H.4, V.5 and D.5 who felt that SUGGESTORY FORMULA would work far better. The request that they made functions as a reminder that their assistance should not be taken for granted and that it was not an offer to assist indefinitely. This particular use of request is quite uncommon, in my opinion, as I have never actually come across such a situation where request functions differently than the usual asking for favours. It is also interesting to note that this is used among second language learners.

On another note, the manner as to how the request was uttered may not be agreeable to Grice’s Maxim of Quality. Such manner of request would be considered as defying the maxim which is very much concerned with the notion that what a speaker says must be true and should convey what is to be considered as false and unjustified (cf. Davis, 1998). H.4, V.5 and D.5, though in no doubt, have no mischievous intention when making such request. They had no intention to mislead the hearer but offered their assistance as a
means of sharing the burden but at the same time reminding the hearer of the responsibility that they share when it comes to their living arrangements.

4.4 Conclusion

This chapter aimed to analyse how participants reacted to the situations that required them to make requests and how they have justified their choices according to their linguistic ability, culture and background. It also aimed to unravel the justification for each request made, to delve into reasons as to why such requests were considered and eventually uttered. In addition to that, it intended to also uncover how each situation was weighed and processed by the participants in ensuring that what they would say would not in any way affect them and the hearer, negatively. Hence, the model within which the data was analysed was an attempt to justify the process that influenced the choices that they made. However, it may not be the only process that the participant would consider following as there may be other forms or sequences that have yet to be revealed which also limits this study.

The final goal that each and every one of the participants was concerned with was to ensure that they uttered their request as politely as possible so that they may ensure that solidarity between them and the hearer was well safeguarded and not jeopardized in any way. It is interesting to note that even though the participants have different L1s (English is not their first language) and different nationalities with different cultures and backgrounds, they shared this mutual understanding that being polite is crucial and it is
needed in everyday interaction. It would be fair to assume that the participants as second language speakers may bring some tacit knowledge of requesting from their L1 but of course it could also depend on their proficiency level. Some even claimed that being polite in making requests is very much correlated to being educated or civilised. This notion, however, should not be generalised to other settings and could only be applied to this study as the participants were recruited from an institution of higher learning.
CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

*Speak politely*
*(Al Qur’an 17:53)*

5.1 Introduction

This study was initiated in order to come to a certain understanding regarding how second language speakers interact in a global setting particularly when making oral requests and the choice of request strategies used in a multicultural setting of an institution of higher learning.

According to Omoniyi and Saxena (2010), language is a very important mechanism in the process of globalization as it is considered as a “life force” (p.1) that connects everything that is involved in the process. Hence, this phenomenon has resulted in the emergence of a need or ability for an individual to communicate in different countries, settings and environment. Due to an overwhelming need to understand this concept, numerous studies have been carried out and it is hoped that my study would be one that would help in providing some insights that would contribute to the current knowledge and to understand how this “life force” exists in requestive behaviour.

In my conclusion, I will briefly recapitulate the three Research Questions that I have established for the study and the model that I have formulated for the purpose of justifying my findings. Apart from that, I have added a section that evaluates the whole study including the research questions, methodology and the analysis of the findings as well. Finally, I have also included some recommendations for future research that I wish to pursue as soon as I am able.
5.2 A review of the Research Questions

The study was driven by three Research Questions that aimed to unravel the choice of request strategies used by second language learners in a multicultural setting of an institution of higher learning in the UK. The analysis was carried out by responding to the questions one at a time.

5.2.1 What are the request strategies chosen by students from different linguistics background?

This question was answered by identifying which request strategies were most popularly used throughout the 12 situations found in the DCT. The choice of request strategy used by the participants were mainly the conventionally and non-conventionally indirect strategies as the participants believed both of these strategies were seen to be the most polite and at the same time helped them maintain solidarity. Both strategies assisted therefore in mitigating the threat of asking for favours from the hearer. Apart from these two strategies, it was also discovered that in some situations where the participants recognized a threat, for example in Situation 2 (where the speaker is being approached by a stranger) and Situation 4 (asking for a ride), they decided to opt out or not say anything. The choice made, however, appeared to depend somewhat on their culture and background.
5.2.2 How are the request strategies used by these students different?

The research question above was addressed by using the video (refer to Chapter 4) as a form of intervention. In the second phase, the participants were shown a video of a set of situations taken from the DCT. They were asked to respond to the video by comparing what they had answered in the DCT (the survey) and to see if they were any significant differences or similarities between their answers and the models’ response towards the DCT.

The research question above was divided into two parts;

i) How do they vary their request strategies and

ii) Why are they different, and the attempt to answer them is as follows.

5.2.2.1 How do they vary their request strategies?

I personally found the second phase of the data collection the most enjoyable. The opportunity to get up close and personal with the participants was exciting, at times amusing and not to mention often exhilarating and insightful. Upon playing the video the participants were all very attentive and some even took notes to prepare themselves for the discussion. I found this very endearing, and it reflected how seriously they took the whole task at hand. It was very flattering to find that these group of people considered my research as important.
There was quite a mixture of emotional responses from the participants. Some were happy, others were annoyed and some indifferent. Despite their differences, they actually come to a certain consensus that they would use the same request strategies, the conventionally indirect and the non-conventionally indirect in most of the situations. Nevertheless, the participants argued that they would probably have uttered their request differently. The reason behind this difference in opinion is probably due to their background, culture and values. Their interpretation of the Situations presented was highly influenced by their upbringing and the environment that practices the values and culture that they are familiar with. The manner as to how they chose to utter their requests will be summarized in the next question.

5.2.2.2 Why are they different?

The participants were quite adamant that the manner in which they uttered their requests was different compared to the models’ requests on the video. They argued that some of the responses made by the models lacked information and that they would have given more explanation so that the hearer of their request would be more willing or sympathetic and hence would reject their appeal.

Some even claimed that gender should be a major consideration. According to some participants there should be a difference when asking for favours from either a man or a woman as evident and discussed in Chapter Four. One of my participants claimed that if requests were made to a different gender, the probability of the request being fulfilled would be very high as in the case of Situation 3 (refer to p.252, Chapter 4). They seemed
to have this impression that in requests made to different genders, for example from a male speaker to a female hearer especially, the male speaker would not have to give a lengthy explanation and the female hearer and the female hearer would probably comply with his request.

The use of internal and external modification as supportive sentence to making requests have also proven to be a popular tool in this study. It is evident that the participants have shown that they regard the use of these modifications as a means to lower the level of imposition and it is important they use it in all of their requests (refer to Chapter 4, p.174).

The participants were also very partial to combining their requests with IFIDs and phatic utterances. They seemed to have used these two elements in almost all of the situations provided in the DCT. They also believed that by adding these two linguistic elements their request would be more polite and they would be able to maintain harmony between the hearer and the speaker.

5.3 How do the aspects of social distance (SD), power and dominance (D), gender and status, influence the request strategies?

In an attempt to answer the third research question, I have combined three theories and created a model that would further enlighten how the request strategies are chosen by the
participants is adhered to the four factors mentioned above. The model was created via a combination of Hofstede’s National Culture theory, Blum-Kulka et al.’s Level of Directness in Request Strategies and Grice’s Maxims of Cooperative Principle.

I was driven to formulate this model because I found that analyzing the data with just the use of Blum-Kulka et al.’s (1989) Level of Directness was not enough for me. I was curious to know more than just the choice of the request strategies. I wanted to identify the factors that the speaker has to consider before uttering such requests and why they uttered them the way they did. These questions cannot be answered by identifying the Level of Directness alone as I find it insufficient and it does not cater to the why and the how questions which I find very important in order for me to better understand the requestive behaviour. Blum-Kulka has given a list of variables that might affect requestive behaviour, among them are intra-cultural ability, cross-cultural variability and individual variability but I find this lacking and has driven me to ask more questions such, What does it all mean? What is intra-cultural ability? What is cross cultural variability? What is individual variability?\(^7\) Hence, with all these questions in mind, I have decided to include Hofstede National Culture dimension and Grice’s Maxims to analyse my data. I have started to analyse my data according to each theories independently and the result was very frustrating as it did not make any sense, so I had to go through another series of searching, trying to get all the responses re-coded and re-themed but I still couldn’t find the right structure that could make them fit into something that could be comprehensible. I went back to reading Hofstede’s book on *Culture Consequences* (2001) and found this one paragraph where he talked about “mental

\(^7\) For further elaboration of these terms please refer to page 11 in Chapter One.
program” that every individual has in order to communicate within a society. I found that idea fascinating and it seemed to be the one piece that would complete my puzzle. It gave me the idea to integrate the three theories and create some form of a system that might give me some insights to interpret the process that my participants were telling me during the discussion sessions. Hence, the CIPRS model was formulated.

The next step was going back to my data and I had to listen to the discussions I had with my participants and considered their responses when describing incidents that they had thought of when considering the Situations from the DCT. They reminisced of incidents related to the Situations and made some form of connection with each and every one of them. They have even shared and commented on each other’s experience as well, making comparisons and even joking about them too. That particular exercise, of listening to the participants’ discussion, lead me to decide to use Hofstede’s National Culture dimensions as a leading point followed by the Level of Directness in requesting by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) and Grice’s Maxims of Cooperative Principle. The reason behind that decision was because the participants of my study seem to relate to the society first before they decide which request strategy to use and how to phrase such requests. I found this system workable in a way as that was how I had interpreted it from my data. Nevertheless, it may not always work in that particular order, there are probabilities that the order may be different with a different set of participants.

In most of the sessions I had with my participants, they would always relate to their experiences connected to each of the Situations, recalling events for each of them and
eventually deciding that they ought to consider those events before uttering any requests. 
This is an indicator that they had a certain system or even a checklist in their mind that 
they would refer to before they decided to utter their request and it always seem to be in a 
form of a reflection of what they had gone through or experienced. The experiences were 
always connected to their background, their culture and their values, things they are 
familiar with and had been practising all their lives (refer to Chapter 4). I related these to 
Hofstede’s National Culture dimensions (2001) first because I think this is the driving 
factor based on what was said by my participants. The Power Distance dimension 
directed them to consider who the hearer would be with regard to prestige, wealth and 
power (Chapter 4.3, p. 217). It is evident from the data that they have considered this in 
all of the Situations presented in the DCT. Then, they considered the choice of request 
strategies used and since it has already been established that they had chosen the Indirect 
strategies, they had only to decide to use either Conventionally Indirect Strategy or the 
Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy. Finally, the Maxims would be the next checklist 
where they had the options of choosing the Maxim of Quality, Maxim of Quantity, Maxim 
of Relevance or Quantity of Manner. The ones they chosen for this dimension was the 
Maxim of Quality which requires the speaker to provide information that is believable or 
convincing enough to ensure that the hearer understood the position he/she is in when 
uttering the request. Eventually, having all that considered and uttered, the speaker had 
hoped that he/she had presented a good enough justification for the hearer to comply with 
the request.
The arrangement of this analysis, via the CIPRS model particularly on the Power Distance dimension, has shown me that when faced with these kind of Situations, the model has given me a clearer understanding that the participants were in agreement with the choice of request strategy used and the criteria that they need to follow before uttering such requests.

For the second dimension, the Uncertainty Avoidance of Hofstede’s National Culture dimensions, there were ten Situations that I have identified featuring this dimension (refer to Chapter 4.3.2, p. 235). There were several categories that this dimension seemed to fit itself to. The first one was the rules and regulations where this was seen appropriately applied to Situation 1 (“clean kitchen”). The choice of request strategy used by some of the participants in my study was the Indirect Strategy as well and the choice was either Conventionally Indirect or Non-Conventionally Indirect strategies.

The other Situation is the second one (“Stranger”) and I personally found this as very intriguing because one of the participant actually related this situation to a very terrifying incident. It was obvious that she was quite petrified with the condition that the Situation had presented and she mentioned that it was a very common in her country. She had chosen not to say anything and would have rather walked away from the person altogether. It seemed to a be a common concept as another participant of my study, who comes from a different country, said something similar that she would rather not address the hearer/stranger at all but would rather find some means of escape to get out of the situation (refer to p. 239-244).
The choice of Maxim used for this dimension was the *Maxim of Relevance* where the act of *Reasoning* took place in the form of an *Implicature*. In the second Situation (“stranger”) the speaker did not utter any form request verbally and directly to the hearer but both participants had send out signals that both interlocutors should have understood as being a request albeit non-verbally (refer to p.242).

The third dimension used in the discussion of this paper, is *Masculinity versus Femininity*, one of Hofstede’s National Culture dimensions that involves the role of gender in a society. This dimension came to me as a surprise as I was not very keen on highlighting this dimension. I did not think it would make any significant difference. Nevertheless, some of my participants insisted that gender would also play a very important role in understanding the notion of request making. After a very thorough examination, delving through the responses from the DCT, I discovered that there was indeed some distinctive discrepancies between the female participants’ and the male participants’ responses. It led me to examine the justification behind this discrepancies and I discovered that in Hofstede’s Masculinity versus Femininity dimension the two genders contributed to value issues that are related to ego versus relationship with others. The sub-model that I formulated for this analysis helped me recognized a whole new perspective as to how a male and a female realized their requestive behaviour which I had never considered paying attention to. The feminine version of responses where the requests are concerned were more catered to the well-being of the hearer and the male version were very much goal oriented. Although both genders decided that the best
option where request strategies are concerned would be the *Indirect* strategies but the manner of their uttered requests was very different and this is evident in the data that I retrieved from this study. The maxim used for by the female participants would be the *Maxim of Quality* and the male participants have chosen the *Maxim of Relevance* (refer to p. 255).

The last dimension considered for this model is the *Long term versus Short term Orientation*. This was the final dimension of the analysis which I discovered at the end of the whole discussion process. Initially, I was not sure this dimension was the most appropriate to discuss the themes that had emerged from my data, particularly the ‘respect’ and the ‘saving face’. I knew these two items had appeared in Brown and Levinson’s Politeness Theory (1987) but I did not think they would appear in Hofstede’s dimensions. At one point, I was even tempted to come up with my own dimension as a complement to Hofstede’s existing dimensions and to accommodate my analysis but I had second thoughts. I decided to go against that temptation and went back to reading Hofstede’s dimensions and searched for some references concerning these two elements and to see if there was anything worth considering. I came across this dimension that deals very much with the value that is categorized under fulfilling social obligation which are further narrowed down to the two elements of ‘*respect for traditions*’ and ‘*concern with face*’. Eventually this was the dimension I have adopted to interpret my findings.

The Situation that has been highlighted by the participants that I have related to this dimension was the first Situation (‘clean the kitchen’). The participants had different
views in addressing this Situation, although they had come to a consensus that the best request strategy to use for this was the Indirect Strategy but of different sub – categories of the Conventionally Indirect Strategy which were the Query Preparatory and the Suggestory Formula. The maxim of used was the Maxim of Quality but the maxim was seen flouted in this Situation. In other words, the participants chose to defy the maxim as some of them uttered the request in a way as a form of a Implicature that there was another hidden agenda behind their requestive behaviour (refer to p.260).

This particular order, of integrating the three theories to justify the participants’ choice of request and the manner of uttering it, gave me a clearer explanation as to how the whole mechanism may functions in the mind of the interlocutors when making requests. It is not merely a verbal reaction but it has gone through a series of consideration and careful thought before the request was made by the speaker and transmitted to the hearer.

Despite all the discussion as to how this model functions in justifying my data, I discovered that there could be other possibilities especially with regards to the Maxims in Grice’s Cooperative Principle for each sub-model that I have formulated. These I was unable to include due to some limitation for instance the word count that has been determined for this thesis.

Apart from the sub-models presented in this thesis, there is another sub-model that I was not able to include due to similar limitation mentioned in the previous paragraph and also due to time constraints. The sub-model concerned is another one of Hofstede’s National
Culture dimensions, the Individual versus Collective dimension which was identified very much later compared to the rest of the dimensions. Hence, I will keep this one for further exploration and publication in the near future.

The CIPRS model significantly helped me answer my third research question which is how do the aspects of social distance (SD), power and dominance (D), gender and status influence the request strategies used by the participants of this study. The first two research questions have been addressed accordingly as well, as in I chose to present the linguistic forms of the request respectively. Initially, I was struggling with the predicament as to whether I should just abort the first two research questions as I was thinking these questions might be better off integrated within the third research question. After a long deliberation, I decided to keep them and attempted to answer them anyway and at the same time addressed the third question. I discovered much later that the first two questions had given me a better understanding in finalizing the analysis as the three questions complement each other. It was almost impossible to disregard the linguistic aspects of the request from the requestive behaviour itself. In other words, the use of internal and external modification, the use of phatic utterances in making requests and the choice of request strategy are imperative in determining how a speaker realized his/her requests according to all the social aspects he/she needs to observe when making a request. I believe up to this point, the findings of this study are sufficient enough to give some insights in to the realization of requestive behaviour among second language learners in the setting that I have chosen that is within an English speaking country, particularly in the UK. However, there are still some misgivings with regard to the
sample that I managed to recruit for this study. Ideally, I would have preferred a more diversified sample, but unfortunately, due to several constraints that I may not be able to present here, the sample that I had for this particular study was a little askewed towards East Asian participants with only one from the Latin America continent. The exercise of having to recruit the participants proved to be quite a challenge as some of the participants of the DCT reported feeling quite intimidated to participate in the follow-up discussion because they feared the fact that they had to converse in English and that their discussion would be recorded. Although I found this a bit frustrating I still had to respect their decision and abide to it as they were given the choice not to participate in the discussion if they chose not to as established in the ethical consideration.

Another pressing issue that cannot be avoided is the nature of the DCT that has been used as an instrument to collect the data for this study. It cannot be denied that the best data ought to be collected in a natural setting without any intervention from the researcher as recommended by Labov (1972). According to him, authentic data should be collected in a natural setting where the participants are observed using the language without any interruption from the researcher. However, due to some unavoidable constraints I was not able to afford the necessary time and opportunity to cater for such consideration as discussed in Chapter 3 (p.102-107). I have also highlighted the advantages of the DCT in collecting large samples and despite its misgivings the DCT has continually been used in cross-cultural research up till 2015 as presented in Chapter 3 (p. 135-138).
Overall, the analysis of my data was made easy through this model as it gave me a clearer sense of direction as to how I should interpret what my participants had wanted me to comprehend. It’s an interesting process no doubt, to be able to connect and relate their perception of the politeness theory and how they practise it in their daily interaction.

5.4 Evaluation of the Study

No doubt it was not all perfect; there were some setbacks of course, especially during the recruitment of the participants. It was quite frustrating as there were a few occasions (for the discussion) where I had to wait for hours and they did not turn up and sometimes there was only one person who managed to attend and I had to conduct the session anyway. There were times when only two out five would turn up but we nevertheless managed to handle the discussion because they were very positive and when some even told me that it would be alright to carry on even though they were just two of them for the discussion, I nearly burst into tears! They were very nice and genuinely concerned and I was very happy to have the opportunity to know them even for that one short occasion. The outcome of that particular incident actually brought a few participants who actually volunteered to participate in my follow up discussion and I think the two of them had probably done something to convince the rest to be involved as well. A blessing in disguise.

The administration of the DCT went well for both sessions and I think the participants were happy to answer the DCT because they could maintain anonymity. Unfortunately, they were not very keen on participating in the follow up discussion because they felt
intimidated by the language and by being recorded as well. I believe they were a bit 
insecure and lacking in self-confidence to be involved in something as open and public as 
the follow up discussion. Another reason would probably be that since this was on a 
voluntary basis they did not feel obligated to participate, hence, they did not wish to 
volunteer. The initial plan for the follow up discussion was to involve more MA students 
who were from the Language Module but I only had two participants who were really 
interested to be involved and the rest were actually from the Psychology Module and the 
Globalisation Module. Truthfully, I was not prepared for that to happen and honestly, I 
did not prepare any backup plan that could help me recruit more participants. I was not 
sure how to manage that I suppose. Eventually, after the fifth group, it was agreed that I 
had enough data to proceed with the analysis. I was relieved because it was a real torture 
thinking I may have to continue looking for more participants and I had run out of 
resources. It was a painful experience but I am grateful that it happened and it was indeed 
a good experience for me because I had never faced this kind of a problem before. It has 
always been very easy to get participants for research in my university back home. I had 
probably taken things for granted that things would work out the same and when it did 
not I was a bit taken aback. It was a good lesson to learn.

The data retrieved from the DCT was good and I managed to get a very good amount of 
information that I could use to analyse and discuss in my findings. Since I am very 
familiar with the DCT, it was not something that is new to me unlike the follow-up 
discussion which I found really interesting. I think the reason why I enjoyed it so much 
was probably because it was all very new to me; the environment, the sample and
probably the method too. I had done interviews before but it was never as exciting. Another reason could probably be due to the fact that I had always been involved in quantitative research with thousands of questionnaires but had done no qualitative research. Hence, it was very new to me and I now believe that qualitative research is very interesting too especially if it involves group discussions, as it actually opens up a whole new perspective and revenue. It is interesting to be up close and personal with the participants in a group giving them the freedom to just talk and share stories and it is very different from a one person interview because you will not have that moment of sharing and exchanging information with others. In addition to that, the data from the focus group discussion was very helpful and the participants gave me more input than I have ever hoped for. They have provided the kind of information that I may never retrieve from the DCT by itself because at the point of the discussion they had personalized the responses by bringing in their experiences and share stories related to their background, culture and values. The best part is each and every one of the Situations provided by the DCT, would initiate different stories relating to their childhood, recent trip abroad, their friends, their families, their fears and concerns. In other words, they put life into the data. It was no longer a detached and dry set of data, something you see on a piece of paper, very impersonal but filled with colourful stories and I can still remember the laughter and funny retorts made by some of the participants during the discussion.

The other thing I have identified in this study is that the participants actually tried to hold on to some of their own culture and values that they are brought up with. One example taken from the focus group discussion is that B.2 believed that being respectful is very
important to her because that was how she was raised, “That’s being respect[ful] ... I’ve been taught that is respect. Yeah I think it’s culture ...” The last statement was said to sort of ensure herself that there are different cultures that may perceive respect differently. This is in reference to Situation 12 where the speaker had to ask the grandfather not to smoke in the train (Chapter 4, p.230). Another participant, D.5, agreed with B.2 and her reaction was that “I won’t speak in that way to my grandpa because that way kind of make him feel embarrass[ed] ... because he is elder people.” It is evident that even though they were at that particular moment living in the different country, with a different environment and a different way of uttering requests, they still feel that sense of obligation to keep and practise the values that they had been brought up with. They find it necessary not to adopt the new values that they have been exposed to can be seen in the expression of “I won’t …” and “I have been taught to respect” showing that they were very adamant to keep and salvage that value that they had been taught and had practised before. I believe this is important as there is a need to maintain the good values that have been taught by our society no matter where we may be because that is the only way to keep the connection alive.

The findings of this study may not be very comprehensive enough to generalize or assume that these findings may appear similar in other contexts. Nevertheless, I do think that for everybody, regardless of their culture, values or which country they come from, there must be some shared understanding where politeness is concerned, particularly as it assists in creating harmony. Hence, the idea of maintaining solidarity within a society would be something that everybody would wish to practise. It would be interesting to use
the model that I have formulated in a different context and discover what kind of reaction it would produce. It would definitely help to improve the model further. As mentioned in Chapter 3, I have planned to apply the findings of this study to one of the courses offered by my faculty and I believed this would help give the students some insights as to how to interact and at the same time maintain solidarity. It would also be useful to share some of the findings from the focus group discussion so that they would be able to have a general idea of what politeness is all about and how people react to it as well as when to avoid it if it poses any form of threat (refer to Chapter 4, p.239-244).

I have also come to an understanding that, though it is not easy being a second language learner in an English speaking country, these participants had somehow managed to negotiate their L1 (mother tongue), their culture and their background, to maintain solidarity and harmony in their everyday interactions. It is indeed a beautiful process which I have managed to capture albeit in a very small but distinctive capacity.

5.5 Recommendation for future research

The use of politeness in an intercultural setting is an intriguing and complex thing. My study has only explored one aspect of intercultural communication that can only try to explain one portion of what is out there. Nevertheless, there are still so many interesting factors that have emerged from this study that I would like to pursue in the near future.

The first consideration is to explore the theory further by involving a data collection in natural setting and to witness a natural interactive occurrence where a respondent would
react and use request strategies in a proper setting, for example, at an information counter or in a lecturer’s office observing students coming in and out asking or requesting for something. One consideration that I have in mind is to observe one particular setting which involves making requests involving lecturers and their students. A few considerations would have to be taken into account, of course, with regard to the sample: how many participants, i.e. for both students and lecturers, the location as well as the gender of both the samples and some consideration should also be made regarding the time for each data collection sessions. Proper arrangements should be made according to the convenience of both parties. Their conversation would be recorded in an authentic setting without any interruption from the researcher and some ethical considerations should also be clarified, for instance the participants should be made aware of their rights as discussed in Chapter 3 (p.153-156).

Another aspect that I would like to further enquire is the use of social networks in requesting. It would be interesting to unravel how requesting is being realized via social media such as Facebook or the Twitter which have not been considered in the present research. One disadvantage of this, however, is that it might not be considered as authentic data occurring in a natural interaction setting and it would be in a written form. This might be another issue that would be quite similar to one faced by the DCT unless there is some literature that might say otherwise, which hence requires some readings on current researches in social networking studies. Some intricate ethical issues may also need to be considered as the social network users are only virtually visible, hence some form of consent must be established before data collection can be carried out.
The findings of this study could also assist in creating some awareness for the administrative department, particularly the department which has to deal with the well-being of the students in any institution of higher learning, especially if the institutions concern has a large intake of international students. The administrative department would need to understand the international students’ communicative behaviour in order to assist them with their basic necessities, i.e. information regarding how to open a bank account or how to get to the nearest grocery shop. I do feel that the staff of the student services department should be provided with some form of seminars or workshops that would give them some insights on what to expect and how to manage students with different culture and ethnic backgrounds. The department could also assist in making the international students’ life easier by probably providing the students with a survival toolkit or manual (e.g. a local phrase book they could refer to) that could help them survive in their daily routines.

5.6 Conclusion

As I approach the final stage of this study, I am glad that I am fortunate enough to be part of this process of being enlightened by how people manage to communicate in a multicultural setting. It was an amazing feeling to sit in a room with a room of people from different cultures and backgrounds, talking about making requests, sharing experiences and laughing at each other’s jokes. Personally, I think the data collection, especially the follow-up discussion was the best part of all.
I would like to conclude this chapter with a saying by the Prophet Muhammad.

“The example of the believers in their affection, mercy and compassion for each other is that of a body. When any aches, the whole body reacts with sleeplessness and fever.” (Al Bukhari, 5665)
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APPENDIX ONE

DISCOURSE COMPLETION TEST

QUESTIONNAIRE TO BE COMPLETED BY NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH

AGE : ____________________   SEX: ____________________

PROGRAM: __________________

Instructions:

Twelve situations are described below. Please read the description of each situation and write what you would say (if anything) in that situation in the quotations marks (“___”) as if you were speaking. Say as much or as little as you wish – you may also choose to say nothing. Remember to use the exact words of what you would say if you were there and in that position.

There are no right or wrong answers and sometimes more than one answer might be appropriate. It is important that you understand the situation fully. If there is something you do not understand, ask your teacher and he will explain it to you.

If you would be prepared to take part in a follow up focus group to discuss some of the issues arising from this survey, please add your email address.

Email address: ____________________________________________

Thank you for participating in this study!
Situations

1. Alan, Zak’s flatmate, had a few friends over for discussion the night before and left the living/dining room in a mess. Tonight, Zak is having some friends for dinner and they wouldn’t be comfortable being in a messy living/dining room. Imagine you are Zak. What would you say to Alan to clear up the living/dining room?
“__________________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________”

2. Linda, a young woman, is walking down the street. A man starts walking next to her and talking to her. She doesn’t like this. Imagine you are Linda. What do you say to get rid of the man who is pestering you?
“__________________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________”

3. Alex, a student, was sick and missed one of the classes he is enrolled in. He would like to borrow another student’s notes. The other student’s name is June. Imagine you are Alex. What do you say to get June to lend you her notes for the class you have missed?
“__________________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________”

4. Simon, a student, has been to the library. It is late at night and he wants to go back home. Some people who live in the same street as him are also at the library and they have a car. Imagine you are Simon. What would you say to these people to get them to give you a lift home?
“__________________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________”
5. Sue is looking for a job. She reads a job advertisement in a newspaper. She is interested in it, but she would like to know further details, so she phones the company offering the job. Imagine you are Sue. What would you say to the woman who answers the phone to get them to send you the information?

“__________________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________”

6. Sarah, a woman going shopping, has just parked her car in front of the shop. It is a ‘no parking’ area. As she is leaving the car, a traffic warden approaches her. Imagine you are the traffic warden. What would you say to Sarah to get her to move her car from the ‘no parking’ area?

“__________________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________”

7. Isaac, a student, has to hand in a seminar paper to his teacher, Mrs. Nathaniel, tomorrow, but he hasn’t finished writing it. Imagine you are Isaac. What would you say to Mrs. Nathaniel to get her to give you an extension for finishing the paper?

“__________________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________”

8. Annie, a university student, has to give a presentation in class next week. Her professor, Dr. Zimmerman, thinks that her presentation will fit in much better with his lessons if she gave it a week earlier. Imagine you are Dr. Zimmerman. What would you say to Annie for her to present a week earlier that planned?

“__________________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________”
9. Matthew, is playing tennis at the university tennis court, one afternoon with a friend. Unfortunately, he is just a beginner and is not very good. At one point during the game, he accidentally hits the ball over the fence into the next court where some children are playing. He needs the ball back. Imagine you are Matthew. What would you say to the children playing in the next court to give the ball back to you?

__________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________

10. After a hard day studying, Norman decides to go over to McDonald’s with his younger brother, Andrew. They walk in and sit down at a table. The restaurant is crowded with people who want to get drinks and Norman feels too tired to queue for theirs, so he wants his brother to get the drinks. Imagine you are Norman. What would you say to Andrew to get him to bring you a drink?

__________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________

11. Daniel has just parked his car in front of the building where he has an appointment for a job interview in five minutes. He reaches into his pocket for some change for the parking meter and finds he has only a £5 note. A traffic warden is fast approaching. An older woman dressed as a waitress gets out of the car in front of him. Imagine that you are Daniel and approach her to ask for a change. What would you say to her to get her to give you the change?

__________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________
12. Michael and his grandfather are going by train from Nottingham to London. After a while his
grandfather lights a cigarette. Imagine you are Michael. What would you say to your
grandfather to get him to put out his cigarette?
“__________________________________________________________________________
_________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________
”
APPENDIX TWO

DCT SAMPLE FROM PARTICIPANT

DISCOURSE COMPLETION SURVEY

QUESTIONNAIRE TO BE COMPLETED BY NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS OF
ENGLISH

AGE: 24
SEX: Female
PROGRAM: MA EDUCATION

Instructions:

Twelve situations are described below. Please read the description of each situation and write what you would say (if anything) in that situation in the quotations marks (" ") as if you were speaking. Say as much or as little as you wish — you may also choose to say nothing. Remember to use the exact words of what you would say if you were there and in that position.

There are no right or wrong answers and sometimes more than one answer might be appropriate. It is important that you understand the situation fully. If there is something you do not understand, ask your teacher and he will explain it to you.

If you would be prepared to take part in a follow up focus group to discuss some of the issues arising from this survey, please add your email address.

Email address: JQ3kw@Gmail.com

Thank you for participating in this study!
Situations

1. Alan, Zak’s flatmate, had a few friends over for discussion the night before and left the living/dining room in a mess. Tonight, Zak is having some friends for dinner and they wouldn’t be comfortable being in a messy living/dining room. Imagine you are Zak. What would you say to Alan to clear up the living/dining room?

   “Alan, could we talk about something? I am wondering whether I have something to bother you when I am staying here or not. Actually, I have one. How about we clean up our dining room right after using this?”

2. Linda, a young woman, is walking down the street. A man starts walking next to her and talking to her. She doesn’t like this. Imagine you are Linda. What do you say to get rid of the man who is pestering you?

   “Sorry, I want to walk by myself. Could you please respect some privacy?”

3. Alex, a student, was sick and missed one of the classes he is enrolled in. He would like to borrow another student’s notes. The other student’s name is June. Imagine you are Alex. What do you say to June to lend you her notes for the class you have missed?

   “Hey June, how was the class? I really love to go to the class but I was sick yesterday. I don’t want to miss the contents too for next class. If you can, could you please borrow your notes for me? It would be really helpful for me to follow up the class.”
4. Simon, a student, has been to the library. It is late at night and he wants to go back home. Some people who live in the same street as him are also at the library and they have a car. Imagine you are Simon. What would you say to these people to get them to give you a lift home?

"Hello, what did you study until now? Oh, I have an important test so I didn't study too. I didn't know that it was so late now. If you can, could you give me a ride to the street?"

5. Sue is looking for a job. She reads a job advertisement in a newspaper. She is interested in it, but she would like to know further details, so she phones the company offering the job. Imagine you are Sue. What would you say to the woman who answers the phone to get them to send you the information?

"Hello, this is Sue. I called you because I am interested in your job advertisement, that is why but I have a few things to know more about it. Could you please tell me about it?"

6. Sarah, a woman going shopping, has just parked her car in front of the shop. It is a 'no parking' area. As she is leaving the car, a traffic warden approaches her. Imagine you are the traffic warden. What would you say to Sarah to get her to move her car from the 'no parking' area?

"Hello, Miss. I am afraid that you parked in no parking area, so could you move your car to parking area? This creates some traffic jams or accidents."

7. Isaac, a student, has to hand in a seminar paper to his teacher, Mrs. Nathaniel, tomorrow, but he hasn’t finished writing it. Imagine you are Isaac. What would you say to Mrs. Nathaniel to get her to give you an extension for finishing the paper?

"Hello, Mrs. Nathaniel, I am doing my best to complete my seminar paper, but I had a lot of things to say. I am struggling, it is not worse. Could you give me an extension for this paper? I am so sorry for asking extension but I don't want to submit an incomplete paper which I don't like."
8. Annie, a university student, has to give a presentation in class next week. Her professor, Dr. Zimmerman, thinks that her presentation will fit in much better with his lessons if she gave it a week earlier. Imagine you are Dr. Zimmerman. What would you say to Annie for her to present a week earlier that planned?

“Hello Annie. How is your presentation going? Actually, your presentation would be fit more in this week. If you can, could you present your work in this week? It will be more helpful for your class.”

9. Matthew, is playing tennis at the university tennis court, one afternoon with a friend. Unfortunately, he is just a beginner and is not very good. At one point during the game, he accidentally hits the ball over the fence into the next court where some children are playing. He needs the ball back. Imagine you are Matthew. What would you say to the children playing in the next court to give the ball back to you?

“Hello, I accidentally hit the ball onto your courts. Sorry to interrupt your playing. Could you please throw the ball here for me?”

10. After a hard day studying, Norman decides to go over to McDonald’s with his younger brother, Andrew. They walk in and sit down at a table. The restaurant is crowded with people who want to get drinks and Norman feels too tired to queue for theirs, so he wants his brother to get the drinks. Imagine you are Norman. What would you say to Andrew to get him to bring you a drink?

“Hey Andrew. I am so tired now. Could you bring me a drink instead of me? It will be some experience to order and get drinks. Sorry Andrew.”
11. Daniel has just parked his car in front of the building where he has an appointment for a job interview in five minutes. He reaches into his pocket for some change for the parking meter and finds he has only a £5 note. A traffic warden is fast approaching. An older woman dressed as a waitress gets out of the car in front of him. Imagine that you are Daniel and approach her to ask for a change. What would you say to her to get her to give you the change?

"Hello. I am sorry to interrupt you, but I am so urgent to do my interview and the change is so critical for me. But I have lack my change for parking. Could you please borrow some change? I will give you my phone number and I will give you back or if you let me know your working place, I will get you back a while his grandfather lights a cigarette. Imagine you are Michael. What would you say to your grandfather to get him to put out his cigarette?

"Grandpa, Grandpa, I understand you want to get some air, but lighting a cigarette could make people uncomfortable and it is not allowed. I will buy you a drink, please put out your cigarette Grandpa. Sorry."
APPENDIX 3
SCRIPT TAKEN FROM VIDEO

1. SITUATION 1
   Clean up the kitchen/living room.

   Script : Hi Alan! Did you have a good night last night? I’m having some friends over tonight, so it will be really great if you tidy up. I’ll help you if you need me too.

2. SITUATION 2
   Stranger

   Script : Excuse me, I’m sorry to be rude but you’re invading my personal space.

3. SITUATION 3
   Lecture notes

   Scripts : Sorry to bother you. I was wondering if I could borrow your notes on the days I was sick. It would be a great help.

4. SITUATION 4
   Lift Home

   Script : What time are you leaving? I was just wondering if there’s a space in your car, so I could get a lift?

5. SITUATION 5
   Information

   Script : Hello. I saw an advertisement in the newspaper and I’m looking to find more information about it. Do you know who I should speak to, please?

6. SITUATION 6
   Traffic Warden

   Script : Excuse me but parking is not permitted here. If you leave your car here I will need to give you a ticket.

7. SITUATION 7
Paper extension

Script: I’m so, so sorry but I haven’t managed to do it to a point that I felt it’s appropriate yet. I could hand it in but it won’t be a true reflection of my ability. Please let me know if there’s any chance I could get an extension.

8. SITUATION 8
   Early presentation

   Script: How are getting on with your presentation? If you’re able, I really think it would work better this week but only if you feel comfortable it would give you enough time.

9. SITUATION 9
   Tennis

   Script: Sorry to bother your kids, but I’ve thrown my ball over your fence. Do you think you could chuck it back, please?

10. SITUATION 10
    McDonalds

    Script: Andy could you grab me a drink as well? Here’s some change, tell me if it’s not enough.

11. SITUATION 11
    Change for meter

    Script: Sorry, I’m having a nightmare! I’ve got a job interview in a few minutes and I’ve had a morning from hell! Errr…do you have change for a 5 pound.

12. SITUATION 12
    Smoke on train

    Script: Grandad, I’ve seen some signs that say you can’t smoke on here. You better put it out.
## APPENDIX 4

### FOLLOW-UP DISCUSSION

**TRANSCRIPTION**

**INTERVIEW WITH G.1**

**VIDEO VIEWING**

**Discussion/interview**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Alright! So what do you think?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Uuuuhhh....what...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>I think he’s checking the electricity or something</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Aaah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Alright..ok..let’s see..what is your opinion of all those...do you want to go through it one by one?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Uuuuhhhh...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Basically it all boils down to this idea...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Yeah.. I can answer broadly according to these questions..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Yeah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Ok..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>You can actually give instances..say if you feel like there’s something there that you’d like to highlight. You can go....we can go through that...I hope this works...alright? So what do you think?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Hmmm.. so..I think..um..they..these 12 situations..most of the...most of the answers are very polite..um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>ok</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>And..the..um..I think they are very polite because they state their situations to the person they ask. So.. ah..the person understands why..ah..why they think that they request are..at the same time..hmm..they ask the person’s favour very politely..ah..the first situation impressed me the most</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>uu-huh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>The girl..yeah..the..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>The first one?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Kitchen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Do you want to look at it again? Oh yeah!! The one in the kitchen?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>The one in the kitchen..the kitchen..is..aaa..not tidy up..and she...ask her roommate..aah..whether she..wants to..uum..she asked her roommate whether she can tidy up the kitchen...at the same time..aana..she says if..aa..and she would like to help to tidy up. I think this is a very polite way..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mmm-hmmm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>So her roommate will think.. “aah yes..I did..I have something not be completed and disturb you but now you’d like to help me...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>You don’t mind helping me as well..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Yeah..yeah..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Yeah..ok..that’s good.....so that’s the best one?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Yeah..this one impressed me most because... aah...she provide the help to the one she request from...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>So like.. a solution or something...is that what you mean?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Yes..like a solution or something..eventhough it is caused by you...I can help you resolve it...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Oooh..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>...together</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Yeaaa! That's good!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Yeah..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Ok...anymore...eer...what about the rest?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>I remember the boy..,she wants to borrow the notes from his..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>..friend?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>..ya..classmates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>mmm-hmmmm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>I remember, the boy..she/he just want..just ask to borrow the notes but he didn’t say why she..why he missed the class first..so..uum..I guess maybe he can state..why..the reason why he missed the class first to let her..his classmates to understand the reason and then borrow the notes..they will help.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>mmm-hmmmm.ok...so..alright you’re saying you want the person at least if you were the lady...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>yeah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>The friend..you want to know you missed the class in the first place then there’s a probability I might just lend you my notes?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Yees..yeah that would be more polite and not like this way..to directly asked without a reason</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>..ok..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>..yeah..and mmmmm...in my mind I think... eer... when you ask a favour from.. from uh other people you need to le..make them know that... ooh... why they need to help you and why you need their help</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>..yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>..so state the reason first then other people will think about it in their mind and then to give you the answers but not ask directly at first ...oh could you give a favour... without a reason</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Ook..alright..is it like uum..is because of a..uum..what eee.. uh..sort of like a format that you follow or is it something like it depends on the person you’re talking to?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>mmmmm..I think aah... i....aaaaar...I prefer the...all my friends...uum..I think it does not depend on which person. Eventhough, the person is very close to me we have a very close relationship ...uum...when he or she ask me to help her ..uum..i would like to know..know the situation...first...yeah..i know, you know I will help you..you’re my close friend but I would like to know why..what’s your situation that in this case I can give you more help to help you in a better way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Oooo..that's nice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>...yeah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Ok good.Soo..next one..again it depends...like..even if it’s with your friends..you’d still want to see..know the reasons..like..clearly..what happens..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>...yeah..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>...alright..ok apart from that?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>..hmmmm..can I go through other situations?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>..sure...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>What do you think of that one <em>(referring to the video clip of situation: stranger)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Hmm...yes I think... ummm I think the way she to the strange person I like her way... because uuum...she said sorry, maybe it’s rude but some kind of apology to the strange person and give the reason that you intrude my personal space and this is aar...a true reason...and aar...to a strange person this sounds like...aar very official but aar and so it is very powerful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>..formal in that sense..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Yeah...but aar...because this is aaa...strange person..uum...you give a formal response that will...aar make the strange person think yeah..oooh! maybe I’ve intrude your personal space..and I think..uummm...this depends on the..uum...strange person..this..if a effective way to stop him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>You mentioned that you’ve had this experience..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Yeah!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>...so what did you do?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>I didn’t do as ... as good as this girl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Yeah...so what did you do?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>I remember that time as I was walking on the street and there’s a uuum...a young man following me and the she..she asked me to have a drink with...with him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>mm-hmm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>...I was quite annoyed at that time but I don’t know how to..how to say something like this so formal and official so effective..i just say “aaah..no..no..no! please..no!” just say like this</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Did it actually work? Did he move away?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>At the beginning it didn’t work. He followed me...for...continue...for a few metres...and the...and I..turned and said to him...”no please leave me...and last..i said with some very tough...toughly...&quot;NO PLEASE LEAVE ME!” ...like this...aaaah..uumm...and..finally he left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>..that’s it? He didn’t follow you or do anything, did he?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>No! (laugh)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>(laugh)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>He left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Ok that’s scary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>I think of our non English... native English Speakers when we come across such situations, the most difficulty for us is as a non English native speaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>..speaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Yes because the difficulty is that we..uumm..we do not know how to say some very powerful and effective to stop such situation. We want to pr..protect ourselves..but aah..we have the language difficulties..uumm...so in this case we..uumm the only way we can do this is to show through our face expressions...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Yeaaaah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>...or the tones when we speak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>..yes!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Ummm...to show our angry and impatience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>So that it doesn’t mean you have to be polite about it huh? In that sense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Aah! In that case I don’t need in politeness (laugh)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>You don’t have to be polite in that sense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Security is the most...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>important thing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
G | important thing
N | Yes! Exactly! Do you want to see the other...
G | Ok..
N | Ok so this the parking metre..

**Viewing**

G | I didn’t quite understand why he said, “I had a nightmare...” at first?
N | Ok that’s just probably an explanation. Maybe he was offering the reason why he need help. Remember you mentioned earlier that you need to give some reasons why do you need help so that people would be more receptive to your request
G | So he wanted to show that he prepared all night for the interview?
N | Yeah..probably...
G | Huh..
N | He was nervous maybe because he was really uptight with the interview so
G | Aa’aaah
N | ..so everything was like..so you know get in the way
G | Aaaah.ok yeah..hmmm.,yes.,aaa.,he also state his situation first to the other person know his difficulties and do he really needs some helps from others ..so..aa..yes..i think this is a good way and it will not cause any..aah...any impatience or un..unwillingness
N | Hmm..
G | I think most people like to help
N | Yes..generally right?
G | Definetly (laugh)
N | (laugh)
G | Ok good! Alright.. this the next one

**Viewing**

N | Ok
G | Hmm..yeah..uuh..maybe..I think maybe she can..aar..say further..because that aaaa..because I leave near you
N | ...your house..
G | ..yeah..yeah..so..ah..in this way I think..aa..is..it will help more likely the person will help give her a lift
N | ...because he or she knows that she lives somewhere near
G | Yeah..yeah..
N | Ok..
G | Hhh..
N | Ok..what about the..if let’s say for example given just that.. would you help her?
G | Yeah..very polite I think..
N | She didn’t actually you where she lives but she just say..”can I get a lift form you?”
G | ..and I also thought from her face express...?
N | Face expression?
G | Yeah..other people might feel...yeah maybe you really in need of some help
N | ..really desperate (laugh)
G | (laugh)
N | So you would help?
G | ..hmm..
N | Probably because of the look on her face?
---|---
G | ..yeah..
N | Alright..so this is the next one

**Viewing**

G | I like the last sentence..he says..”Do you know who can I speak to?” and..this is an interact way to ask for the information but I think it is a very smart way
---|---
N | Yeah..other than just explaining and then ok..i’ll direct you to the so..so..he is saying directly..”can I just please get the right name of the person who can give me the information
G | Yeah..rather than ask for the right person who answer the phone “can you give me some information maybe that is not the person who
N | Yeah..!
G | ..is not the person who answers the phone who knows the answer
N | Oooh yeah..yeah..great..now I know what you mean
G | Aaah
N | Yes that’s true...
G | Very clever way...ok
N | Good! Anything else?..Do you want to...this is like what? Probably on the phone
G | ...sorry?
N | I guess he was talking with someone on the phone..or face to face
G | I think it is on the phone maybe
N | Yeah probably.. Ok...next one...
G | Ooo...the ticket?

**Viewing**

N | Well..if you have a traffic warden like that...
---|---
G | You have similar situation...
N | No, I’ve never had that before but if you have like that..with that kind of a...what
G | Yeah.. I think... I may ask... “...can I just park here for a few minutes..aaa.. I don’t want a ticket
N | You’d say that to her?
G | Yeay
N | But doesn’t give you the right effect but if you look at her facial expression on her face?
G | Yeah...
N | Doesn’t it give you the...would you feel like intimidated by her..don’t you feel...with her looking at you with that expression...doesn’t she scare you?
G | ...nnnooo..I think I would like to convey the idea...I want you to park your car but I have no way to help you but I am the law
N | Ok how did you get that? From her reaction?
G | Hmmm...From the..she..what do you call...
N | Eyebrows?
G | Yeah..from her face to show that..i don’t know..i’m struggling
N | Ok..did she give you that impression?
G | i...ummm..yea..i...ummm..yes
N | Would you like to have a look at it again? It’s interesting if she can give you that kind of impression...ok

**viewing**

G | Ok..i guess I misunderstood!
N | (laugh)
G | I guess ...this is my first thinking...after my second looking...and her face..i think she
<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>didn’t show any face expression...ha...yeah.. she looks very strict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Exactly! Does it give you that effect? But she doesn’t actually...how... the way that she said but she doesn’t sound really angry or anything</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>From her face and her words...I can’t read any information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Yes...but if you look at her face...?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>mmm...like she is the rule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Yes exactly...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Yeah..i need to obey the rule otherwise I will have a ticket</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Ok...but it’s like you can still be polite in that sense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>mmm-hmmm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Would you categorize whatever she has said as polite or is it really</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>I don’t think...I would categorize it as polite and official..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>..formal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>But is it really nice can you actually.. feel some emotion there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>..a little bit cold and impossible to change and yes...I think I will not success when negotiating with her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>(laugh)..no..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Viewing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Hmmm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>What do you think about that?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>I think he was really polite...he speaks sorry at first and then...and he’d say would you please...to get it back...yeah it’s quite polite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Considering...considering his situation the one who actually threw the ball over to the other fence...right?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Hmmm...hmmm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Ok...so this one? I think that’s normal...right? For the previous situation...for that to happen?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Sorry?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Do you think that it’s like in a way...in any way...nice? To say in that way?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Aaa? You mean the last one?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Yeah I think it was very nice...if I were the child I would give him that ball</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Ok that’s good...This is a normal situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Haa...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>That’s a normal situation. I think we face that everyday..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Aaaa...she talked about ability...aaa. Did she mean that...if it is beyond her ability to complete it in time?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Yes!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Ok...aar...yeah...mmm...i think aaa..the ability... I don’t like this word very much because the ability has a very broad...very broad meaning...mmm...aaa..it didn’t give the specific reason why...umm..what ability you mean...uumm...I can’t get from her answer that...what sort of difficulty does she have?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Hmm..true..true..yeah?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Hmm...so</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>If you were the lecturer, would you give her the extension?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Hmm..i will ask her first the questions to confirm and then to decide (laugh)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>(laugh) just to make her feel more miserable you mean?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>(laugh) yeah and she said in the first...&quot;I am so...so... sorry&quot; and there’s double so ..i think...ooo..aa..hmmm..if I were the tutor..i would..i want some more to...to know</td>
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</table>
the situation more and in this case maybe I can help her? To tackle her problems

But you give..but considering the things she has said..would it have made any difference from what you would say?

Hmmm...let me think about it...

(laugh) would you even ask for an extention? Or would you just try and cramp the whole night and do it anyway?

Hmmm..if I think I can’t complete it even for a whole night I will ask for an extension..aaa.. but I will state more clearly aa..what was the reason to not complete it

Mmm-hmm

(whisper) Yea

And then you would like...say for example if your tutor would not..sy like..“no you just don’t have time and just submit whatever you have

Hmmm..i will..i would try to...to email my tutor and ask “if I can see you to discuss it.”

Yes!

(laugh)

..and hopefully he would give you the extension. Alright..ok

Viewing

It’s fun! (laugh) I see some science he say?

Ah-ha?

Did he means science?

No he said signs...you know those no smoking labels..signs on trains?

haa

So he was actually referring to that actually

Yeah..it’s a straight forward way to stop his grandfather from smoking ..i think..yaa..it’s a direct way to do this and...uum.. cause he is the grandson...and aaaa.. I think after that his grandfather will light out the cigarette

Would you say that to your grandfather if it were you?

Yeah

But..ok it’s considered as alright?

Yeah. It’s alright yeah they are quite familiar with each other

Yeah definitely but you’re talking to somebody really older in that sense

Hmmm..maybe more politely..if it’s strange not the grandfather..maybe i would say..“Excuse me I see the...aaaaa...

No smoking sign..?

Yeah..aarr..would you please...would you mind..?like this

So if it’s with your grandfather it’s ok?

Yeah it’s ok

Alright...

That’s you as a lecturer...

She’s quite polite and she leaves me to decide if I think it’s ok then we can do it this week but aar if you..if it makes me any uncomfortable and it will not..yeah I think she leaves me the...the..the right to..to..

mummm

To decide for myself..i like this...

Oooh ok

Yeah

So if you are the lecturer would you say that?
| G | mmmmm..maybe I am not able to say like this |
| N | But would you give the choice |
| G | Ya..ya.. |
| N | ..or option |
| G | Ya I would give the choice |
| N | So it’s a good way to do it |
| G | Yes it is the right choice |
| N | Ok let’s look at this one |

**VIEWING**

| G | So the person he’s asking is his brother? |
| N | Yaa |
| G | Aaaa..so they are quite familiar..i don’t think there’s any problem with his request |
| N | So it’s ok? |
| G | Yes |
| N | Would you label that as polite? Would you ask your brother to do that? |
| G | Hmmm..yeah it’s ok..ya it polite and coz he said “would you..” and it’s aa..ask and not a demand if he says “grab me a drink..” without any “could you..’ or ‘would you...question mark” then it would be impolite |
| N | Alright..overall would you like to..you know like... |
| G | Summarize...? |
| N | Ya..it’s not like summarize but sort of like give it an impression of the whole idea of being...being polite..if that make sense.. |
| G | Yaa from this situation I feel that..if..if you want to be polite..firstly, you have to..aar..you have to let others know that you are in a difficult situation and you really need the help from others so you need to state your situation very clearly..and then..aar..be careful with your choice of words like “could you..mind...” or “do you mind...?” “could you..aa..please..?” the words like these..aar..”excuse me..sorry...” like this and also the plan is...to be polite you leave people to decide if they can help you if not. They..they..is not a demand but is the choice you give the person the choice if they don’t help you..you still need to appreciate them and the respect and to...understand the other person’s situation |
| N | So this is like in any situation no matter where you are this would be the kind of understanding that you would have |
| G | In general this is the..yeah...the way to show politeness |
| N | ..regardless of who you are talking to... |
| G | Oooh..i think it depends..if that person is your family members that you are very familiar with umm..maybe...your request sentences can be more brief not use very official very formal words. In this way..it may..cause your family member to be uncomfortable..“why are you behave so formally today??” |
| (laugh) |
| N | Being polite in that sense doesn’t mean that you have to be formal |
| G | Aaaah..sometimes between friends and family members you can be more casual but aaar...still need to pay attention to the words you choose..do not use the demand without any “could you” or “would you” this kind of request..eerm...still need to use the polite but use a brief way to show your request from others |
| N | Mmm ok..this is like regardless of where you are you still need to maintain that form |
| G | Yes the politeness is I think necessary in our everyday life and the..in our...interaction with other people |
| N | Mmm |
| G | I think nobody like other people without polite |
| N | Exactly! Thank you!! Thank you Gina |