People's Democratic Republic of Algeria

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

University of Algiers 2 Faculty of Letters and Languages

Department of English Language and Literature

Title

The Impact of the 6Rs Approach on English as Foreign Language Students' Pragmatic Competence with a Focus on Awareness and Production of Appropriate Refusals and Requests : Case of Master I and Third Year Students of English at Setif 02 University

Thesis Submitted in Candidacy for the Degree of Doctorat Es-Sciences in Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching

Submitted By: Houda KHABCHECHE **Supervised by:** Prof. Fatiha HAMITOUCHE

Chairperson:	Pr Nesrine BESSAI-AOUDJIT	Professor	Algiers 2 University
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Examiner:	Pr Abdelhak HAMMOUDI	Professor	ENS El Eulma
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ABSTRACT

In recent studies, Second/Foreign language learners frequently show an imbalance between their pragmatic and grammatical proficiency in their interlanguage, and the most efficient approach to teach pragmatic competence has no clear-cut answer to date. Thus, investigating instructional effectiveness of different teaching approaches and pedagogical frameworks in acquisitional interlanguage pragmatics is necessary. This study investigates the impact of the 6 Rs approach (Researching, Reflecting, Receiving, Reasoning, Rehearsing, and Revising) on students' pragmatic competence regarding requests and refusals to four stimulus types. It adopts an explicit inductive deductive approach, informed by a multi-model theoretical framework. Moreover, the research explores students' perceptions of the pragmatics instruction. A quasi-experimental pre-posttest control group design was adopted. Four intact classes, that consist of 102 intermediate to advanced Master I and third-year (License) students of English divided into 2 experimental (2EGs) and 2 control groups (2CGs), were selected for a 12-session course. Data were collected through written Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs), Pragmatic Awareness Tests (PATs), and Role Plays followed by a Course Feedback Questionnaire (CFQ) to explore participants' perceptions of the instruction. The results revealed that the improvement was noticed in the four aspects of appropriacy, and mostly in strategy choice in the posttests, experimental participants were able to convey their communicative intentions with less efforts following the three aspects of relevance. Besides, significant improvement in learners' pragmatic awareness was identified. The experimental groups recognized the pragmatic violations and could provide appropriate metapragmatic explanations. Moreover, the EGs participants displayed positive perceptions of the pragmatic course designed to enhance their pragmatic competence. Accordingly, this study suggests the incorporation of the 6 Rs approach as a pedagogical framework in the Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) curriculum, teacher education, English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instruction across all the Algerian educational levels.

Keywords: pragmatic competence, pragmalinguistics, sociopragmatics, 6Rs approach, request and refusal speech acts, pragmatic production, metapragmatic awareness, interlanguage pragmatics

DECLARATION OF AUTHENTICITY

I hereby declare that this PhD thesis is all my own work unless otherwise acknowledged in the text, and that it has not been submitted in candidature for any other degree or qualification.

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work. The work presented is under the supervision of Prof HAMMITOUCHE Fatiha.

Venue: Algiers2 University

Candidate: KHABCHECHE Houda.

DEDICATION

To My Family

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

General Introduction

1. Background of the Study 1
2. Statement of the Problem 7
3. Rationale of the Study 9
4. Aims of the Study 12
5. Research Questions 13
6.Research Hypotheses 13
7. Significance of the Study 15
8. Scope of the Study 16
9.Overview of the Methodology 17
10. Operational and Conceptual Definitions 18
11.Structure of the Thesis 20

Chapter One

Pragmatics and Language Learning

Introduction 25
1.1 Concept of Pragmatics 26
1.2 Speech Acts Theory 32
1.3 Politeness Theory 34
1.4 Pragmatic Competence 38
1.4.1 Socio-Pragmatic Knowledge and Pragmalinguistic Ability 40
1.4.2 Pragmatic Failure 44
1.5 Interlanguage Pragmatics 48
1.5.1 Cross-Sectional Studies 51
1.5.2 Longitudinal Studies 54
1.5.3 Studies of Pragmatic Transfer 61
1.6 Pragmatic Features Investigated: Requests and Refusals 64
1.6.1 Speech Act 1 : Requests 65
1.6.1.1 Definition and Characteristics 65
1.6.1.2 Request as an Impositive Act 66

1.6.1.3 Request as a Face-Threatening Act 66
1.6.1.4 Classification Systems for Requests in Interlanguage Pragmatics (Taxonomies)..... 67
1.6.1.5 English Requests in Cross-Cultural and Interlanguage Pragmatics Studies..... 75
1.6.2 Speech Act 2: Refusals 81
1.6.2.1 Definition and Characteristics 81
1.6.2.2 Classification Systems for Refusals in Interlanguage Pragmatics (Taxonomies) 83
1.6.2.3 Refusal Strategies 85
1.6.3 English Refusals in Interlanguage Pragmatics 89
1.7 The Effects of Situational Variables on Speech Act Performance 94
Conclusion 98

Chapter Two

Pragmatics and Language Teaching

Introduction..... 101
2.1 Information-processing and Pragmatic Theoretical Approaches in ILP: Cognition, Relevance and Noticing..... 103
2.1.1 Cognitive Processing Theory..... 103
2.1.2 Bialystok's Two Dimensional Model of Language Use and Proficiency 104
2.1.3 Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis 106
2.1.4 Relevance Theory 109
2.1.4.1 Relevance and Cognition..... 110
2.1.4.2 Relevance and Communication 111
2.1.4.3 Relevance and Comprehension..... 112
2.1.5 The Relationship between Cognition, Noticing and Relevance 114
2.2 Pragmatics and Language Instruction..... 118
2.2.1 The Effectiveness of Pragmatics Instruction 118
2.2.2 Explicit versus Implicit Instruction 124
2.2.3 Inductive vs Deductive Instruction..... 127
2.2.4 Instructional Components : Input, Output, and Feedback 133
2.2.4.1 Input..... 134
2.2.4.2 Output 141
2.2.4.3 Feedback..... 145

2.3 Pedagogical Frameworks to Teach Pragmatics 149
2.3.1 Characteristics of Second and Foreign Language Settings 150
2.3.2 Teaching Speech Acts 152
2.3.3 Techniques to Teach Speech Acts 153
2.3.4Pedagogical Models to Teach Speech Acts 155
2.4 The Pedagogical Framework Adapted in the Current Study: The 6 Rs Approach 159
2.4.1 Researching Phase 159
2.4.2 Reflecting Phase..... 161
2.4.3 Receiving Phase 162
2.4.4 Reasoning Phase 164
2.4.5 Rehearsing Phase 168
2.4.6 Revising Phase 172
2.5 Research on Pragmatics in Second/ Foreign Language Classrooms 173
2.5.1 Data Collection Techniques 173
2.5.1.1 Pragmatic Production 174
2.5.1.2 Pragmatic Comprehension and Perception 182
2.5.1.3 Pragmatic Decision Making 186
2.5.1.4 Learners' Perceptions of the Pragmatics Instruction 189
2.6 Studies Dealing with Pragmatics in Second and Foreign Classrooms 192
2.6.1 Observational Studies 193
2.6.2 Interventional Studies 193
2.7 Previous Related Studies 194
Conclusion 200

Chapter Three

Research Methodology

Introduction 198
3.1 Research Questions 198
3.2 Research Hypotheses 199
3.3 Research Design 200
3.3.1 Experimental Design 201
3.4 Internal Validity 204

3.5 External Validity 206
3.6 Triangulation Design 207
3.7 Case Study 208
3.8 Research Locale 209
3.9 Research Population 209
3.10 Sample and Sampling Technique 210
3.10.1Sampling Criteria 211
3.11Research Participants 211
3.11.1Participants in Exploratory Phase 212
3.11.2 Participants in Pre-experimental Phase 212
3.11.3 Participants in Experimental Phase 213
3.11.4 Participants in Post-experimental Phase 213
3.12 Research Instruments 213
3.12.1 Pearson Placement Test 213
3.12.2 Discourse Completion Task 214
3.12.3 Role Plays…….. 216
3.12.4 Pragmatic Awareness Test 218
3.12.5 Course Feedback Questionnaire 220
3.13 Pilot Testing of Research Instruments 221
3.14 Instructional Treatment 222
3.15 Methods of Data Analysis 229
3.16 Ethical Issues and Considerations 232
Conclusion 234

Chapter Four

Data Analysis and Interpretation

Introduction 236
4.1 Quantitative Analysis of Discourse Completion Task (License Students) 236
4.1.1 Comparison between the Post-test Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups 243
4.2 Quantitative Analysis of the Discourse Completion Tasks (MA Students) 244
4.2.1 Comparison between the Post-test Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups 250
4.3 Qualitative Analysis of Role Plays (License Students) 253

4.4 Qualitative Analysis of Role Plays (MA Students) 263
4.5 Quantitative Analysis of Pragmatic Awareness Test (License Students) 273
4.5.1 Qualitative Analysis of the Justifications Provided by License Students 274
4.5.1.1 Experimental Group (Pre -Test) 274
4.5.1.2 Experimental Group (Post-test) 278
4.5.1. 3 Control Group (Pre-test) 281
4.5.1.4 Control Group (Post-test) 285
4.6 Analysis of Pragmatic Awareness Test (MA Students) 289
4.6.1 Analysis of the Justifications Provided by MA Students 290
4.6.1.1 Experimental Group (Pre-test) 290
4.6.1.2 Experimental Group (Posttest) 293
4.6.1.3 Control Group (Pre Test) 296
4.6.1.4 Control Group (Post test) 299
4.7 Analysis of Course Feedback Questionnaire (License Students) 303
4.7.1 Analysis of Validity and Reliability 303
4.8 Analysis of the Course Feedback Questionnaire (MA Students) 316
Conclusion ……..

Chapter Five

Discussion, Implications and Suggestions for Future Research

Introduction……..... 332
5.1 Discussion of Findings……..……..……332
5.1.1 Instructional Effectiveness of the 6 Rs Regarding Written Production 332
5.1.2 Instructional Effectiveness of the 6 Rs Approach Regarding Oral Production 335
5.1.3 Instructional Effectiveness of the 6 Rs Approach Regarding Pragmatic Awareness 339
5.1.4 Students' Perceptions of the Pragmatic Instruction 344
5.1.5 Discussion of the Findings from the Perspective of Noticing, Cognition and Relevance 344
5.2 Pedagogical Implications and Recommendations 352
5.3 Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research 356
Conclusion 362
General Conclusion 364

References

Appendices

Appendix A:	Written Discourse Completion Task
Appendix B:	DCTs for Native Speakers
Appendix C:	Role Plays
Appendix D:	Pragmatic Awareness Test
Appendix E :	Course Feedback Questionnaire (CFQ)
Appendix F:	Pearson Placement Test
Appendix G:	Intervention Materials
Appendix H :	Transcription Symbols and Sample Transcriptions of Role Plays
Appendix I:	Participant Information Sheet and Consent

Résumé

ملخص

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 Head Act Taxonomy: Direct and Indirect Request Strategies (Source: Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989, p.278-281) 68
Table 2 Request Strategies Presented at Levels of Increasing Directness (Source: Trosborg, 1995, p.205) 69
Table 3 Lexical Downgraders 71
Table 4 Syntactic Downgraders 72
Table 5 Lexical Upgraders 72
Table 6 External Modifiers (Woodfield, 2012, in accordance with Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, and Sifianou, 1999) 74
Table 7 Five Stages of L2 Request Development (Source: Kasper&Rose ,2002,p.140) 76
Table 8 Taxonomy on the Speech Act of Refusing (Source: Salazar & Safont, 2009, p.145) 88
Table 9 Sociological Variables Involved in Face-threating Acts (Source: Brown & Levinson ,1987, p.74) 98
Table 10 The Explicit/Implicit and Inductive/Deductive Matrix (Glaser, 2014, p.60) 129
Table 11 Path to a Suitable Context for a Given Request/ Refusal Form (Martinez & Uso-Juan,2006). 168
Table 12 Video Worksheet (Martinez-Flor &Uso-Juan,2006). 170
Table 13 Class Observation Worksheet (Martinez-Flor &Uso-Juan,2006) 171
Table 14 Pre-/Post-test Quasi-Experimental Design 204
Table 15 The Number of MA Students in the Experimental and Control groups 212
Table 16 The Number of License Students in the Experimental and Control groups 212
Table 17 Classification of Each Situation in DCTs According to Sociolinguistic Variations ... 215
Table 18 Situations of Role Plays 218
Table 19 Classification of Each Situation in PAT According to Social Variations 219
Table 20 An Overview of the Instructional Treatment 223
Table 21 The Criteria of Assessing the Four Aspects of Appropriacy (Hudson , 2001) 229
Table 22 Summary of Research Methodology 233
Table 23 Pre and Post Test Scores of the Control Group (License Students) 237
Table 24 Pre and Post Test Scores of the Experimental Group (License Students). 240
Table 25 Comparison between the Post-test Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups.. 243
Table 26 Pre and Post Test Scores of the Control Group (MA Students) 244
Table 27 Pre and Post Test Scores of the Experimental Group. 247
Table 28 Comparison between the Post Test Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups. 250
Table 29 Comparison between Control and Experimental Group (License Students) 273
Table 30 Justifications Provided by License Students in the Pretest. 276
Table 31 Justifications Provided by License Students in the Post Test 280
Table 32 Justifications Provided by License Students in the Pre Test 284
Table 33 Analysis of the Justifications Provided by License Students in the Posttest 287
Table 34 Comparison between Experimental and Control group in the Post Test (MA Students). 289
Table 35 Justifications Provided by MA Students in the Pre Test 290

Table 36 Analysis of the Justifications Provided by MA Students 293
Table 37 Justifications Provided by MA Students in the Pre Test 296
Table 38 Justifications Provided by MA Students in the Post Test 299
Table 39 Results of Reliability Test 303
Table 40 Results of Validity Test 303
Table 41 The Improvement of License Students' Speaking and Social Interaction Skills 305
Table 42 The Usefulness of the Strategies with Regard to License Students' Speaking Skills. 307
Table 43 The Difficulty Level of the Lessons 1
Table 44 The Difficulty Level of the Face Saving Strategies 310
Table 45 License Students' Comments on the Course. 313
Table 46 MA Students' Speaking Skills and Interaction Skills 317
Table 47 The Usefulness of the Pragmatic Strategies with Regard to MA Students' Speaking Skills 319
Table 48 The Difficulty Level of the Lessons 321
Table 49 The Difficulty Level of the Face Saving Strategies 323
Table 50 MA Students' Comments on the Course. 325

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 Distinction between Pragmalinguistics and Sociopragmatics (Source: Leech, 1983, p.11)..... 31
Figure 2 Possible Options for Doing FTAs (Source: Olshtain and Blum-Kulka, 1985, p. 307, Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 69) 36
Figure 3 The Components of the Speech Act of Requests (Source: Blum Kulka, House and Kasper (1989, p.257-289)..... 75
Figure 4 Decoo's (1996) Modalities of Induction (Source: Glaser, 2014, p.60) 130
Figure 5 A Sample of MCQ Item in Pragmatic Perception (adapted from Matsumura, 2003, p. 469, as cited in Nguyen, 2019)..... 184
Figure 6 A Sample of Scaled-response Questionnaire in Pragmatic Perception (adapted from Takimoto, 2009, as cited in Nguyen, 2019) 185
Figure 7 Distribution of Data Collection Methods (Source: Nguyen, 2019, p.35) 192
Figure 8 Pre-test/Post-test Non-equivalent Group Design (Cohen et al.,2007, p.283) 203
Figure 9 Correct Expressions for 3rd Year Control Group in Pre and Post Tests. 237
Figure 10 Quality of Information for 3rd Year Control Group in Pre and Post Tests. 238
Figure 11 *Strategies Choices of 3rd Year Control Group in Pre and Post Tests* 238
Figure 12 Level of Formality of 3rd Year Control Group in Pre and Post Tests. 239
Figure 13 Correct Expressions for 3rd Year Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests. 241
Figure 14 *Quality of Information for 3rd Year Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests.* 241
Figure 15 Choice of Strategies of 3rd Yea Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests..... 242
Figure 16 Level of Formality of 3rd Year Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests..... 242
Figure 17 Correct Expressions of M1 Control Group in Pre and Post Tests. 245
Figure 18 Quality of Information for M1 Control Group in Pre and Post Tests. 245
Figure 19 Choice of Strategies of M1 Control Group in Pre and Post Tests. 246
Figure 20 Choice of for M1 Control Group in Pre and Post Tests..... 246
Figure 21 Correct Expressions of M1 Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests. 248
Figure 22 Quality of Information of M1 Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests. 248
Figure 23 Choice of Strategies for M1 Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests..... 249
Figure 24 Level of Formality for M1 Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests. 249
Figure 25 Correct Expressions of 3 rd Year Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests..... 251
Figure 26 Quality of Information for 3rd Year Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests. 251
Figure 27 Choice of Strategies of 3rd Year Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests. 252
Figure 28 Level of Formality of 3rd Year Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests..... 252
Figure 29 Comparison between Control and Experimental Group in the Post Test (License Students) . 273
Figure 30 Comparison between Experimental and Control group in the Post Test (MA Students). 289
Figure 31 The Improvement of License Students' Speaking Skills and Social Interaction Skills. 306
Figure 32 The Usefulness of the Pragmatic Strategies with Regard to License Students' Speaking Skills. 307
Figure 33 The Difficulty Level of Lessons. 309
Figure 34 The Difficulty Level of the Face Saving Strategies..... 311
Figure 35 License Students' Comments on the Course 314
Figure 36 The Improvement of MA Students' Speaking Skills and Social Interaction Skills. 318
Figure 37 The Usefulness of the Pragmatic Strategies with Regard to MA Students' Speaking Skills. . 319

Figure 38 The Difficulty Level of the Lessons. 322
Figure 39 The Difficulty Level of the Face Saving Strategies 324
Figure 40 MA Students' Comments on the Course. 327

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

License	*Third Year Students*
CFQ	**Course Feedback Questionnaire**
CG	**Control Group**
DCT	**Discourse Completion Task**
DV	**Dependent Variable**
EFL	**English as Foreign Language**
ELL	**English Language Learning**
ESL	**English as Second Language**
FL	**Foreign Language**
IL	**InterLanguage**
ILP	**InterLanguage Pragmatics**
IV	**Independent Variable**
MA	**Master One Students**
SL	**Second Language**
SLA	**Second Language Acquisition**
SPSS	**Statistical Package for Social Sciences**
TEFL	**Teaching English as a Foreign Language**
FTA	**Face Threatening Act**

General Introduction

General Introduction

1.Background of the Study 1
2. Statement of the Problem 7
3. Rationale of the Study 9
4. Aims of the Study 12
5. Research Questions 13
6.Research Hypotheses 13
7. Significance of the Study 15
8. Scope of the Study 16
9.Overview of the Methodology 17
10. Operational and Conceptual Definitions 18
11.Structure of the Thesis 20

General Introduction

1. Background of the Study

English has gained worldwide importance, functioning as a means of international communication, and holding a vital role in educational curricula across various levels and disciplines. As a result, language pedagogy has witnessed a paradigm shift in perspective from the focus on language as an isolated system (Chomsky, 1965) to the focus on language as communication (Dell Hymes, 1972) in order to train learners to communicate properly. This shift led to the introduction of pragmatics as a separate discipline within linguistics which focuses on the acquisition of functional and sociolinguistic control of the forms (Taguchi, 2006).

Pragmatic competence, as the ability to perform language functions appropriately in a given social context (Taguchi, 2006), has become one of the main constituents in different models of communicative competence that were developed in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) (Celce-Murcia, Dornyei & Thurell, 1995). Consequently, the increasing interest placed on investigating how learners acquire pragmatic knowledge has led to the development of a novel research domain known as Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP). This specific field within pragmatics is highly significant for educators, as a comprehensive grasp of ILP empowers them to design instructional materials and curricula that extend beyond grammar and encompass pragmatics and discourse (Locastro, 2003, as cited in Martinez-Flor, 2004).

In the period spanning from 1981 to 2001, researchers' focus was on the teachability of various facets of pragmatics, including different speech acts, conversational implicature, hedges, gambits, discourse strategies, and interactional markers. Subsequently, research in the field of Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP) expanded to encompass the exploration of learners' comprehension and use of diverse pragmatic features, while also delving into the processes and factors that influence the development of pragmatic abilities in second and foreign language contexts. These variables comprise proficiency in the target language, instructional methods, transfer from the first language L1 to the second language L2, and the amount of exposure to the target language (Glaser, 2014). The outcomes of these investigations indicate that learners, despite possessing a strong grasp of grammatical structures, exhibit incomplete pragmatic competence that still diverges from that of native speakers (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001).

Therefore, instruction appears to play a crucial role in fostering learners' ability to communicate effectively in the target language (TL), particularly within the foreign language context (FL) where opportunities for real-life situations and authentic communication in English are limited (Kasper & Rose, 2002). In contrast, learners in a second language (SL) context are totally immersed in the TL and have rich exposure to it with substantial opportunities to practice and learn the sociocultural rules of appropriateness. For these reasons, there is a need for instructional effectiveness in interlanguage pragmatics in EFL classrooms, particularly, in the Algerian context.

Given that instruction has been found to have a positive impact on L2 pragmatic development, there has been extensive research on the effect of different instructional approaches. These include explicit instruction, consciousness- raising metapragmatic instruction, explicit feedback, focus on form, inductive versus deductive instruction and processing instruction. The approaches mentioned confirmed the fact that L2 pragmatics is teachable and instruction affects pragmatic comprehension significantly. Furthermore, the differential effect of explicit and implicit instruction on the development of pragmatic comprehension or production has received particular attention in research and proved the advantage of explicit instruction over implicit instruction in pragmatic development (Fordyce, 2014; Nguyen et al., 2012; Hernandez, 2011; and Martínez-Flor, 2004).

On the other hand, studies that investigated the impact of the dichotomy inductive/deductive as an instructional approach on learners' pragmatic development have been scarce compared to those studying the effectiveness of implicit/explicit approaches and can be regarded as an expansion or refinement of the explicit-implicit debate, as it goes beyond examining instructional approaches and delves into the matters of instructional sequencing and the significance of consciousness-raising activities within the classroom setting (Glaser,2014). Results from most studies conducted about the inductive/deductive effects on pragmatic development provide limited empirical significance when it comes to determining the effectiveness of inductive versus deductive instruction. They suggest that a particular research methodology appears hopeful when it incorporates the following elements: i) examining the contrast between inductive and deductive approaches within a clearly defined framework, ii) incorporating guided discovery in the inductive approach, and iii) ensuring that the rule provision in the

inductive approach is conducted or approved by the teacher, thus allowing learners to receive feedback from the teacher at the conclusion of the rule search segments. (Glaser,2014)

Regarding, understanding the development of pragmatic ability, Ishihara& Cohen (2010) claim that it is "a multi-faceted phenomenon" that is why it has been approached from different perspectives. ILP research has been framed from two perspectives in terms of comprehending pragmatic learning: either as a cognitive process or as a socially-oriented activity. The two most influential theoretical framework behind most ILP studies are the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1993, 1995, 2001), Bialystok's Two-Dimensional Model of L2 proficiency development (1993) and, more recently, the Interactive Hypothesis (Long, 1996), and they have been operationalized in ILP research from a cognitive perspective. However, they reach their limitations when it comes to explaining and discussing "process-like contingencies of communicative interaction without which pragmatic negotiations do not make sense" De Paiva and Foster-Cohen (2004, p. 287). In other words, they did not provide explanations for the inferencing processes that the basis of natural conversations and require more than a salient input that can be noticed or analysis and control processing. Therefore, De-paiva and Foster-Cohen (2004) suggest Relevance Theory to complement the shortcomings of cognitive theories and argue that integration of Information-Processing concepts and Relevance Theoretical insights as part of a complex theoretical framework is capable of capturing the rich diversity of pragmatic development in second language acquisition. Thus, a combined cognitivist-communicational approach that brings together noticing, control, analysis of knowledge, and relevance is the theoretical basis of the present study and will be explained in Chapter two.

Furthermore, focusing on the pragmatic aspects to be taught for second/foreign language learners, previous studies dealing with instructional effectiveness in interlanguage pragmatics have focused on different pragmatic features, such as discourse markers and strategies, conversational routines or pragmatic fluency (House, 1996; House & Kasper, 1981). In addition, various speech acts have also been analyzed including apologies, compliments, requests, refusals, and complaints (Trosborg, 2003). One of the important aspects of pragmatic competence are understanding and production of speech acts and their appropriateness in a given situation (Chang, 2010). In this respect, it may be claimed that a growing body of investigation on the effects of instruction now exists. However, it has been suggested that further research is needed to widen the target features being examined (Kasper & Rose, 2002). Therefore, to the all-inclusive knowledge of the researcher, there are no previous studies that have focused on the teachability of requests and refusals to four stimulus types, namely invitations, offers, suggestions, and requests in the Algerian context. Thus, this study focuses on these two speech acts.

Besides examining instructional effectiveness on different pragmatic features, and pedagogical approaches, another issue has also been addressed in interventional studies concerns the effects of different pedagogical frameworks, classroom activities, and techniques that affect positively learners' pragmatic competence (Martinez-Flor, 2004). The literature reviewed as regards the different pedagogical frameworks suggest the explicit metapragmatic instruction, or the 6Rs approach, developed by Martínez-Flor and Usó-Juan (2006), which seems to be promising in instructional pragmatics. This approach includes six main steps: Researching, Reflecting, Receiving, Reasoning, Rehearsing, and Revising that are vital for any second language lesson in pragmatics.

The authors believe that this approach provides a comprehensive pedagogical framework since it is a combination of previous proven successful activities and practices in pragmatic development. It adopts the explicit inductive-deductive approach and is designed specifically to incorporate pragmatics into English as a foreign language teaching, based on theories of communicative competence including Brown and Levinson ‘s (1987) politeness theory and speech acts theory (Austin ,1962). It emphasizes awareness-raising and production activities and includes: _i) exposure to appropriate and rich input, ii) opportunities for communicative practice and iii) teacher ‘s [and learners ‘] feedback ‘(Usó-Juan, 2013, p. 81), all of which are seen as necessary conditions for pragmatic acquisition. Furthermore, the method makes use of audiovisual materials and discussion of cultural differences between the target language and learners’ native language(s). This method, thus, integrates pragmatic instruction within a comprehensive pedagogical framework. However, no studies have examined the effects of this pedagogical approach in instructional pragmatics on EFL students in the Algerian context focusing on comprehension and production of refusals and requests.

The closer look at Interlanguage pragmatic ILP studies, particularly, instructional effectiveness, reveals that pragmatic development in the EFL context is rich and diverse, and the existing body of literature on interlanguage pragmatics suggests that instruction has a beneficial impact on the development of pragmatic skills. However, the findings remain inconclusive until a greater number of studies examining the instructional effects of specific target forms are conducted in foreign language (FL) classrooms, especially in the Algerian context. There are no ILP interventional studies in Algeria that investigate in one single study the impact of a comprehensive pedagogical frameworks on Algerian EFL

students' pragmatic competence regarding both awareness and production of speech acts, in addition to students' perceptions of the pragmatic instruction at the end of the intervention. Moreover, no ILP study, to the best of our knowledge, in Algeria, adopted an explicit inductive-deductive approach and has been framed within a multi-model theoretical framework that combines cognition and communication (noticing, analysis, control, and relevance) to understand the pragmatic learning.

Thus, this study attempts to contribute to ILP studies with more insights and empirical evidence through classroom-based research and an interventional study type to examine the impact of the 6 Rs Approach on students' pragmatic competence as regards production and awareness of requests and refusals to invitations, suggestions, offers, and requests. Moreover, it attempts, too, to explore participants' perception of the pragmatic instruction at the end of the experiment.

2. Statement of the Problem

Although pragmatic competence is considered as a vital component of overall language proficiency (Vellenga, 2011; Canal & Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1972), L2 instruction seems to focus mainly on grammar and ignores the pragmatic development of language learners (Eslami-Razekh, 2011), and it is still underrepresented in EFL/ESL teacher education programs (Bardovi-Harlig, 1992; Eslami-Razekh, 2005; Vasquez & Sharpless, 2009, Vellenga, 2011).

In the Algerian context, and specifically, at the university of Mohamed Lamine Debaghine Setif 2, the department of English Language and literature, exploratory research was conducted about pragmatic awareness of English as Foreign Language students (EFL,

henceforth). Ninety (90) TEFL Master students participated in this preliminary research to explore their pragmatic awareness as regards strengths, weaknesses, and challenges in translating pragmatic theories into a practical lesson plan and their reflections on pragmatic practices. Data were collected through a design of a pragmatically-focused lesson plan task to examine their ability to translate theoretical pragmatic knowledge into a practical lesson plan. In addition, they wrote a reflection paper about their strengths, weaknesses and difficulties in planning for instructional pragmatics. Moreover, an informal discussion with four TEFL teachers about the content of the course they teach for TEFL Master and Third year (License) students was held.

Results from the informal discussion with TEFL teachers indicated that their course content does not include any instruction on developing EFL students' pragmatic competence nor about how to design and teach a pragmatically focused lesson plan. Moreover, analysis of participants' lesson plans according to the assessment rubric of the pragmatic lesson plan adopted from Ishihara and Cohen (2010), and reflection papers indicated that most of TEFL MA students' pragmatic knowledge was theoretical wherein they could not translate them into practical applications through a well-designed-pragmatically lesson plan. Furthermore, they revealed through their reflections that their pragmatic competence is limited and not enough to be transferred to EFL learners in their future teaching practices.

To this end, this study investigates the effects of the 6Rs' Approach (Researching, Reflecting, Receiving, Reasoning, Rehearsing, and Revising), a comprehensive pedagogical framework on EFL students' pragmatic competence as regards awareness and production of requests and refusals as well as their perceptions of the instruction.

3. Rationale of the Study

The focus on instructional effectiveness in interlanguage pragmatics, particularly, the effects of the 6 Rs Approach on EFL students' pragmatic competence was motivated by many reasons which will be displayed below.

The need for instructional effectiveness in the acquisition of pragmatic competence, since findings from previous research (Kasper & Dahl, 1991; Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993; Cohen, 1996, 1996; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996; Rose, 1997; Bardovi-Harlig, 1999, 2002; Kasper & Rose, 1999, 2002) claim that learners may possess a strong grasp of grammatical rules or have spent considerable time in the target language (henceforth, TL) community, yet their pragmatic competence remains deficient (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). As a result, scholars argue that instructing pragmatics becomes crucial for enhancing learners' ability to communicate effectively in the TL, particularly in foreign language (henceforth, FL) contexts (Kasper, 1997, 2001; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper & Rose, 2002). In fact, Kasper (1996; 2001; 2001) argues that, in contrast to a second language (henceforth, SL) setting, where learners have rich exposure to the TL and plenty of opportunities to use it for real-life purposes, in a FL environment, learners lack the chances to face situations involving authentic communication. For these reasons, there is a need for further research that pays attention to the role of instruction on learners' pragmatic competence in the EFL classroom (Martinez-Flor, 2004).

The need to deal with different aspects of learners' pragmatic competence such as production, awareness, and attitudes with an evaluation of the instruction by the research participants themselves in one single study. Most studies focused either on production or awareness and very few studies have explored EFL students' attitudes towards the

pragmatic instruction to complement the speech production and awareness data with affective learner data on the effectiveness of the instruction as well as their awareness of and attitudes towards pragmatic aspects and evaluation of the instruction. This is an area which has been largely neglected in ILP research (Pearson, 2006), although it provides important insights into how pragmatics instruction is perceived by its recipients. In the current study, this kind of data was collected directly after the instruction by means of a course feedback questionnaire.

Further, to examine the effects of instruction in an EFL contexts (the Algerian context), very few studies can be found about instructional effectiveness on pragmatic ability among Algerian EFL students. To our knowledge, no researchers have yet conducted an ILP interventional study with Algerian EFL students and focused on teaching and learning appropriate English requests and refusals with the four stimulus types (refusals to 1.offers, 2.invitations, 3.suggestions, and 4. Requests) following the classification scheme of Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz‘s (1990), and only few studies to date utilize different stimulus types of refusals in their studies, according to the status, distance, of a refuser and the imposition of the act in different situations. Most the subsequent studies focused only on one or two stimulus types (Bardovi-Harlig, 1997; Salazar et al., 2009; Glaser, 2014 among others).

In addition to the lack of studies in the Algerian context on the specific target pragmatic features explained above, there is also a need for research on the effectiveness of different pedagogical approaches and models, and a combination of theoretical frameworks on Algerian EFL students’ pragmatic competence. There are no studies to date in the Algerian Scientific Journal Platform ASJP that have examined the effectiveness of the 6 Rs

Approach (Researching, Reflecting, Receiving, Reasoning, Rehearsing, Revising) on EFL students' pragmatic competence adopting an explicit inductive-deductive approach and based on a complex multi-model theoretical framework that combines (noticing, cognition, and communication) (Schmidt, 1993; Bialistok,1993; Sperber&Wilson 1996).

In the field of ILP studies, numerous methodological deficiencies have come to light in the past twenty years, revealing several gaps that require further attention and resolution (Glaser, 2014). Only few interventional studies have employed more than one research method to collect learners' data in the classroom context (Tateyama et al. (1997), Tateyama (2001), Martinez-Flor (2004), and Glaser (2014). These studies are noteworthy exceptions because they utilized multiple instruments, including oral role-plays, written questionnaires, written self-report methods, and course feedback questionnaires. A combination of data collection procedures, often referred to as multi-method approach (Cohen, 2004, p. 307; Takahashi, 2010, p. 394) or triangulation (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007, p. 575), is needed for methodologically sound investigations in the field of ILP to improve data quality and quantity (Dufon, 2001). Therefore, in an effort to expand upon the scarcity of research that has utilized various methods in interventional studies conducted within a classroom setting, the current study employed four distinct types of assessments. They consist of an oral production test (role plays), a written production test termed in ILP Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs), a Pragmatic Awareness Test (PRT). Additionally, a Course Feedback Questionnaire (CFQ) was administered at the end of the instruction, in an attempt to obtain their personal opinions and attitudes towards the tasks and treatments implemented in this study and how do they evaluate the overall course. Based on (Geluekens as cited in Glaser ,2014) claims, he states that in choosing data collection

methods, three dimensions should be taken into account to ensure optimal variation (i) the degree of control that the researcher has over the elicitation process; (ii) the degree to which the data reflects authentic interaction; and (iii) whether the data focus on linguistic output, i.e. production, or is concerned with language perception or metalanguage. This study takes the tree dimensions into consideration to offer more insightful results about the rich diversity of pragmatic development in an EFL context.

The aforementioned justifications strongly support the underlying motive of the current study, which aims to address the existing limitations in research regarding the instruction of pragmatic competence. Furthermore, there is a lack of studies specifically related to teaching English requests and refusals using the four stimulus types to EFL students within the framework of the 6 Rs approach, employing an explicit inductive-deductive approach, and incorporating a multi-model theoretical framework encompassing noticing, cognition, and communication. Additionally, determining the content and methodology for instruction are significant challenges that need to be addressed in the field of ILP studies. These aspects serve as the primary focus of the present study.

4. Purpose of the Study

This study has two focal aims. The first is to investigate the impact of the 6 Rs approach on developing MA and Third year students of English pragmatic competence as regards comprehension and production of appropriate requests and refusals to offers, invitations, suggestions, and requests. The second aim is to collect information on learners' perceptions of the course and how do they evaluate it, to complement the speech production data with affective learner data about the usefulness of the course as well as their perceptions of the instruction.

5. Research Questions

Given the identified gaps within the existing body of interlanguage pragmatics research and the objectives outlined in this study, the primary goal of this research is to address the following research questions:

1. What are the effects of the 6 Rs approach on Algerian License and Master I students of English pragmatic competence as regards awareness of appropriate requests and refusals?
2. What are the effects of the 6 Rs approach on Algerian License and Master students of English pragmatic competence as regards oral and written production of requests and refusals?
3. What are License and Master I students' perceptions of the pragmatics instruction at the end of the intervention?

6. Research Hypotheses

Based on the aforementioned research questions, the following research hypotheses were formulated:

Hypothesis 1

The 6 Rs approach will significantly improve Algerian License students of English pragmatic competence as regards oral and written production of requests and refusals.

Null Hypothesis 1

The 6 Rs approach will not improve Algerian License students of English pragmatic competence as regards oral and written production of requests and refusals.

Hypothesis 2

The 6 Rs approach will significantly improve Algerian MA students of English pragmatic competence as regards oral and written production of requests and refusals

Null Hypothesis 2

The 6 Rs approach will not improve Algerian MA students of English pragmatic competence as regards oral and written production of requests and refusals.

Hypothesis 3

The 6 Rs approach will significantly improve Algerian License students of English pragmatic competence as regards awareness of appropriate requests and refusals.

Null Hypothesis 3

The 6 Rs approach will not improve Algerian License students of English pragmatic competence as regards awareness of appropriate requests and refusals.

Hypothesis 4

The 6 Rs approach will significantly improve Algerian MA students of English pragmatic competence as regards awareness of appropriate requests and refusals.

Null Hypothesis 4

The 6 Rs approach will not improve Algerian MA students of English pragmatic competence as regards awareness of appropriate requests and refusals.

It should be noted that the effectiveness of instruction is measured via two indicators;

1. The use of NS requests and refusals collected from the literature and emphasized in the instruction, and

2. The provision of appropriate metapragmatic information that controls for the three sociopragmatic variables taught in the treatment.

7. Significance of the Study

This study is an attempt to fill a gap in instructional pragmatics and materials development by investigating the effects of the 6 Rs Approach (Researching, Reflecting, Receiving, Reasoning, Rehearsing, and Revising) on EFL students' pragmatic competence. It is hoped that this study can contribute to the description of the processes involved in designing materials and assessments related to instructed interlanguage pragmatics that may affect instructional and curricular decisions both for language learners and language pre and in-service teachers.

Accordingly, the findings of this study are valuable not only for advancing the comprehension of acquisitional pragmatics in a broader sense but also have practical implications for both pre-service and in-service teachers. This study attempts to raise their awareness and convince them that instruction is better than exposure in an EFL context; thus, their confidence may be enhanced in teaching pragmatic ability. It would be helpful to them in their day-to-day business of curriculum development, lesson planning and materials creation for the teaching of any pragmatic feature as it provides a comprehensive pedagogical framework; the 6 Rs approach about the teaching of appropriate requests and refusals.

Moreover, this study is also of focal importance to learners, as it raises their pragmatic awareness, develops their production and explores their attitudes towards the pragmatic instruction through a comprehensive pedagogical approach following the explicit inductive teaching design that has been claimed to be more effective as it develops learners' higher order thinking skills through guided discovery and rule provision (Glaser, 2014).

In addition, the current research may be of benefit for researchers in the field of ILP research; thus, it may help them uncover some areas in the process of instructional pragmatics and offer a detailed pedagogical model to follow and replicate in future studies with a multi-model theoretical framework (noticing, cognition and communication) (De-paiva, 2010).

Last, this study may help curriculum developers and textbook writers with empirical-based data which is more advisable and desirable, because most studies conducted on textbook evaluation regarding the quality and quantity of pragmatic information and authentic language revealed that they are not a reliable source of pragmatic input for language learners in the EFL classroom including Algerian EFL textbooks (Vellenga, 2004; Gilmore, 2004, Neddar,2010)

8. Scope of the Study

The current study investigates the effects of the 6Rs approach (Researching, Reflecting, Receiving, Reasoning, Rehearsing, and Revising) adopting an explicit inductive approach on the development of MA and License students of English pragmatic competence as regards awareness and production of appropriate requests and refusals to

invitations, suggestions, requests, and offers : The case of MA and License students of English at Mohamed Lamine Debaghine University, the Department of English during the academic year 2018/2019. It is worth mentioning that the focus of the instructional intervention is on teaching and evaluation of requests and refusals regarding the head acts (HAs), i.e., the focus is on the semantic strategies used in the main head act and the internal modifications that help soften the speaker's intent through the use of particular syntactic, phrasal, and lexical forms. The external forms of syntactic or lexical modifications, employed for introduction or elaboration, known as adjuncts or supportive moves, are beyond the objectives of the current study.

9. Overview of the Methodology

The current study adopts a pre-test post-test quasi-experimental research with a mixed-methods approach to investigate the effects of integrating the 6Rs approach on fostering MA and License students of English pragmatic competence. It is conducted in the department of English language and literature at Sétif 2 University.

In the ultimate quest of answering the research questions and testing the research hypotheses, the current research is conducted throughout four phases. First, the preliminary phase aims at ascertaining the existence of the research problem within the intended population through deploying reflective essays, lesson plans and informal discussions as research instruments. Second, the pre-experimental phase is devoted to determine the research participants' level of proficiency through using a language proficiency test. Third, the experimental phase is devoted to the pretest, then the instructional treatment, which comprised 12 sessions with one hour and a half each, ensued by the administration of the post-tests (DCTs, pragmatic awareness test, and role-plays). Ultimately, the post-

experimental phase is dedicated to gather data about the attitudes of the EG members towards the course.

10. Operational and Conceptual Definitions

Speech Act Theory: is a subfield of pragmatics that studies how words are used not only to present information but also to carry out actions. It was introduced by Oxford philosopher J.L. Austin (1962) in How to Do Things with Words and further developed by American philosopher J.R. Searle (1969). It considers the degree to which utterances are said to perform locutionary acts, illocutionary acts, and/or perlocutionary acts.

Pragmalinguistics: Trosborg (2003) defines pragmalinguistics as "knowledge of the linguistic inventory used to perform pragmatic functions."

Sociopragmatics: "the social elements that impact the kind of linguistic actions that are available and their performance" are what are meant by "the sociological interface of pragmatics" (Leech, 1983, p. 10). It is the capacity to adjust one's verbal output in accordance with the situation's cultural and interpersonal environment.

Pragmatic Competence: Pragmatic competence is a fundamental aspect of a more general communicative competence. Hartford (1993) defines pragmatic competence as "the ability to use language appropriately in a variety of social contexts" (p. 556). This definition highlights the importance of adapting language use to different communicative situations and understanding social norms.

In the current study, the focus is on pragmatic competence regarding production and awareness and is measured through a discourse completion task to evaluate written

production, role plays to evaluate oral production, pragmatic awareness test to evaluate metapragmatic awareness.

Relevance Theory: Relevance theory is a framework in pragmatics that aims to explain how people communicate effectively by considering the ways in which speakers and listeners use context and background knowledge to infer meaning (Grice, 1989). Developed by Dan Sperber and Deirdre Wilson in the 1980s, relevance theory posits that communication is driven by a principle of relevance, which holds that speakers will only communicate information that is relevant to their listeners' needs and interests.

Metapragmatic instruction: raising learners' awareness to become pragmatically competent, as Verschueren (2000, p. 444) defines metapragmatic awareness "knowing what they are doing" with words. Language users are aware of the sociopragmatic factors when choosing their linguistic expressions.

The 6 Rs Approach: a pedagogical framework elaborated by Martínez-Flor and Usó-Juan (2006), it consists of six main central steps and each step starts with an R (Researching, Reflecting, Receiving, Reasoning, Rehearsing, Revising), these are the 6 Rs. Its design is based on noticing, cognition and communication theories and it adopts the explicit inductive approach regarding rule provision and the guided discovery for learners (Martinez-Flor& Uso-Juan, 2010).

Explicit/Implicit Instructional Designs: Ortega (2000) states that L2 instructional treatment [is] considered to be explicit if rule explanation comprise[s] part of the instruction . . . or if learners [are] directly asked to attend to particular forms and to try to arrive at metalinguistic generalizations on their own . . . Conversely, when neither rule

presentation, nor directions to attend to particular forms [are] part of a treatment, that treatment [is] considered implicit (p. 437)

Inductive/Deductive Learning: Decoo (1996) defines deduction as a process that moves from general to specific, from consciously formulated rules to application in language use. In the context of pragmatics instruction, this means that the metapragmatic information or rule is given first, followed by examples and practice. Induction, on the other hand, is defined as the process that moves from specific language examples to patterns, rules, and generalizations. DeKeyser (1995) explains that in inductive learning examples are encountered before rules are inferred, and in deductive learning rules are presented before examples are encountered. Whereas induction can be either implicit or explicit (and explicit induction can happen with or without help from a teacher or textbook), deductive learning is necessarily explicit. (p. 380)

MA /License Students: the term "MA" students is used interchangeably with Master I, while the term "License" students is used interchangeably with third year students.

11. Structure of the Thesis

The current thesis encompasses four chapters. It starts with a general introduction that aims at providing a general overview of the research, including the background of the study, statement of the problem, rationale of the study, research aims, research questions and hypotheses, significance of the study, scope of the study, overview of the methodology, operational and conceptual definitions, and structure of the thesis.

The first chapter, Pragmatics and Language Learning, renders an intricate overview about the following concepts: pragmatics, pragmatic competence, inter- language

pragmatics, pragmatic features, and the speech acts of requests and refusals. The second chapter, Pragmatics and Language Teaching, focuses on reviewing the literature related to: the theoretical frameworks in inter- language pragmatics, implications for teaching pragmatics using the 6 Rs approach, which represents the quintessence of this study.

The third chapter, entitled Research Methodology, provides thorough and intricate description of the steps followed to conduct this research and the rationales that account for the choice of: research design, research methods, research population, research sample and sampling technique. Moreover, it includes data analysis and procedures as well as ethical issues and considerations.

The fourth chapter of Data Analysis and Interpretations discusses the obtained data in relation to the reviewed literature, for the aim of answering the research questions. Lastly, the current thesis ends up with insightful pedagogical implications and recommendations, limitations and suggestions for further research, and ends up with a general conclusion.

Chapter One

Pragmatics and Language Learning

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Introduction 25
1.1 Concept of Pragmatics 26
1.2 Speech Acts Theory 32
1.3 Politeness Theory 34
1.4 Pragmatic Competence 38
1.4.1Socio-Pragmatic Knowledge and Pragmalinguistic Ability 40
1.4.2 Pragmatic Failure 44
1.5 Interlanguage Pragmatics 48
1.5.1Cross-Sectional Studies 51
1.5.2 Longitudinal Studies 54
1.5.3 Studies of Pragmatic Transfer 61
1.6 Pragmatic Features Investigated: Requests and Refusals 64
1.6.1 Speech Act 1 : Requests 65
1.6.1.1 Definition and Characteristics 65
1.6.1.2 Request as an Impositive Act 66
1.6.1.3 Request as a Face-Threatening Act 66
1.6.1.4 Classification Systems for Requests in Interlanguage Pragmatics (Taxonomies) 67
1.6.1.5 English Requests in Cross-Cultural and Interlanguage Pragmatics Studies 75
1.6.2 Speech Act 2: Refusals 81
1.6.2.1 Definition and Characteristics 81
1.6.2.2 Classification Systems for Refusals in Interlanguage Pragmatics (Taxonomies) 83
1.6.2.3 Refusal Strategies 85
1.6.3 English Refusals in Interlanguage Pragmatics 89
1.7 The Effects of Situational Variables on Speech Act Performance 94
Conclusion 98

Chapter One

Pragmatics and Language Learning

Introduction

Studies in the field of interlanguage pragmatics have investigated learners' awareness and production of different pragmatic features, as well as the effectiveness of instruction on the development of pragmatic competence, and various approaches used to teach pragmatics for EFL/ESL learners. Therefore, this chapter and chapter two examine the fundamental conceptual and theoretical underpinnings that form the basis for most pragmatics research.

This chapter provides first an elaborate portrayal of the concept of pragmatics, its origins, and the different definitions proposed by different scholars. Within this field, the two main theories related to pragmatics and the core of the present study, namely Speech Act Theory and Politeness Theory, are examined. Then, pragmatic competence as a main constituent of communicative competence is described followed by its sub-components; sociopragmatic knowledge and pragmalinguistic ability. In the next section, pragmatic failure is defined and explained because a lack of pragmatic competence may lead to misunderstanding and communication breakdown which has been labeled by Thomas (1983) as a pragmatic failure. The growing importance of the necessity to develop language learners' pragmatic competence has given rise to the birth of a new field of research in SLA called interlanguage pragmatics, and as the current study is developmental with an acquisitional perspective, this section is devoted to interlanguage pragmatics field and three sub-sections related to the types of studies in this area of research. In the last section of the

present study, the two speech acts under investigation; requests and refusals are defined, and their characteristics are presented along with the taxonomies related to and adopted in the present research. We end up the chapter with the three sociopragmatic variables emphasized in this study and their impact on pragmatic competence.

1.1 Concept of Pragmatics

Language pedagogy has witnessed a paradigm shift from the focus on learning a language as an isolated system (Chomsky, 1965) to the focus on learning a language as communication (Dell Hymes, 1972) which led to the spread of communicative language teaching approach in the 1980's accompanied by the appearance of the concept of pragmatics and an increase in the significance "attributed to pragmatic competence in the target language (TL) , widening the notion of language proficiency to include not only structural aspects such as grammar, lexis and phonology, but also the successful mastery of interpersonal communication as well as of the coding and encoding of language functions such as implicatures or speech acts in authentic social contexts"(Glaser, 2014, p. 1).

The term "pragmatics" was firstly introduced by the philosopher Charles Morris (1938), and used it in a very broad sense to refer to "the study of the relation of signs to interpreters", while he defined syntax as "the formal relation of signs to one another", and semantics as "the relation of signs to the objects to which the signs are applicable" (Morris, 1938, p. 6). Therefore, according to Morris's (1938) science of signs namely, "Semiotics", neither syntax, nor semantics considers the users, but it is pragmatics which refers to the semiotic relationship between sign and sign users.

In 1962, Austin proposed a theory of pragmatic functions in his famous work "How to do things with words", claiming that we do not just use language to say things but also to do things (Austin,1962). In an attempt to differentiate pragmatics from other linguistic discipline, Levinson (1983) claimed that pragmatics comprises the study of language usage, to be distinguished from syntax, which is the study of combinatorial properties of words and their parts, and from semantics, which is the study of meaning. Based on Levinson's claim, Leech (1983) redefined pragmatics as "any background knowledge assumed to be shared by the speaker and the hearer and contributes to the hearer's interpretation of what the speaker means by a given utterance" (p. 13), and he also distinguished "pragmatic meaning" which is relative to a speaker or user of a language from "semantic meaning" which is purely a property of expressions in a given language.

Pragmatics generally explains how human beings create and understand meanings that can be "derived only by going beyond the literal interpretation of signals" (Locastro, 2003, p. 4). In other words, it is concerned with how interlocutors use language to achieve personal goals within a societal framework. Crystal's definition (1985) supports this idea and emphasizes that the meaning is created in the interaction between speaker and hearer, a process that is influenced by the linguistic forms and other features of the context. Crystal (1997) defines pragmatics as: "the study of language from the point of view of users, especially the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction, and the effects their use of language has on their participants in the act of communication" (p. 301).

Consequently, the concept of pragmatics is concerned with the study of meaning in communication as expressed by a speaker or writer and interpreted by a listener or reader (Yule, 1996). It focuses on "the analysis of what people mean by their utterances rather than the verbatim meanings of words or phrases people use in their utterances" (Yuan, 2012, p.24). In other words, the concept looks at the implicit meaning of the speech behind the literal one. It focuses on how language can be used to demonstrate various meanings, and it is considered to be an instrument of correspondence and interchange. Jenny Thomas (1995) says that pragmatics considers: 1) The negotiation of meaning between speaker and listener, 2) The context of the utterance, 3) The meaning potential of an utterance, 4) The study of the practical aspects of human action and thought and 5) The study of the use of linguistic signs, words, and sentences, in actual situations.

Moreover, Alcaraz (1990) and Cenoz (2007) summarize the main features that define pragmatics as follows : (1) the use of language as a means of communication; (2) the importance of language use focusing on functions rather than on forms; (3) the study of processes which occur in communication; (4) the importance of context and authentic language use; (5) the interdisciplinary nature of pragmatics; and (6) the application of linguistic theories based on the concept of communicative competence. Therefore, since the 1970s, many definitions of pragmatics have been provided by different scholars (Leech, 1983; Levinson et al., 1983; Verschueren, 1999; among many others) and they all agreed on the idea that the meaning of words is context-dependent, and we may identify two main characteristics of pragmatics:1) the focus is on the users of language, and 2) the context in which these users interact, in other words, pragmatics refers to the study of speaker meaning and contextual meaning (Yule, 1996). Apart from all the abovementioned

definitions, Locastro (2003) considers that pragmatics is characterized by the following distinguishing features:

> Meaning is created in interaction with speakers and hearers. Context includes both linguistic (co-text) and non-linguistic aspects. Choices made by the users of language are an important concern. Constraints in using language in social action (who can say what to Whom) are significant. The effects of choices on coparticipants are analyzed. (as cited in Martinez-Flor, 2004, p.29)

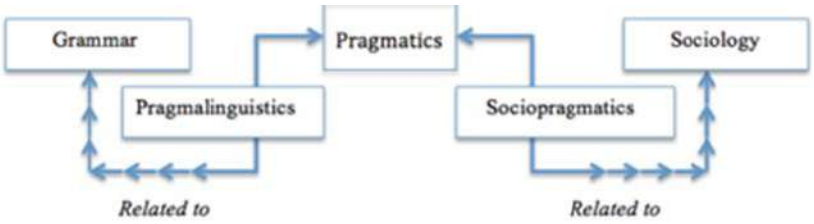
Obviously, these characteristics describe all the aspects of pragmatics; however, in addition to users and context, interaction, also has a significant effect in the field of pragmatics. As the process of communication is not only limited to the interlocutors' intentions, but also on the effects those intentions have on the hearers (Martinez-Flor, 2004). Thomas (1995) supports this view and considers pragmatics as meaning in interaction. She explains that pragmatics involves three main processes, namely those of the negotiation of meaning between the speaker and the hearer, the context of utterance, whether physical, social or linguistic, and the meaning potential of an utterance. In the current study, we consider that pragmatics is the meaning in interaction and we agree with the views of both Thomas (1995) and Locastro (2003), because using language in communication entails not only speaker's utterance but also hearer's understanding of it.

Moreover, Thomas (1995) also emphasizes both social and psychological factors in the production and understanding of utterances, as they both affect communication. However, she claims that studies carried out in the field of pragmatics had only paid attention to one of these factors and thus they fail in one of the two approaches. The cognitive approach is concerned with utterance meaning and is prominently interested in the receiver of the message, while the social approach focuses on the study of speaker

meaning (Sperber & Wilson, 1996; Blakemore, 1992). Thomas (1995) argues that it is not advisable to adopt an approach to pragmatics that pays attention only to cognitive factors and exclude social factors or vice versa. She views that pragmatics cannot be limited only to a speaker-oriented or a hearer-oriented approach, rather both should be considered. Thus, Thomas (1995) suggests a social, psychological and cognitive approach to pragmatics, that is supported by LoCastro's definition (2003): pragmatics is "the study of speaker and hearer meaning created in their joint actions that include both linguistic and non-linguistic signals in the context of socioculturally organized activities" (p.15).

Moreover, Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983) divided pragmatics into two components: one is "pragmalinguistics", referring to the pragmatic strategies, routines, and a large number of linguistic forms to convey communicative action, and the other is "sociopragmatics", referring to the social perceptions underlying participants' interpretation and performance of communicative action. Hence, while dealing with pragmatics, attention is paid to consider knowledge of the means to weaken or strengthen the force of an utterance (i.e. pragmalinguistic knowledge) and knowledge of the particular means that are likely to be most successful for a given situation (i.e. sociopragmatic knowledge). These two components will be explained thoroughly in the upcoming section, and the following Figure 1 shows the distinction between pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics.

Figure 1 *Distinction between Pragmalinguistics and Sociopragmatics (Source: Leech, 1983, p.11)*



In view of this conceptual variety, this study adopts a working definition that focuses on language users and the relationships between them, the communicative context and the situational meaning. Therefore, the aim of teaching pragmatics should aim at equipping learners with the ability to find socially appropriate language for the situations that they encounter.

In sum, Pragmatics may be considered as a discipline under the umbrella of linguistics, it covers a wide range of language aspects as Bardovi-Harlig and Taylor (2003) state: "pragmatics encompasses speech acts, conversational structure, conversational implicature, conversational management, discourse organization and sociolinguistic aspects of language use" (p.37). Consequently, research in pragmatics often draws upon other theories such as Speech Act Theory introduced by Austin (1962) and developed later on by (Searle, 1969), Politeness Theory (Brown & Levinson, 1987), and these are the focus of the current research.

1.2 Speech Acts Theory

Just as linguists have tried to understand how speakers might be able to produce an infinite number of sentences given a very finite set of rules for sentences, philosophers have tried to understand how an infinite number of sentences might reflect a very finite set of functions. The philosophers reasoned that since the number of things we do with words is limited, we ought to be able to assign functions to utterances. The problem with assigning functions to sentences is that speaker intent and sentence meaning are not always the same. Speaker intent may be more or less, or actually the opposite, of sentence meaning (as in sarcasm). Thus, no utterance is completely context free in terms of meaning or function. Nevertheless, philosophers such as Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) have shown that "it is possible to classify utterances into a very small set of functions" (p.121).

In attempting to convey a meaning, people do not only create utterances involving grammatical structures and words, they also carry out actions via those utterances. Austin (1962) defines speech acts as acts performed by utterances like giving orders or making promises. In this case, Austin (1962) firstly introduced speech act theory and Searle (1969) further elaborated it from the fundamental principle that language is used to carry out actions. Cohen's definition (1996) is: "A speech act is a functional unit in communication" (p.384).

According to Austin's theory of speech acts (1962), utterances have three kinds of meaning; the first kind is the propositional or locutionary meaning, namely, the literal meaning of the utterance, i.e., the physical uttering of the statement. If a pupil says to a teacher or sends a note, "It is hot in here", the locutionary meaning would concern the warm temperature of the classroom. The second kind of meaning is illocutionary, namely,

the social function that the utterance or written text has, i.e., the contextual function of the act. The illocutionary meaning or function of "It is hot in here" may be a request to turn down the heat. If the utterance is expressed emphatically or if it is repeated, perhaps it would also function as a complaint. Austin adds the notion of perlocutionary force, that is, the result or effect that is produced by the utterance in that given context, i.e., the impact of the first speaker's utterance on the next speaker. Thus, if the utterance leads to the action of turning down the thermostat in the room, the perlocutionary force of that utterance would be greater than if the request were ignored. Austin's work opened an entirely new field in pragmatics, namely speech acts.

Searle (1969) takes exception to Austin's original classification. He criticizes Austin's work and takes the stance that this is a classification of illocutionary verbs and not acts. He proposes five classifications of speech acts which are based on illocutionary point, direction of fit and expressed psychological state. These are:

1) Representatives, which represent statements that may be judged true or false because they support to describe a state of affairs in the world, such as asserting and concluding (assertions, claims, reports)

2) Commissives, which commit the speaker to a course of action as described by the propositional content, such as promising, offering, threatening, refusing.

3) Expressives, which express the speaker's psychological state or attitudes such as joy, sorrow, and likes /dislikes, apologizing, thanking, complaining.

4) Declaratives, which bring about the state of affairs they name such as appointing, marrying and declaring. These are speech acts that, when uttered, bring about a change to persons or things.

The speech act theories of Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) combined with notions of politeness have been used as the framework in interlanguage pragmatic studies (Trosborg,1995). The names of groups of speech acts may vary in classifications given by different scholars. There is no taxonomy which is considered the best because speech acts include real–life interactions and require not only the knowledge of the language but also the appropriate use of that language within a given culture to minimize misunderstandings especially since the speaker's intent and sentence meaning may differ (Hatch, 1992). This may lead scholars to create their own categorizations of speech acts to fit with their specific needs of study.

1.3 Politeness Theory

In light of the importance of directness and indirectness for a classification of speech acts, in this section we present an overview of the politeness theory, since it affects research carried out in the field of Interlanguage pragmatics ILP (Trosborg, 1995; Martinez-Flor, 2008; Glaser, 2014). The social-norm view (Fraser, 1990) assumes that each society has a particular set of social norms consisting of more or less explicit rules that prescribe a certain behavior or way of thinking in a given context. "A positive evaluation politeness arises when an action is in congruence with the norm, and a negative evaluation impoliteness occurs when congruence is lacking" (Watts, 2003, p. 89). To examine how context affects speech act realization and how the concepts of politeness and

appropriateness are related to speech acts, many studies in interlanguage pragmatics have incorporated a theory of politeness and used Brown and Levinson's (1987) model.

Brown and Levinson's approach to politeness is grounded in the notion of face based on the work of Goffman (1967). Goffman (1967) states, "Face is the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself . . . by making a good showing for himself" (p.5). The concept of face consists of two specific kinds of needs attributed by interactants to one another: "the desire to be unimpeded in one's actions negative face, and the desire to be approved of positive face" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p.13). In short, people communicate these two aspects of face to let others know that they want approval, and, at the same time, to let people know that they do not want to be imposed upon or do not want to impose on others (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

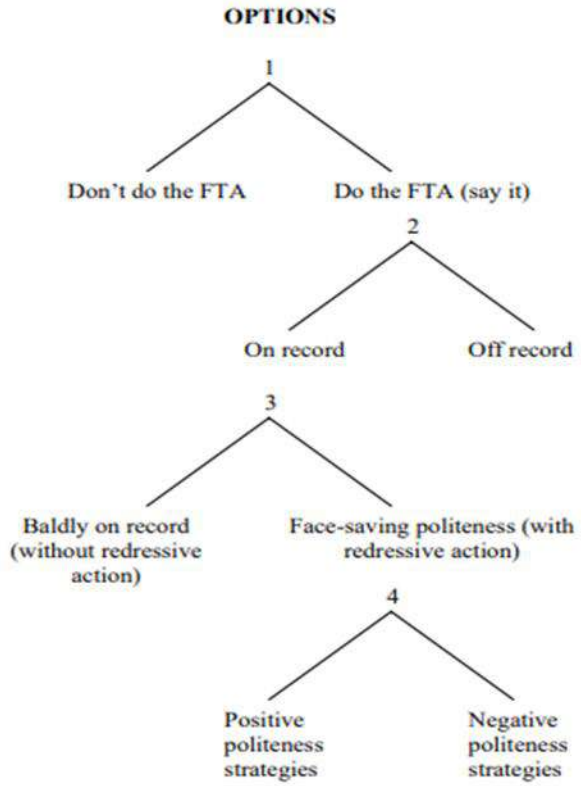
The basic idea in Brown and Levinson's politeness theory (1987) is that "some acts are intrinsically threatening to face and thus require softening" (p.24). Brown and Levinson (1987) proposed five politeness strategies that allow speakers to avoid a Face-Threatening Act (FTA). They are arranged according to level of directness from most direct to most indirect. The first is to do the FTA with direct imperatives but without redressive action (e.g., in cases of great urgency such as warning a person not to step in front of a fast-moving vehicle).

The second is to do the FTA with redressive action by using a positive politeness strategy. Positive politeness is oriented towards the interlocutor's positive face wants – the desire for approval – and consists of sub-strategies such as establishing common ground and building solidarity through sympathy, understanding, agreement and so forth. The third is to do the FTA with redressive action by using a negative politeness strategy. Negative

politeness is oriented towards the interlocutor's negative face – the right not to be imposed upon. It includes strategies such as conventional indirectness (e.g., Can you pass the salt? Would you mind lending me your book?).

The fourth is to go off record when performing the FTA. Off-record strategies or hints that are inherently ambiguous can be used when the speaker does not want to commit. This category includes strategies such as nonconventional indirectness, conversational implicature, and vagueness. The final strategy is to not do the FTA.

Figure 2 *Possible Options for Doing FTAs (Source: Olshtain and Blum-Kulka, 1985, p. 307, Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 69)*



Brown and Levinson (1987) state that the politeness strategy chosen will depend on the weightiness of the FTA, which is determined by three culturally sensitive variables. These three societal factors include the social distance between the speaker and the listener, the relative power disparity between the two, and the gravity of the potential face threat. In general, the following three circumstances can lead to varying levels of politeness: more courtesy is anticipated the more social distance there is between the speaker and the listener. The more civility is advised, the more the listener's perceived relative authority over the speaker increases A higher amount of civility is required the more the listener is being burdened.

However, Meier (1995) proposed another, broader view of politeness. In Brown and Levinson's theory, speakers have only a binary choice when handling politeness in interactions. The theory does not clarify what constitutes an act as FTA or what constitutes a negative or positive politeness strategy. In addition, "the politeness strategies they propose ignore the discursive reality of the dynamic struggle that occurs when speakers negotiate politeness in real interactions" (Watts, 2003, p. 88). Meier's politeness model places prime importance on the context within which an interaction takes place. Thus, Meier places politeness within the larger framework of social interaction present in a particular speech community, and vis-à-vis appropriateness and norms of social acceptability (Meier, 1995, p. 387). Moreover, the theory of politeness has been criticized for its ethnocentric methodology since it ignores the fact that politeness can differ across cultures. Goffman's (1967) "facial theory" served as the foundation for Brown and Levinson's definition of politeness. It has been suggested that "Varying cultural backgrounds may lead to different productions of the amount of politeness" and that the

face-saving approach evokes a Western-centric bias (Chang, 2008). To evaluate other cultures and beliefs using one's own culture or ethnicity as a frame of reference is known as being ethnocentric.

Overall, it seems that there is a number of viewpoints within the various pragmatic perspectives on the idea of linguistic politeness, including the conversational-maxim view (Lakoff, 1973; Leech, 1983), the face-saving approach (Brown and Levinson, 1987), and the conversational-contract view (Fraser, 1990). Regarding speech acts Brown and Levinson (1987), indicate that there are speech actions intrinsically threaten face and are referred to as face-threatening activities. This idea of face is intimately related to request and refusal speech acts (FTAS) which are the focus of this study.

1.4 Pragmatic Competence

Pragmatic competence was considered as a significant component of communicative competence for the first time by Bachman (1990). He worked on communicative competence and proposed a different model consisting of two components. Bachman divides language competence into two areas as organizational competence and pragmatic competence. In this model (1990) organizational competence includes the knowledge of linguistic units (grammatical competence) and the rules of joining them together at the levels of sentence and discourse (textual competence). Pragmatic competence consists of illocutionary competence, which is the knowledge of speech acts and speech functions, and sociolinguistic competence. This latter refers to the ability to use language appropriately according to the context, and includes the ability to select communicative acts and appropriate strategies to implement them depending on the contextual features of the situation.

According to Bialystock (1993), pragmatic competence includes: 1) the speaker's ability to use language for different purposes, 2) the listener's ability to get past the language and understand the speaker's real intentions (e.g., indirect speech acts irony and sarcasm), and 3) the command of the rules by which utterances come together to create discourse. Kasper and Rose (2002) in their turn define becoming pragmatically competent as "the process of establishing sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competence and the increasing ability to understand and produce sociopragmatic meanings with pragmalinguistic conventions" (p.318). Since pragmatic competence is one of the most important components of language speakers' communicative competence, there is a need to help language learners develop their pragmatic competences in the target language. In other words, language learners should acquire the rules of language use and ways of speaking as well as linguistic competence.

Additionally, research has demonstrated that even skilled learners of an SL or a FL may fail in their pragmatic appropriateness, underscoring the necessity of adopting a SLA perspective in the study of ILP (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). A high degree of grammatical proficiency does not always translate into a high level of pragmatic proficiency, as this author points out. As a result, there is growing interest in ILP in order to investigate potential influences on how learners acquire practical competence. LoCastro (2003) identifies six key aspects that have an impact on learners' inability to perceive or produce pragmatic information, which may lead to pragmatic failure. These six primary factors include pragmatic transfer, stages in interlanguage development, poor or uninformed education, lack of exposure to pragmatic norms, fidelity to first language culture, and motivation. The current study will also touch on some of these issues.

All of the aforementioned factors taken together have resulted in a sizeable body of literature on pragmatic performance study, but as was already said, developmental pragmatics research is still desperately needed.

1.4.1 Socio-Pragmatic Knowledge and Pragmalinguistic Ability

Knowing what learners must actually master in order to become pragmatically adept speakers is vital, in addition to the sources of pragmatic competence and pragmatic failure covered in the preceding section. According to Garca (1989), who summarizes pragmatic competence's many facets, “L2 speakers must learn the rules of language use that govern the target language, which include when and where to say something as well as what to say and to whom in a certain social and linguistic context” (p.314). Since then, the ILP research community has broadly accepted the distinction made by Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983) that these and all other aspects of pragmatic competence fall under one of the two components of pragmatics, namely sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics (Usó-Juan & Martnez-Flor, 2008; Yates, 2010).

According to Ferrández-Guerra, Usó-Juan, and Martinez-Flor (2003), "the social elements that impact the kind of linguistic actions that are available and their performance" are what are meant by "the sociological interface of pragmatics" (Leech, 1983, p. 10). It is the capacity to adjust one's verbal output in accordance with the situation's cultural and interpersonal environment. The more linguistic end of pragmatics is the subject of pragmalinguistics, which is concerned with "the resources conveying communicative acts and relational or interpersonal meaning" (Fernández-Guerra et al., 2003, p. 10). Trosborg (2003) defines pragmalinguistics as "knowledge of the linguistic inventory used to perform pragmatic functions." Learning to "map their sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic

knowledge onto each other, and be able to utilize their knowledge online under the restrictions of a communicative situation" is the challenge for learners to attain pragmatic competence (Roever, 2004, p. 284).

Another helpful definition of the words is given by Hassall (2006), who describes sociopragmatics as "the weighing of the social aspects that impact choice of linguistic form" and pragmalinguistics as the "linguistic form-pragmatic force link" (p. 51). Although Hassall made this remark in the context of a self-study journal in an immersion scenario, it is still a crucial point to remember for the classroom setting. This student obsession with pragmatics is made worse by the fact that it can be challenging for language teachers to correct pragmatic faults that emerge from sociopragmatic misreading as opposed to correcting pragmalinguistic failure (Liu, 2010, p. 481)

The study by Schauer (2006) also demonstrated that a study abroad setting is very helpful for the growth of sociopragmatic awareness in the target language. She evaluated the ability of two groups of German learners to distinguish between grammatical and pragmatic faults in the realizations of apologies, refusals, requests, and suggestions in two different contexts: an EFL environment at home and an ESL context abroad. She tested their skills in recognizing grammatical and pragmatic errors in the realizations of apologies, refusals, requests, and suggestions. Her study reveals that even after a relatively short immersion period of about one month, the ESL learners demonstrated a significant development in their recognition of pragmatic errors and thus in their sociopragmatic awareness that was absent in the EFL sample (Glaser, 2014).

Regarding pragmalinguistic competence, Al-Gahtani and Roever (2012) analyzed how Saudi learners of Australian English on four proficiency levels developed their use of request realization strategies and found that their level of pragmalinguistic skill was related to their overall proficiency level. Barron (2003) investigated the use of upgraders in refusals by Irish learners of German over an immersion period of ten months. She found that over time learners' use of upgraders and formulaic utterances approached target-language norms, especially for initial refusals.

Rose's (2000) analysis of prior ILP studies sought to shed some light on the general question of the relationship between the development of sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic skills; Chang carried on this work (2011). Both discovered that the available results are indicative of two competing viewpoints, namely pragmalinguistics before sociopragmatics' and 'sociopragmatics before pragmalinguistics' (Rose, 2000, p. 33). Sociopragmatic decisions are "social before they are linguistic, and while foreign learners are generally receptive to linguistic corrections, they are understandably sensitive when their social (or even political, religious, or moral) judgment is questioned", according to Thomas (1983, p. 104).

Bardovi-Harlig and Griffin (2005) support the latter point of view, they show that even when learners are aware of the sociopragmatic variations across the various settings, they find it difficult to use the appropriate forms. More precisely, ESL students were asked to correct pragmalinguistic errors they had noticed in videotaped instances in Bardovi-Harlig and Griffin's (2005) study's students were given the task of fixing pragmalinguistic errors they had found in scenarios that had been recorded on film. The findings demonstrated that although the learners frequently failed to produce target-like language

forms, they quickly provided sociopragmatic information, such as the appropriate speech act or technique.

The growth of her students' pragmalinguistic skills trailed behind the acquisition of socio-pragmatic knowledge, according to Pearson (2006), requesting three role plays from her basic and advanced English language learners that varied in the social standing of the interlocutors. However, Scarcella and Brunak (1981) discovered that learners had linguistic forms, or pragmalinguistic means, before they were able to use them effectively in specific communication settings. These forms are ways to communicate politeness according to social position.

It appears that we cannot now provide a satisfactory response to the topic of the developmental order of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic abilities. However, despite the fact that these findings appear to be at odds with one another, they all point to a more general, overarching question, namely the connection between the growth of pragmatic competence and general L2 proficiency, given that the studies we have reviewed here involved learners with various proficiency levels.

In fact, Chang (2011) provides a contradiction between the two points of view, arguing that “the divergent findings may be caused by the different data collection and analysis techniques used. The relationship between grammar and pragmatics is at the core of the developmental question in interlanguage pragmatics” (p. 788). He criticizes the emphasis on production data at the expense of perception and awareness data in studies that witness to the dominance of the pragmalinguistic domain, which may have overlooked some advancements in the sociopragmatic domain.

On the other hand, Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993) assert that "understanding that one needs to do something is logically previous to knowing how to do that same thing" (p. 298). This finding supports the idea that sociopragmatic knowledge is a requirement for the development of pragmalinguistic skills. Therfore, the current study investigates both the pragmalinguistic (production) and sociopragmatic (awareness) abilities of EFL university students with an intermediate to advanced level of English proficiency, assuming that sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic development are closely related and go hand in hand.

1.4.2 Pragmatic Failure

Research studies (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993; Kasper & Rose, 2001; Martinez-Flor, 2008, Glaser,2014) often revealed that although second language learners have already acquired an advanced level of grammatical competence their inappropriate uses of language in context often result in interpersonal communication breakdowns. This kind of failure is called pragmatic failure, Thomas (1983) defines pragmatic failure as "[…] the inability to understand what is meant by what is said" (p.91). The author prefers the term pragmatic failure to pragmatic error because she thinks that a grammar error can be explained by means of prescriptive rules, while the nature of the pragmatic ambivalence is so serious, that we cannot say that the pragmatic force of a sentence is incorrect, but that has not been able to reach the speaker's communicative intention.

In the same way, Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1986) believe that pragmatic failure takes place "[...] Whenever two speakers fail to understand each other's intentions" (p, 66). Thus, the listener can easily identify a grammar error, but we cannot say the same of pragmatic failure. If a non-native speaker is fluent, inappropriate speech may cause him or

her to appear unintentionally rude, uncultured or awkward. For this reason, pragmatic failure is an important source of intercultural communication breakdowns. Despite its significance, teachers and L2 textbook writers have ignored pragmatic competence. Thomas (1983) explains that it is essential to make a distinction between two types of "pragmatic failure". One is pragmalinguistic failure: a linguistic problem owing to differences in the linguistic encoding of pragmatic force. An important source of this type of error is pragmalinguistic transfer, where speech act strategies are inappropriately transferred from L1 to L2. For example, using "can you pass the salt?" in English, is to make a request, and this could be interpreted as a question to know if the listener has the physical ability to pass the salt.

The other type of pragmatic failure is sociopragmatic failure: cross-culturally different perceptions of what forms appropriate linguistic behavior. As Thomas states, this type of pragmatic failure is more difficult to correct and overcome by the students since this involves making changes in their beliefs and value system. For example, a Japanese learner of English living in the United States may wish to express extreme gratitude to someone, and uses the phrase "I am so sorry." In Japan, an apology can function as an intense way of giving thanks; however, a direct translation of such an utterance into English does not have the desired effect since English does not use apologies for expressing gratitude. What results is utter confusion, as the American listener wonders why the Japanese speaker is apologizing, and the Japanese speaker is hurt that the American did not acknowledge his giving of thanks.

In general, pragmatic failure occurs when language learners use inappropriate communicative acts which they transfer from L1 to L2 and they estimate the situational

factors on the basis of the sociopragmatic norms of their native language. If pragmatic expectations and assessments are culture-specific, language learners' perceptions of social distance, social status, or degree of imposition are significantly different from those of native speakers. Therefore, the understanding of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic distinctions are necessary for successful second language teaching and learning.

However, Gilmore (2007) notes that L2 students should understand that speaking another language does not mean that they are going to lose their cultural identities i.e., they must be urged to observe and learn the cultural norms of the language that is being studied but without changing their personalities. Nevertheless, we must raise their awareness to the cultural differences to help them become effective communicators.

1.4.3 Pragmatic Awareness

In the literature, the terms pragmatic comprehension (e.g. Kasper, 1984; Taguchi, 2008; van Dijk, 1977), pragmatic awareness (e.g. Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Garcia, 2004) and receptive pragmatic competence (e.g. Rinnert, Nogami & Iwai, 2006) have been used to refer to a hearer 's ability to correctly infer an interlocutor's intended meaning.

In one of the first papers on this issue, Van Dijk (1977) argues that to comprehend an illocutionary act correctly, interlocutors need to analyze the context in which the utterance is made. Kasper (1984) summarizes the five phases of the contextual analysis van Dijk proposes as follows:

- ✓ The identification of the general social context (formal/informal, public/ private)
- ✓ The identification of the specific social context (e.g. opening a formal meeting, introducing somebody at a party)

- ✓ The identification of the relevant factors in the given context, for example, participants' social status, their positional and situational roles, and their role relationship
- ✓ The identification of conventions (social norms) pertaining to the given context
- ✓ The identification of the overall ongoing action and the sequence of acts preceding the speech act under comprehension.

The list shows that inferring the intended meaning of an utterance is a complex process. To be able to correctly interpret what is being said, hearers need to have a good understanding of the cultural and pragmatic norms of the specific language and context. For example, in an English university context, a professor is regarded to be of higher status than an undergraduate student and the use of imperatives is not considered to be appropriate for higher-status interlocutors in non-emergency contexts. Consequently, it would generally be considered inappropriate if undergraduate students were to use an imperative to ask their professor for a favor during office hours. For L2 language learners, inferring the intended meaning of a particular utterance is particularly demanding, as they are still in the process of acquiring the pragmatic norms of their L2 and relevant cultural background knowledge, while also having to reconcile all of this with their existing L1 pragmatic norms and own cultural background. Thus, the more indirect and L2 culture specific a particular L2 utterance is and the less it overlaps with the pragmatic norms of the learners' L1 and a similar L1 utterance, the more difficult it will be for L2 learners to infer the intended meaning correctly. Glaser (2014)

Therefore, metapragmatic awareness in language use is crucial and should be included in EFL/ESL instructional contexts. Verschuren (2000) states that metapragmatic awareness is necessary for appropriate language use:

> "Being a crucial aspect of what goes on when language is used (whether in uttering or in interpreting), pragmatic analyses have to come to terms with the role of consciousness, awareness, or salience – whatever the the preferred term may be – in order to understand linguistic behavior. […] In other words, language users know more or less what they are doing when using language. Self-monitoring, at whatever level of salience, is always going on" (p. 444)

Therefore, "knowing what they are doing" is to be understood as metapragmatic awareness. Given that English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners must actively attend to input, seek contextual cues to understand why native speakers express themselves as they do, compare their own speech to that of native speakers in similar situations, and pay attention to the specific language forms used in different contexts, the key question arises: What kind of instructional approach would best support learners in their journey towards developing pragmatic skills in their second language (L2)? which is one of the aims of the present research.

1.5 Interlanguage Pragmatics

Interlanguage studies during the 1970s were typically concerned with learners' phonological, morphological, and syntactic knowledge, in other words, their linguistic competence. With the adaptation of Hyme's (1972) notion of communicative competence to second language learning and teaching, Canale and Swain (1980), called for extending the scope of interlanguage research to include learner's pragmatic and discourse knowledge. Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper (1989, p. 9) referred to this area as interlanguage pragmatics (ILP), which may be considered a relatively young subdiscipline within the area of SLA. Kasper (1992) defines it as: "the branch of second-language research which studies how non-native speakers (NNSs) understand and carry out linguistic

action in a target language, and how they acquire L2 pragmatic Knowledge" (p. 203). However, interlanguage pragmatics has been mainly sociolinguistic rather than psycholinguistic, and the development issues haven't got enough attention (Daives & Tyler, 2005). The scarcity of developmental ILP research was first mentioned by Kasper (1992) and later emphasized by Kasper and Schmidt (1996), who noticed:

> "Unlike other areas of second language study, which are primarily concerned with acquisitional patterns of interlanguage knowledge over time, the great majority of studies in ILP has not been developmental. Rather, focus is given to the ways NNS' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge differs from that of native speakers (NSs) and among learners with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. To date, ILP has thus been primarily a study of second language use rather than second language acquisition" (p. 150).

In terms of scope, Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993) argued that interlanguage pragmatics belongs to both the areas of second-language acquisition and pragmatics. Although many researchers view interlanguage pragmatics as a component of second-language acquisition, this relationship has sometimes been overlooked, and much of the research on interlanguage pragmatics has not really reflected interlanguage or acquisition at all (Kasper,1992; Kasper&Schmidt, 1996).

This leads to the question of what acquisitional interlanguage pragmatics would look like. Such a research agenda is extensively considered by Kasper and Schmidt's (1996) article, which, in turn, is dedicated to the development of pragmatic competence. Kasper and Schmidt (1996) asked the following 14 questions about interlanguage pragmatics:

> "1. Are there universal rules of language underlying cross-linguistic variation, and, if so, do they play a role in interlanguage pragmatics?
>
> 2. How can approximation target language norms be measured?
>
> 3. Does the L1 influence the learning of a second language?
>
> 4. Is pragmatic development in a second language similar to first language learning?
>
> 5. Do children enjoy an advantage over adults in learning a second language?
>
> 6. Is there a natural route of development, as evidenced by difficulty, accuracy, acquisition orders, or discrete stages of development?
>
> 7. Does the type of input make a difference in the level of acquisition?
>
> 8. Does instruction make a difference?
>
> 9. Do motivation and attitudes make a difference in the level of acquisition?
>
> 10. Does personality play a role?

Likewise, Bardovi-Harlig (1999) states that acquisitional research in ILP examines two essential issues: changes within the L2 pragmatics systems and influences on the systems. "Previous ILP research that intended to explore these two issues falls mainly into four strands of methodology: cross-sectional, longitudinal, pragmatic and instructional studies" (Tagushi ,2010, p. 2). Moreover, as Kasper and Rose (2002) make clear, "in order to inform issues related to L2 pragmatic development (or any development for that matter), research must adopt a longitudinal or cross-sectional design or a combination of the two" (p. 75).

In the subsequent sections of this chapter, we will present briefly some studies related to cross-sectional, longitudinal, and pragmatic transfer types, whereas, instructional studies will be discussed in the second chapter since the current study belongs to this type. Taguchi (2010) explained that cross-sectional studies have proven to be the most popular method of inquiry. These studies collect data from two or more cross-sections of a sample based on differences in proficiency level or length of residence. Then, any group differences derived from the pragmatic performance of the learners are attributed to

"changes" that the learners exhibit at different stages of their L2 learning and provide developmental insights. She concluded that findings generally suggest that there is an advantage of proficiency and length of residence in gained pragmatic performance (Kasper & Rose as cited in Tagushi, 2010).

Consequently, such studies revealed that the development of pragmatic competence is complex and varies greatly from individual to individual depending on learner-related factors such as attitudes, proficiency, learning context, gender, the amount and quality of exposure to the target language, and so on (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996).

1.5.1 Cross-Sectional Studies

The main focus of cross-sectional studies is on one or more realization strategies of speech acts: request, invitation, apology, refusal, greeting, and complaint by learners at different proficiency levels and different L1 backgrounds. While most studies examine the proficiency effects on L2 speech act production, some studies examined learners' metapragmatic judgment and comprehension of speech acts (Kasper & Rose, 1999). Proficiency levels and the length of residence in the target community were the main variables this type of studies examined their effects on learners' pragmatic development (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999) with a focus on adults as a population of study.

Oshtain and Blum-Kulka (1985) were among the first researchers who investigated non-native speakers' assessment of the pragmatics appropriacy from a developmental perspective. Their research revealed that learners of Hebrew tend to accept L2 pragmatics norms after they had resided in the target community longer. The study asserted that being totally immersed in the target language environment where they are

challenged in daily communication helps the learners acquire the pragmatic knowledge of the target language faster than proficiency in ILP development.

Vivekmetakorn (2006) explored whether or not grammatical proficiency and development is distinct from pragmatic proficiency regarding the speech act of refusals and formulaic language. Data were collected from 36 Thai EFL learners at three proficiency levels: low intermediate, intermediate and advanced, using four open role-plays. The role-plays were designed to incorporate different combinations of sociolinguistic variables of power and distance, as expounded in Brown and Levinson's politeness theory. The data were analyzed from two perspectives: pragmatic and lexicogrammatical. The analyses show that 1) the pragmatic orientation of refusal moves of the learners at the three proficiency levels was similar but 2) that the use of refusal moves to mitigate the force of refusals was slightly different across the levels; 3) the overall language produced by the advanced learners had the highest proportion of formulaic language, but 4) in the lexicalizations of refusals the low-inter-mediate learners used more formulaic language than the other two groups. The results indicate that the pragmatic aspects of the learners' refusals seem to be independent of their proficiency level while the way they used formulaic language in the role-plays and in the lexicalizations of refusals are related to proficiency level.

A cross-sectional investigation into the request strategies used by Iranian learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and Australian native speakers of English was conducted by Jalilifar, Hashemian and Tabatabaee (2011). The sample involved 96 B.A. and M.A. Iranian EFL learners and 10 native speakers of English. A Discourse Completion Test (DCT) was used to generate data related to the request strategies used by each group.

The selection of request situations in the DCT was based on 2 social factors of relative power and social distance. Although the results revealed pragmatic development, particularly in the movement from direct to conventionally indirect strategies on the part of the EFL learners, the EFL learners with higher proficiency displayed overuse of indirect type of requesting, whereas the native group was characterized by the more balanced use of this strategy. The lower proficiency EFL learners, on the other hand, overused the most direct strategy type. In terms of the influence of the social variables, the findings of this research revealed that as far as social power is concerned, the EFL learners displayed closer performance to the native speakers. But considering social distance, it seems that the Iranian EFL learners had not acquired sufficient sociopragmatic knowledge to display proper social behavior.

Throughout the years, the scope of cross-sectional studies has been extended to include other pragmatic features than only speech acts, e.g. formulaic expressions (Bardovi-Harlig 2009), interactional discourse markers (Wei 2011) and the sequential organization of argumentative discourse (Dippold 2011). Dippold (2011) compared the sequential organization of argumentative discourse between three L2 German groups of different lengths of study. Learners of lower proficiency levels used a short, two-or three-turn discourse structure with only one adjacency pair of an opinion followed by an agreement or disagreement. Whereas, higher-proficiency learners engaged in an extended discourse by relating each turn to the preceding turn (Tagushi, 2017, p. 12).

1.5.2 Longitudinal Studies

Cross-sectional studies may offer deeper insights for researchers about different groups at a single point of time, however, developmental issues of pragmatic competence or second language learning in general take a long time, and examining learning over time could provide fuller insights into learners' pathways towards evolving L2 abilities (Ortega & Iberri-Shea, 2005). The authors state that:

> ". . . any claims about learning (or development, progress, improvement, change, gains, and so on) can be most meaningfully interpreted only within a full longitudinal perspective. It is therefore unfortunate that the bulk of disciplinary discussions within the field favors a cross-sectional view of language learning and, as a consequence, discussions about longitudinal research are scarce" (p.26)

As regards interlanguage pragmatics, complete pragmatic competence is an aspect of more advanced L2 capacities that need some time to acquire, and it involves the command of linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge, in addition to the effective control of both knowledge types when encoding and decoding language functions in a sociocultural context, and to control for all these complexities, pragmatic competence development is best observed from a longitudinal perspective (Taguchi, 2010).

Although its significance, longitudinal investigation remains relatively scarce in ILP. The first longitudinal study in ILP was Schmidt (1983), and the second one that followed was the study of (Ellis, 1992) after almost a decade.

Schmidt observed an adult Japanese artist, Wes, who was living in Hawaii. He analysed Wes' development on four sub-competencies of Canale and Swain's communicative competence model during 3 years and found a minor development in 'Wes'

sociolinguistic competence, the researcher observed frequent use of imperatives, the incorrect -ing had disappeared, routines were used appropriately, his directives approximated native-like ones, increased use of formulaic expressions and lexical items to convey intentions (e.g., 'please' for a request and 'maybe' for a suggestion).On the other hand, Ellis (1992) observed two boys, aged 10 and 11, who had arrived in London from Portugal and Pakistan, respectively, shortly before the beginning of the study. They did not have any prior knowledge about English at the beginning of the study. Both learners received instruction in English and were observed during class lessons. One student was observed for 1 year and 3 months, while the second was observed for two years and the focus was on directives. Results indicate changes regarding the propositional incompleteness, which, over time became less as well as the use of direct requests, and their use of conventionally-indirect request increased over time.

Similarly, Achiba (2003) observed her seven-year-old daughter called Yao of a beginner level for 17 months. She described how Yao experienced four different stages of development. Her pragmatic competence as regards appropriate request improved and she learned using two hinting strategies. Furthermore, Yao was also able to use diverse request strategies as her linguistic and sociocultural awareness developed.

According to Taguchi (2017), in documenting changes in L2 pragmatic acts, these early studies set a model for longitudinal investigation, but only few studies followed it, resulting in a general agreement that ILP research has mainly focused on pragmatic use, rather than on acquisition (Bardovi-Harlig, 2000; Kasper and Rose 2003; Taguchi 2010). Kasper and Rose's (2003) review of development in ILP listed only nine longitudinal studies and a subsequent overview of development by Bardovi-Harlig (2000) listed less

than a dozen. The review of Taguchi (2012) found 23 unique studies over five languages (11 English, 4 Japanese, 3 French, 3 German, and 2 Indonesian) in three pragmatic aspects: comprehension of implicature (4 studies), perception/recognition of pragmatic features (5) and production of pragmatic functions (14).

Longitudinal studies are divided into three categories: comprehension, perception, and production of pragmatic functions. Comprehension studies are the group, in the area of interlanguage pragmatics mostly underrepresented in the literature (Kasper and Rose, 2002). Pragmatic comprehension involves an inferential understanding of speakers' intentions in utterances. Meaning is conveyed at two levels: utterance meaning, or the literal sense of uttered words, and illocutionary meaning, or the speaker's intention behind the words (Thomas 1995). Pragmatic comprehension in second/ foreign language learning "requires significant efforts because learners have to recognize the mismatch between the literal utterance and the intended meaning, then reprocess the literal information to infer the implied message. The greater the mismatch is, the greater the processing effort becomes" (Taguchi, 2017, p. 12).

In a research synthesis, Taguchi (2017) summarized and classified previous comprehension pragmatic studies into comprehension of implicatures, indirect speech acts, routines, and implied meaning. Among them, there are only four longitudinal studies: Bouton (1992, 1994) and Taguchi (2007, 2008). Bouton (1992) studied ESL learners' comprehension of conversational implicatures and Taguchi (2007) investigated the comprehension of indirect refusals (conventional implicature) and indirect opinions (non-conventional implicature) among Japanese learners of English. Learners' comprehension was measured over two semesters using a multiple-choice listening test. The results

revealed that comprehension was faster and more accurate, and development was more obvious for conventional indirect refusals than for non-conventional indirect opinions. The researcher supported the results by saying that "the ability to comprehend less conventional implicature does not seem to develop as quickly as conventional implicatures due to the extensive inferential bridge speakers use to arrive at correct interpretations" (Taguchi, 2010, p.13). Likewise, Bouton's study results were a slow development as irony items also fell within this extensive inferencing category.

In summary, conventional meanings are easier to process because they require fewer linguistic and cognitive resources, as long as they can take advantage of their conventionality. In contrast, more context-dependent or highly culture-specific meanings are more difficult to comprehend, because meaning does not have strong signals and instead requires a series of inferences (Taguchi, 2010).

Perception research in interlanguage pragmatics is the second category of longitudinal studies. All studies conducted in this field were in a study abroad context (e.g., Matsumura 2001; Schauer, 2006). This type of studies concerns metapragmatic awareness of pragmatic functions and Kasper and Rose (2002) noted that the study of speech acts is the best represented in this field in ILP. The main characteristic of perception studies in ILP is the role of sociopragmatics, i.e., the role of contextual factors in the linguistic choice.

Matsumura (2001) examined changes in learners' perceptions of advice-giving expressions. Japanese learners of English were given 12 advice-giving scenarios and were asked to select the most appropriate of four advice expressions: direct advice (the use of "should"), hedged advice, indirect comments with no advice, and opting out. The learners

in Canada and Japan took the questionnaire four times in one year. Both groups preferred using indirect and hedged forms of advice in situations of high-status interlocutors and this was attributed by the researcher to the transfer of Japanese (L1) socio-cultural norms to English, as Japanese are “status-sensitive” and prefer indirect expressions with people of higher position. But when giving advice to interlocutors of equal or lower status, the study-abroad group outperformed the at-home group. The author concluded that the study-abroad group seemed to have had opportunities to understand native speakers’ perceptions of social status.

Schauer (2006) also examined the awareness of pragmatic appropriateness in study-abroad context, replicating the study of Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei's (1998). She investigated learners’ recognition of pragmatic violations and grammatical errors, and the perceived severity of those errors. The video scenarios included apologies, refusals, requests, and suggestions and the German learners of ESL and EFL were asked to judge the appropriateness of the interlocutors' speech act expressions. Compared with the EFL learners, the ESL learners recognized a considerably larger number of pragmatic errors than grammatical errors. Like Matsumura, Schauer found that target language environment helps learners to gain pragmatic awareness easily because they can directly analyze pragmatic features as found in native speaker models (Taguchi, 2010).

Findings from most pragmatic perception studies reveal learners’ improvements over time but also find individual variation due to different qualities and quantities of experience. These findings support the sociocultural nature of pragmatic competence. Since pragmatic competence is affected by social norms, the users, and the rules of interaction, it may be said that the learning environment; being EFL or ESL plays a vital role in raising

learners' pragmatic awareness (Taguchi, 2010). However, the author claims that the role of sociocultural norms and transfer were effective regarding pragmatic awareness and perception, but their effects remain unclear in pragmatic production which will be discussed in the following sub-section.

The third category of longitudinal studies in interlanguage pragmatics is production studies. Production of pragmatic functions is different from perception and comprehension, as it requires both sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic knowledge of the pragmatic features (Taguchi, 2010). It requires a greater processing effort than comprehension or perception, because learners can "fake it" in receptive skills but not in productive skills (Swain 2005).

According to Taguchi (2010), the main constraint to effective pragmatic performance is grammar, and although learners are at an advanced level of grammatical competence, this does not guarantee a high level of pragmatic production, because learners need to have the exact linguistic resources to encode pragmatic functions. For instance, they need to be aware of the frequent use of "modal auxiliaries such as might and want to express opinions or desires, while the expression you might want to, to give advice. Lexis such as possible and a little bit, often used for hedging, can effectively mitigate the potential face-threat of a request" (Taguchi,2010, p. 19). Learners' knowledge of such lexico-syntactic forms and their associated functions is best noticed in production-based tasks that require greater linguistic repertoire and specific use of those linguistic devices.

Salsbury and Bardovi-Harlig (2001) examined the development of disagreements by three ESL learners in a U.S. university for 10 to 12 months. Daily conversation data between the learners and native speakers were collected monthly. Modal

expression tokens and types that appeared in conversation were recorded and analyzed for how they functioned to perform disagreements. Learners who had a large amount of type/token of modals proficiently used a variety of forms as appropriate expressions, "while learners with low type/token ratio either used inappropriate and strong forms of disagreement (e.g., No, It is bad), or recycled two modal-like expressions (maybe, I think) throughout conversation" (Taguchi ,2010, p.20). The results indicated that low level of grammatical competence was the main constraint in disagreement production and the use of modals.

Hassall (2006) the progressive development of the form-function associations in learners' interlanguage. He (2006) recorded his own acquisition of leave-taking conversations of Indonesion in a diary during a three-month stay. The diary documented that the researcher used only "permisi" in leave-taking situations at the beginning. After one month and a half, the author started using another expression "dulu" that he noticed in the media and after experiencing moments of misuse and corrections.

Nguyen (2011) examined an L2 English learners' change in the function of response over five weeks. Videotaped student-professor meetings demonstrated that the student's role shifted from a passive meaning receiver to an active meaning participant, her response action changed from using minimal responses in a delayed manner to using expanded responses automatically, and eventually to initiating a topic herself.

Similar conclusions can be drawn from many other studies in this field (Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1993; Ohta, 2001) as cited in Taguchi's meta-analysis (2010). The author concluded that learners usually begin with a limited range of pragmalinguistic resources, often characterized by the overgeneralization of a few forms

over a range of functions or the use of formulaic language. They progressively enlarge their pragmalinguistic repertoire by adopting a new form-function mapping into their systems. "This process is slow unless learners are exposed to an explicit correction, feedback, or modeling. The complete replacement of one pragmatic form with another also takes time as shown by the co-existence of forms and learners' tendency to switch between them" (Taguchi, 2010, p. 25).

In summary, "longitudinal studies that combine systematic data collection on quantitative change with qualitative analyses of context and individuals can provide an account of the intricate relationship between pragmatic change, individual differences, and context" (Taguchi, 2017, p 17). In other words, to control for all the interconnected factors: learners' subjectivity, stance, affect, resources, and interaction in the target language, that create the complexity and dynamicity of pragmatic competence development, the mixed methods approach may provide more insights, information, and solutions about learners' interlanguage pragmatics.

1.5.3 Studies of Pragmatic Transfer

The notion of transfer was introduced during the 1940s and 1950s and it was concerned with learners' phonological, morphological, and syntactic knowledge, i.e. their linguistic competence. With the adaptation of communicative competence to L2 learning and teaching, the transfer has a much broader scope, including learners' pragmatic and discourse knowledge. The phenomenon of pragmatic transfer in interlanguage pragmatics has received increased attention and has been investigated by a number of applied linguists and ESL/EFL educators.

Olshtain (1983) refers to pragmatic transfer as a learner's strategy of incorporating native language–based elements in target language production. Kasper (1992) defines pragmatic transfer as the influence that previous pragmatic knowledge has on the use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge: "Pragmatic transfer in interlanguage pragmatics shall refer to the influence exerted by learners' pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production, and learning of L2 pragmatic information" (p.207).

Many researchers have shown that second language learners do transfer the sociolinguistic norms of their native language when interacting with native speakers of the target language. Thus, studies on second language learners' realization of target language speech acts have supported the idea that pragmatic transfer is an important source of cross-cultural communication breakdown (Thomas, 1983). Blum-Kulka (1982) found that learners will always transfer their speech act knowledge and expect to find equivalent grammatical means and pragmatic rules in the L2 language, but they may misuse the L2 structure.

In the case of refusals, a study dealt with the pragmatic transfer of Iranian EFL learners' refusal strategies as reflected by their responses to a modified version of ten items discourse multiple choice task. The study first investigated pragmatic failures that Iranian EFL learners tended to commit in understanding pragmatic multiple-choice tasks and answering the questions. Then, building on the analysis of the collected data, it further discussed the amount of pragmatic failures among Iranian EFL learners and the source of this failure. The results of the study show that all of Iranian EFL learners committed pragmatic failure and answered more than 72 percent of the questions incorrectly and

almost half of the pragmatic failure of Iranian EFL learners is due to L1 interference (Jafari & Sadeghoghlo, 2018).

Another study investigated the performance of the speech acts of request and apology by Algerian EFL learners as part of their interlanguage pragmatics, focusing on the phenomenon of pragmatic transfer. The findings revealed many areas of cross-cultural variability in Arabic and English requests and apologies. Both types of transfer were evident in the learners' performance; pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic transfer. In requests, transfer was evidenced in head acts, modification and request perspective (Denden, 2016).

In sum, pragmatic transfer may result in non-native-like speech and lead to misunderstanding or even communication breakdown. Therefore, if the non-native speaker is consciously aware of the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic similarities and differences between his/her native and target languages, then negative outcomes of transfer will not probably occur.

Having provided a thorough description of the concept of pragmatics and the two theories related to it, which are the foundation of the current study , namely, Speech Act Theory and Politeness theory, then the importance of pragmatic competence for EFL/ESL learners to become effective communicators, and the field of Interlanguage pragmatics being closely related to SLA, the last subsection in this chapter will be devoted to requests and refusals, the two speech acts under scrutiny in this research.

1.6 Pragmatic Features Investigated: Requests and Refusals

After providing a detailed overview of the area of interlanguage pragmatics and the diverse aspects that contribute to or hinder the development of pragmatic competence, we will now display a thorough description of the pragmatic features that are the focus of the present interventional study, namely the two speech acts of requests and refusals.

Different perspectives exist to approach, structure, and classify the different aspects of pragmatics. Huang (2007) states that "the central topics of inquiry of pragmatics … implicature, presupposition, speech acts, and deixis" (p.2). Consequently, speech acts are not the only but a focal part of pragmatics research as they perform social actions and functions of communication, and "it has developed into a very fruitful area in cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics (Barron, 2003, p. 13). Of particular interest are the speech acts of requests and refusals as they are two of the most frequent speech acts in human communication, regularly used in everyday social interactions (Jalilimehr, Pazhakh, & Gorjian, 2012). They are by nature face-threatening acts (Bella, 2012; Brown & Levinson, 1987, for requests; Allami & Naeimi, 2011; Vilar-Beltran & Melchor-Couto, 2013, for refusals). A request may threaten the addressee's face by preventing him/her the freedom of action while a refusal may indicate a decline of the addressee's request, offer, invitation or suggestion. Both may also threaten the speaker's face if they render an unfavorable response from the addressee.

These speech acts are challenging for their complexity (Blum-Kulka, Danet, & Gerson, 1985; for requests, Allami & Naeimi, 2011; Beebe, Takahashi, & Uliss-Weltz, 1990, for refusals). They comprise of various strategies, many of which are used to soften and reduce the risk of offense. The appropriate choice of strategies depends on

sociolinguistic variables such as the relative social power of the interlocutors P, social distance between them D, the degree or rank of imposition R, age, and culture. The subsequent sections will provide detailed descriptions of the definitions, characteristics, taxonomies, Native speakers' requests and refusals from the literature as a baseline, and studies related to both requests and refusals.

1.6.1 Speech Act 1: Requests

1.6.1.1 Definition and Characteristics

A request is a speech act whereby a requester conveys to a requestee that he/she wants the requestee to perform an act, which is for the benefit of the requester (Trosborg, 1995). The act may be a request for an object, an action or some kind of service, etc, or it can be a request for information. The desired act is "to occur after the utterance, either in the immediate future or at some later stage" (Edmondson-House, 1981, p.99). Thus, polite requests can be characterized as pre-event, in contrast to, for instance, apologies, which are post-event, as they concern an offense or harm that happened before the act of apology.

Requests fall into the category of directives according to the classification of Searle (1969), with the following interactional characteristic: 'S (speaker) wants H (hearer) to do an act for his /her benefit (Schauer, 2009, p. 24). This particular speech act has attracted a large amount of research interest. Requests are very important to second/foreign language learners as they are very frequent in language use and daily communication (far more frequent, for example, than apologizing or promising) (Schauer, 2009).

1.6.1.2 Request as an Impositive Act

When the requester wants someone to do him/her a favor, this is generally at the cost of the requestee. The requester imposes on the requestee in some way when asking for goods or services (Trosborg, 1995, p. 187). Imposition speech acts are defined as utterances performed by the speaker to cause the hearer to perform that act, for the benefit of the speaker, the act may be expressed directly or indirectly suggested by the proposition (Haverkate, 1984, cited in Trosborg, 1995, p. 188). Trosborg explains the degree to which the requester forces the requestee as the degree of imposition.

1.6.1.3 Request as a Face-Threatening Act

Trosborg (1995) states that the request is by definition a face-threatening act (FTA) since “hearers can interpret requests as intrusive impingements on freedom of action, or even as a show in the exercise of power” (p. 188). The speaker, who makes a request, attempts to exercise power over the intentional behavior of the hearer. So, he/she threatens the requestee's negative face by indicating that he/she does not intend to refrain from impeding the requestee's freedom of action. “The requester also runs the risk of losing face him/herself, as the requestee may choose to refuse to comply with his/her wishes”. Trosborg (1995) remarks that in a request, the act to be performed is solely advantageous to the requester and, normally, at the cost of the requestee.

A considerable number of studies have focused on requests in interlanguage pragmatics research as a result of the following factors (e.g. frequency of requests in everyday life; diversity of desired actions/things; variety of interlocutors' cross-cultural differences in linguistic forms for formulating requests). Investigating learners’ ability to

use appropriate linguistic expressions in their L2 when making requests can provide insights into language learners' pragmatic skills and their ability to express themselves appropriately (Schauer, 2008).

1.6.1.4 Classification Systems for Requests in Interlanguage Pragmatics (Taxonomies)

a-Request Strategies

The most influential taxonomy of requests is the one used the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realisation Project (CCSARP) (House, Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1989), their categorization system of request strategies has been frequently employed in ILP request research, the names of the individual strategies as well as corresponding examples are included below and also summarized in Table1:

1. Mood derivable	Clean up that mess
2. Performative	I am asking you to clean up that mess
3. Hedged Performative	I would like to ask you to clean up that mess
4. Obligation Statement	You'll have to clean up that mess
5. Want Statement	I really wish you'd clean up that mess
6. Suggestory Formula	How about cleaning up?
7. Query Preparatory	Could you clear up the kitchen, please?
8. Strong Hint	You have left the kitchen in a right mess
9. Mild Hint	I wanted to cook tonight

Table 1

Head Act Taxonomy: Direct and Indirect Request Strategies (Source: Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989, p.278-281)

Directness Level	Request Strategy	Example
Direct	Mood Derivable *(Imperative)*	*"**Go** to bed!"*
	Obligation Statement	*"You **need** to clean your room."*
	Performative	*"I'm **asking** you to be nice."*
	Want Statement	*"**I'd like** to borrow your notes."*
	Hedged Performative	*"**I have to ask** you to be quiet."*
Conventionally Indirect	Query Preparatory	*"**Could** you lend me your assignment?*
	Suggestory Formula	*"**How about** we eat out tonight?"*
Unconventionally Indirect	Hint	*"It's a bit cold in here"*
(Implied based on context)	*(Possible Implicature)*	*(Can you close the window or turn on the heat?)*

Requests formulated according to strategies 1 to 5 are called direct requests in the CCSARP's scheme, while requests employing strategies 6 and 7 are referred to as conventionally indirect requests and requests based on strategies 8 and 9 are classified as non-conventionally indirect requests. The three directness levels that are distinguished in the CCSARP manual also signify the length of the hearer's inferential process to identify the utterance as a request (i.e. direct requests are usually identified as a request more quickly than non-conventionally indirect requests). A second request strategy framework which has also had a considerable impact on studies examining L2 learners' and native speakers' request strategy use was developed by Trosborg (1995).

Table 2

Request Strategies Presented at Levels of Increasing Directness (Source: Trosborg, 1995, p.205)

Category		Strategy	Example
Cat. II	Str. 2	Ability	Could you lend me your car?
Conventionally Indirect		Willingness	Would you lend me your car?
		Permission	May I borrow your car?
(Hearer-oriented conditions)	Str. 3	Suggestory Formulae	How about lending me your car?
Cat. III			
Conventionally Indirect	Str. 4	Wishes	I would like to borrow your car.
	Str. 5	Desires/Needs	I want/need to borrow your car.
(Speaker-based conditions)			
	Str. 6	Obligation	You must/have to lend me your car.
	Str. 7	Performatives	
		(Hedged)	I would like to ask you to lend me your car.
Cat. IV			
Direct Requests		(Unhedged)	I ask/require you to lend me your car.
	Str. 8	Imperatives	Lend me your car.
		Elliptical Phrases	Your car (please).

Both Trosborg (1995) and the CCSARP (1989) taxonomies include a directness scale in the CCSARP from the most to the least direct strategy and in Trosborg's scheme from the least to the most direct; the terms conventionally indirect and direct are used in both schemes), there are also some differences. It should be noted that there is no general

agreement on a definite categorization system for request strategies. The present study adopted Trosborg's (1995) taxonomy for data coding and analysis.

b- Request Modification

In addition to the individual request strategies that speakers can use to formulate their requests, a considerable amount of research has also been conducted on L2 learners' ability to further modify the illocutionary force of the utterance with internal and external modifiers. The CCSARP's coding manual contains a classification scheme for internal and external request modification that was based on earlier work by the researchers involved in the project (e.g. Blum-Kulka, 1987; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984: House & Kasper, 1981, 1987; Kasper, 1981)

c-Internal Modifiers

They are defined as linguistic and syntactic devices that modify the illocutionary force of the request, such as the politeness marker 'please' or the downtoner 'maybe', they occur within the same head act (Sifianou, 1999). Internal modifiers can be further subcategorized as downgraders (i.e. modifiers that decrease the illocutionary force of a request) and upgraders (i.e. modifiers that increase the illocutionary force of a request (Schauer, 2009, p. 167). In the CCSARP coding manual (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989) downgraders fall into two classes: lexical/phrasal and syntactic downgraders. The final taxonomy of internal modifications used in this research is presented in the tables 3 and 4 below:

Table 3

Lexical Downgraders

Category		Strategy	Example
Cat. II	Str. 2	Ability	Could you lend me your car?
Conventionally Indirect		Willingness	Would you lend me your car?
		Permission	May I borrow your car?
(Hearer-oriented conditions)	Str. 3	Suggestory Formulae	How about lending me your car?
Cat. III			
Conventionally Indirect	Str. 4	Wishes	I would like to borrow your car.
	Str. 5	Desires/Needs	I want/need to borrow your car.
(Speaker-based conditions)			
	Str. 6	Obligation	You must/have to lend me your car.
	Str. 7	Performatives	
		(Hedged)	I would like to ask you to lend me your car.
Cat. IV			
Direct Requests		(Unhedged)	I ask/require you to lend me your car.
	Str. 8	Imperatives	Lend me your car.
		Elliptical Phrases	Your car (please).

Table 4

Syntactic Downgraders

	Name	Illustration
a)	Conditional structures	'Could you give me an extension...'
b)	Conditional clause	'...if it's possible to have an extension...'
c)	Tense	'Is it all right if I *asked* for an extension...'
d)	Aspect	'I *was wondering* if it's possible to have an extension for the assignment.'
e)	Interrogative	'*Would you mind* doing the cooking tonight?'
f)	Negation of preparatory condition	'I don't suppose there is any chance of an extension?'

Unlike downgraders, upgraders may only be lexical and may include any of the following items, individually or in combination, as shown in table 5 below:

Table 5

Lexical Upgraders

a)	Intensifiers	'You *really* must open the window.'
b)	Commitment indicators	'*I'm sure/certain* you won't mind giving me a lift.'
c)	Expletives	'You still haven't cleaned up that *bloody* mess!'
d)	Time intensifiers	'You'd better tidy your room *right now*!'
e)	Lexical uptoners	'Clean up that *mess*!'

They may also include some less frequently used devices, such as determination markers, repetition of request, orthographic or suprasegmental emphasis, emphatic addition and pejorative determiners.

d-External Modifiers

In contrast, external modifiers which are also called supportive moves, are defined as additional statements which support the request proper. For instance, an explanation why the desired action should be performed is called grounder Trosborg (1995). In other words, request head act has external adjustments, sometimes known as supportive moves. These are supplementary utterances whose sole purpose is to contextualize and support the main request, which means that they either lessen or exacerbate its illocutionary force. The final taxonomy of external modifiers utilized in this study is presented in Table 6 below

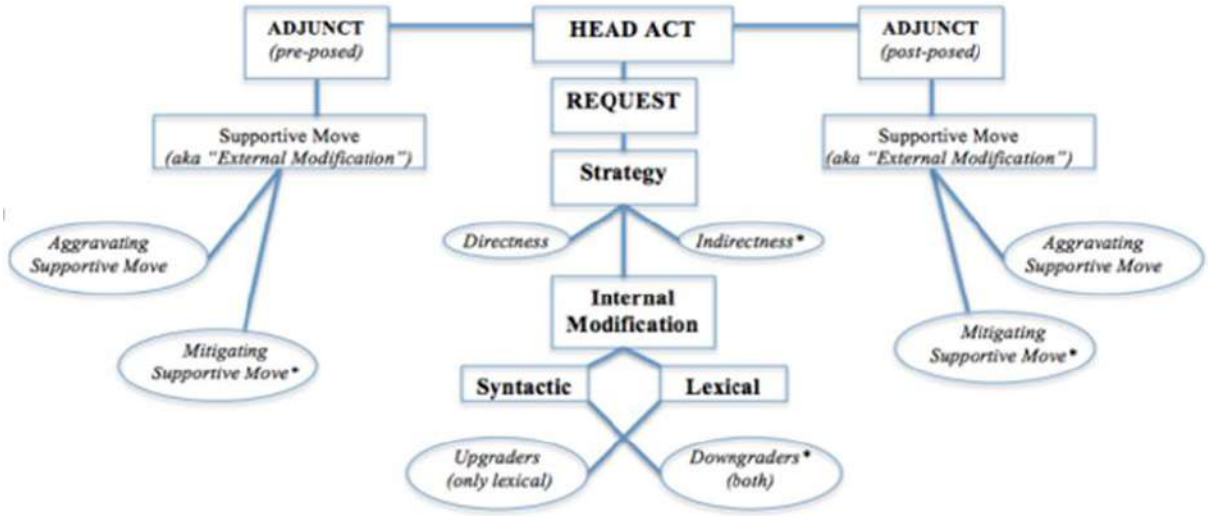
Table 6

External Modifiers (Woodfield, 2012, in accordance with Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, and Sifianou, 1999)

	Name	Definition	Devices
a)	Grounder	A clause which can either precede or follow a request and allows the speaker to give reasons, explanations or justifications for his or her request.	'I would like an assignment extension *because I could not deal with the typing time*'[1]
b)	Disarmer	A phrase with which "a speaker tries to remove any potential objections the hearer might raise upon being confronted with the request" (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989: 287)	'*I know that this assignment is important but* could you ...?'
c)	Preparator	The speaker prepares the hearer for the ensuing request.	'I really need a favour...'
d)	Getting a precommitment	The speaker checks on a potential refusal before performing the request by trying to get the hearer to commit.	'Could you do me a favour?'
e)	Promise	The speaker makes a promise to be fulfilled upon completion of the requested act.	'Could you give me an extension? *I promise I'll have it ready by tomorrow.*'
f)	Imposition minimiser	"The speaker tries to reduce the imposition placed on the hearer by this request." (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989: 288)	'I would like to ask for an extension. *Just for a few days.*'
g)	Apology	The speaker apologises for posing the request and/or for the imposition incurred.	'*I'm very sorry* but I need an extension on this project.'
h)	Discourse orientation move	Opening discourse moves which serve an orientation function but do not necessarily mitigate or aggravate the request in any way.	'You know the seminar paper I'm supposed to be giving on the 29th...'

It should be noted that the focus of both the instructional treatments and pre and posttests in the current study is on head acts HAs and internal modification as Figure 3 illustrates:

Figure 3 *The Components of the Speech Act of Requests (Source: Blum Kulka, House and Kasper (1989, p.257-289)*



1.6.1.5 English Requests in Cross-Cultural and Interlanguage Pragmatics Studies

Moving on to the studies dealing with the speech act of requesting, thus far, the first three studies mentioned in section 1.5.2 (Schmidt, 1983; Ellis, 1992; Achiba, 2003) were longitudinal and relied on naturally occurring data. They applied the coding scheme of the CCSARP (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989), and the findings revealed to a certain extent similar patterns in the performance of requests. At the beginning, all these beginner ELLs used exclusively direct strategies and with no internal or external modification. The first recorded requests were made using exclusively mood-derivable imperative forms, often with no verbs, relying on "please" as a request indicator rather than as a politeness marker (e.g., "pencil, please") (Ellis, 1992; Schmidt, 1983). Over time, the learners included verbs in the imperative forms (e.g., "Give me my book, please.") and a shift to increasingly frequent use of conventionally indirect strategies, especially query preparatory forms (e.g.,

"Could/ Can you…"). Additionally, request forms showed little internal modification and little variation in the linguistic expressions used (e.g., parents, teachers, classmates).

By the end of the three studies, the participant of Achiba (2003) expanded her linguistic repertoire more than the participants of (Ellis, 1992; and Schmidt, 1983). Achiba's participant began using conventionally indirect strategies more automatically, with a large use of lexical and syntactic modification (e.g., "Could you please pass me the glue?" "May I go play with my friend?"). Furthermore, Achiba (2003) asserts that by the end, "Yao seemed to show an awareness of differences in addressees as the basis for differentiating request forms" (p. 177). However, Achiba (2003) related her daughter's improvement in request performance to the variable of age, as she was seven, she showed her ability to perform requests with native speakers of the same age "displaying young child rather than adult level usage" (Achiba ,2003, p. 188).

Based on these findings, Kasper and Rose (2002) suggested five developmental stages in L2 request use presented in the following table.

Table 7

Five Stages of L2 Request Development (Source: Kasper & Rose ,2002, p.140)

	STAGE	TENDENCIES
1st	Pre-basic →	*Context-dependent Requests lacking in verbs*
2nd	Formulaic →	*Reliance on unanalyzed formulaic sequences and imperatives*
3rd	Unpacking →	*Formulaic sequences are analysed allowing for more productive use and a general shift to conventional indirectness.*
4th	Pragmatic → Expansion	*Pragmalinguistic repertoire is extended, greater mitigation, more complex syntax.*
5th	Fine-tuning →	*Fine-tuning of requestive force to participants and goals.*

The table displays five developmental stages of requests, the first three ones ((Pre-basic, Formulaic, and Unpacking) are related to the pragmalinguistics of request performance which was clearly observed in the three studies. The two last ones, (Pragmatic Expansion and Fine-tuning) show an interchange between pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. In other words, the learners began choosing their linguistic expressions depending on the addressees and the goal of the request (Kasper & Rose, 2002).

Several studies (Achiba, 2003; Ellis, 1992; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Woodfield, 2012) acknowledged that their studies were characterized by a pragmalinguistic rather than sociopragmatic pattern and revealed that "the learners failed to develop the sociolinguistic competence needed to vary their choice to take into account the addressee" (Ellis, 1992, p. 1), and they suggested further research that emphasizes social variables in contexts and politeness. Therefore, cross-sectional and pseudo-longitudinal studies were conducted with the following two objectives: (1) to investigate the pragmalinguistic development seen in the longitudinal studies; and (2) to design experimental scenarios that would more rigorously control for sociopragmatic factors among higher proficiency ELLs in order to examine participants' awareness of polite request expressions in relation to situational variables (Eskin, 2017)

By examining strategy choice for directness and indirectness in expressing politeness, one cross-sectional study (Rose, 2000) attempted to support the claims that request performance shifts between the Formulaic and Unpacking stages 524 participants of a primary school in Hong Kong (L1 Cantonese) were grouped from three levels of English proficiency (low, mid, and high), with the highest level consisting of 11-year-old students who had formally studied English for five years. Data were collected via a cartoon

oral production task (COPT), which included a Cantonese caption and a cartoon that described a situation in which a voiced request was necessary. Each participant received a tape recorder, and they were instructed to record a reasonable request in both Cantonese and English. When comparing the three levels of ability in terms of indirect English request forms (such as "Can/Could I..."), the results did in fact show a clear shift from direct to indirect strategies. In the low-level group, indirect forms made up 35% of requests; in the mid-level group, 86% of requests; and in the high-level group, 96% of requests. The results also confirmed that insufficient linguistic and grammatical abilities lead to the underuse of indirect forms at the beginner level, since all groups submitted almost exclusively indirect requests in their L1 (90%). Moreover, the researcher also noticed a lack of the use of internal and external modifications and varied linguistic expressions taking into consideration the addressee (e.g., classmates, siblings, parents, teachers) which goes in line with previous research that confirmed: "pragmalinguistic rather than sociopragmatic knowledge predominates in the early stages of L2 pragmatic development" (Economidou-Kogdetsis, 2011, p. 14)

Subsequently, a cross-sectional study (Goy, Zeyrek, & Otcu, 2012), investigated the use of internal mitigation or syntactic and lexical downgraders in open role plays among college students' learners of English aged (18-21 years old, L1 Turkish) at two proficiency levels: beginner and upper-intermediate, with a control group of native English speakers of the same age. Additionally, the study followed the developmental patterns of (Kasper & Rose, 2002) to investigate differences between the early and later stages (Stages 2-3 versus Stages 4-5; cf. table 5) marked by a significant increase in mitigating devices at Stage 4 (the stage of Pragmatic Expansion) and situational variation at Stage 5 (the stage of

Fine-tuning). In order to observe situational variation in internal mitigation, the open role play was designed to control for the social variables of power (P+/-), with two scenarios designed around making a request to a professor (P+), one to a classmate (P=) and one to a waiter (P-). In regards to their respective pragmalinguistic repertoires, the results revealed that native speakers used different syntactic downgrading from the ELLs at both levels, especially in scenarios involving requests to professors (P+), perceived to require greater politeness (Eskin ,2017).

Native English speakers used syntactic downgraders in 95% of their requests (60 of 63), frequently in the form of tense (e.g., "I just wanted to know if..."), conditional (e.g., "If it's at all possible…") or aspect (e.g., "I was wondering whether…"). By comparison, the upper-intermediate group used such mitigation devices in a mere 14% of their requests (12 of 84), and among the beginners, there were hardly any of these devices, only appearing 2% of the time (2 of 84 requests). This pattern was less used with lexical downgraders (e.g., "please," "perhaps," "Do you mind…") but still present, suggesting that lexical devices for politeness are acquired before syntactic ones (Goy et al., 2012).

In conclusion, regarding pragmalinguistics, the results showed that increased use of internal mitigation, specifically polite use of syntactic downgrades, is only gained at later stages of development (at Stage 4- Pragmatic Expansion). Concerning sociopragmatics, it appears that utilizing syntactic downgrading was used as a key aspect of politeness in situations that were perceived as P+ and less that were perceived as P= or P- (Stage 5- Fine-tuning) (Kasper & Rose, 2002). This metapragmatic awareness is apparent only with upper-intermediate ELLs in this study. Therefore, would such situational request variation occur in graduate students or other high-proficiency ELLs?

In order to examine how learners expand their pragmalinguistic repertoire and the way they shift to stage 5- Fine tuning their linguistic repertoire to match it with situational variations, Schauer (2006, 2009) and Woodfield (2012) conducted experimental studies with graduate students studying in the UK. Both studies were longitudinal to observe the effects of ESL context (living and studying in an English-speaking country) on their pragmatic development.

Schauer (2006, 2009) collected data from nine graduate students (L1 German) enrolled at a British university over a two-year period. The study consisted of four data collection phases every six months with a control group of native-speaker graduate students as a baseline. In order to address possible variation in data elicited from an open role play, a multimedia elicitation task (MET) was employed to elicit request behavior from 16 different scenarios including varied social variables; power (P) and imposition (R) (P+, P=, P-; R+, R=, R-). Analysis of results was about request strategy choice, including internal and external modification.

Similarly, Woodfield (2012), investigated the development of requests production of eight non-native speaking (NNS) graduate students (L1 Korean, Japanese, and Mandarin) at a British university over an eight-month period, in comparison to eight native-speaking (NS) graduate students. The study was limited only to the use of internal and external modification over three separate sessions, occurring during the 1st, 4th, and 8th month of the study. Similar to Goy et al. (2012), groups in the study performed open role plays meant to elicit requests. The social variables of power (P) and imposition (R) were controlled in two scenarios: (1) requesting an extension from a professor (P+ / R+) and (2) asking to borrow notes from a classmate (P= / R-).

Results of both studies indicated that there was a universal preference for conventionally indirect request forms, especially query preparatory modal forms during all phases, regarding the pragmalinguistic repertoire. For internal modification, also both studies revealed an obvious difference between NNS and NS use of syntactic downgraders , particularly, in situations of high imposition (R+) and unequal status (P+) . Woodfield (2012) points out, "the learners displayed a preference for lexical/phrasal modifiers over syntactic forms in all three phases of the study" (p. 21), supporting the findings of Schauer (2009). This was mostly performed with the use of tense (e.g., "Is it alright if I asked for an extension?"), aspect (e.g., "I was wondering if it's possible to get an extension?") and embedded-if clauses (e.g., "I'd really appreciate it if you'd allow me some more time."), used much more by native speakers in both studies.

On the other hand, the ELL graduate students primarily used lexical means of mitigation with conventionally indirect strategies, especially downtowners (e.g., "Could you perhaps allow me an extension?"). Both studies reported an increase in the instances of syntactic mitigation among their graduate student ELLs, but did not reach native-like performance. Schauer (2009) justified these results by saying that, "syntactic downgraders are inherently more complex than lexical one" (p. 173).

1.6.2 Speech Act 2: Refusals

1.6.2.1 Definition and Characteristics

One of the major cross-cultural challenges for ESL/EFL students, when using English, is the art of saying "no." "The inability to say "no" clearly and politely, though not too directly, has led many non-native speakers to offend their interlocutors. The problem

seems to stem in part from cross-cultural differences in refusal patterns" (Beebe & Takahashi, 1995)

There are various definitions of refusal from different perspectives. With respect to face theory, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), a refusal is, without a doubt, a face-threatening and negatively affective speech act. It is a commissive speech act according to the classification of Searle (1969). Refusals are "highly face-threatening speech acts because they involve the rejection of a request which the communicator felt was legitimate to make" (Daly, Holmes, Newton & Stubbe, 2004, p.948). Saying "no" can mean disapproval of the interlocutor's intentions and consequently, a threat to the interlocutor's face. Therefore, as Chen (1995) points out, "refusals are considered to be a face threatening act (FTA) in that either the speaker's or listener's positive or negative face is risked when a refusal is called for or carried out" (p. 6).

A refusal is a second pair part of an adjacency pair, that is, it follows an initiating utterance of another speaker (Glaser, 2014, p. 119), it is generally considered a speech act by which a speaker "denies to engage in an action proposed by the interlocutor" (Chen, Yeamp; Zhang,1995, p.121). A more comprehensive definition of refusal is offered by Gass and Houck (1999) as follows:

> "Refusals are one of a relatively small number of speech acts that can be characterized as a response to another's act (e.g., a request, invitation, offer, suggestion), rather than as an act initiated by the speaker. Because refusals normally function as second-pair parts, they preclude extensive planning on the part of the refuser. And because extensive planning is limited, and the possibilities for response are broader than for an initiating act, refusals may reveal greater complexity than many other speech acts" (p. 2).

In other words, refusals are among the speech acts in which communication breakdowns may happen as they are negative responses to requests, suggestions, invitations, or offers.

According to Chen (1996), refusals are often realized through indirect strategies, which require a high level of pragmatic competence and they are challenging even for native speakers (NSs) as they may require lengthy negotiation utterances. The situation becomes more complex for Second/Foreign language learners and may be conducive to pragmatic failure. Pragmatic inappropriateness may appear as a consequence of limited linguistic and grammatical competencies in the L2 and unawareness of the L2 sociocultural norms. In the EFL context, this sociocultural gap makes awareness and instruction of adequate refusals a necessity (Salazar & Safont, 2010).

On that account, there is a need to identify the repertoire of strategies that may realize refusals in natural conversations within the EFL/ESL context. In so doing, a taxonomy of refusals is needed as a starting point (Salazar & Safont, 2010).

1.6.2.2 Classification Systems for Refusals in Interlanguage Pragmatics (Taxonomies)

The most influential and best-known study on refusals, is Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz's (1990) taxonomy. The authors examined how Japanese learners of English refused requests, invitations, offers and suggestions by means of a Discourse Completion Test (DCT). Their classification is divided into semantic formulas, i.e., those expressions used to perform a refusal, and adjuncts are expressions which accompany a refusal but which cannot by themselves be used to perform a refusal. Both components, semantic formulas and adjuncts, are illustrated as follows:

Semantic Formulas

Direct

1. Performative
2. Nonperformative statement

Indirect

3. Statement of regret
4. Wish
5. Excuse, reason, explanation
6. Statement of alternative
7. Set condition for future or past acceptance
8. Promise of future acceptance
9. Statement of principle
10. Statement of philosophy
11. Attempt to dissuade interlocutor
12. Acceptance that functions as a refusal
13. Avoidance

Adjuncts

1. Statement of positive opinion/feeling of agreement
2. Statement of empathy
3. Pause fillers
4. Gratitude/Appreciation

In this taxonomy, semantic formulas are first divided into direct and indirect realizations of refusals. Direct categories include performative statements such as "I refuse" and non-performative statements like "No" or "I can't". By means of indirect realizations, the refuser mitigates the face-threatening act in order to soften negative effects. This is accomplished through the use of excuses, explanations, alternatives, and so on.

As stated above, adjuncts cannot by themselves be used to perform a refusal. Yet, they may appear just before the semantic formula (pre-refusals) or after it (post-refusals), Félix-Brasdefer (2004). Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz's (1990) taxonomy has been adopted to analyze refusals and is a typical model for researchers to follow throughout the last 20 years.

1.6.2.3 Refusal Strategies

Salazar and Safont (2010) suggested the following coding scheme that relies heavily on Beebe et al's,. (1990) taxonomy. The semantic formulas are divided into direct and indirect.

I) Direct strategies: include two main subtypes:

i) bluntness, which entails - the use of a flat "no" or - the performative verb "I refuse"

ii) negation of proposition, which involves expressions that contain -negations (negative willingness /ability) (e.g. "I can't", " I won't", "I don't think so").

II) Indirect strategies: are divided into seven main subtypes;

i) plain indirect, which refers to those expressions that mitigate the refusal (e.g. "It seems I can't")

ii) reason or explanation, in which the refuser indicates the reason why he/she is rejecting the request (e.g. "I have a meeting", "My mum is sick")

iii) regret or apology, in which the refuser expresses he/she feels bad for turning down the request (e.g. "Sorry", "I'm so sorry, I can't")

iv) alternative, which includes - change of option, in which the refuser suggests a different alternative in which the request can be fulfilled (e.g. "I can do it if you choose a different place- change of time, in which the refuser promises to comply the request at later time (e.g. "I promise to do it next week")

v) disagreement/dissuasion/criticism, in which the refuser disagrees about the requester's action of asking or dissuades him/her from asking (e.g. "with this weather, you should not be asking to go out for a walk!)

vi) statement of principle/philosophy, in which the refuser resorts to moral beliefs to avoid performing the request (e.g. "I never lend money to strangers"), (I never do business with friends), or (One can't be too careful)

vii) avoidance, which includes - non-verbal avoidance, in which the refuser merely ignores the request by means of silence or going away - verbal avoidance, in which the refusal is performed by using some hedges (e.g. "Well", "I'll see"), changing the topic or making a joke.

III) Adjuncts to refusals: refer to those expressions that accompany a refusal but do not constitute a refusal by themselves. They include five subtypes:

i) positive opinion, in which the refuser expresses that the request is a good idea but he/she cannot comply it (e.g. This is a great idea, but …)

ii) willingness, in which the refuser expresses that he/she would be willing to perform the request but he/she cannot (e.g. I'd love to help, but …)

iii) gratitude, in which the refuser softens his/her refusal by thanking his/her interlocutor (e.g. "Thanks a lot, but …")

iv) agreement, in which the refuser expresses his/her consent before actually making the refusal itself (e.g. "Yes, but …")

v) solidarity or empathy, in which the refuser demands the solidarity of the requester by asking for his/her sympathy (e.g. I realise you are in a difficult situation, but …")

IV)Refusal Sequences

Hassani, Dastjerdi, and Mardani (2011, p. 39) mentioned, the usual sequence in refusal strategy is in three phases:

1.Pre-refusal strategies: these strategies prepare the addressees for an upcoming refusal

2.Main refusal (Head Act): this strategy expresses the main refusal.

3.Post-refusal strategies: these strategies follow the head act and tend to emphasize, justify, mitigate, or conclude the refusal response.

For example, a refusal sequence of someone to his friend's request for going to movies together would be:

Uhm, I'd really like to (pre-refusal), but I can't (main refusal). I'm sorry. I have a difficult exam tomorrow (post- refusal).

The number of moves in a refusal depends on the type of refusal (that is, whether it is direct or indirect).

Compare the following examples:

A: May I go out now? B: No, you may not.

A: Have another cookie. B: Thanks. Everything was so tasty; I couldn't eat another bite.

In example 1, there is only one move in the refusal. In contrast, the speaker in example 2 uses more than one move in indirect refusals. Therefore, indirect refusals have

more moves. In sum, Glaser (2014) evaluates Beebe et al.'s (1990) classification scheme of refusals as being limited only to semantic strategies and adjuncts but does not take turn level strategies or modality markers into consideration. With regard to semantic strategies, she denotes that this system divides refusals into two direct and eleven indirect strategies with numerous sub-strategies, in addition to, a total of four adjuncts. Overall, the indirect strategy category is the largest, with a total of twenty-six sub-strategies. "This classification has probably been so successful because it was developed for all four initiating moves" namely, requests, suggestions, invitations, and offers (Glaser,2014, p.122).

However, as Gass and Houck (1999), point out, "some of the (sub)strategies do not apply to all eliciting acts and that a certain degree of adaptation might be advisable for certain research goals" (pp.13-14). Moreover, some researchers (Gass & Houck, 1999, p. 39; Houck & Gass, 1996, pp. 52-53; Morrow, 1995, pp. 169-173) noticed that the taxonomy of Beebe et al. (1990) was designed on the basis of written data that is why it did not account for all the features they found in their oral data and they suggested an extension of the system. Consequently, the present study adopted Salazar et al's. (2009) coding scheme mentioned earlier and summarized in (table 8) which is based on Beebe et al.'s (1990) classification scheme, with some adaptations following the work of Kasper (2006) on interlanguage pragmatics to account for a conversational perspective and study refusal behavior which is pertinent to the current investigation that collects both written and oral data.

Table 8

Taxonomy on the Speech Act of Refusing (Source: Salazar & Safont, 2009, p.145)

REFUSALS	
Direct Strategies	
1. Bluntness	*No./ I refuse.*
2. Negation of proposition	*I can't, I don't think so.*
Indirect Strategies	
1. Plain indirect	*It looks like I won't be able to go.*
2. Reason/Explanation	*I can't. I have a doctor's appointment.*
3. Regret/Apology	*I'm so sorry! I can't.*
4. Alternative: • Change option • Change time (Postponement)	 *I would join you if you choose another restaurant.* *I can't go right now, but I could next week*
5. Disagreement/Dissuasion/Criticism	*Under the current economic circumstances, you should not be asking for a rise right now!*
6. Statement of principle/philosophy	*I can't. It goes against my beliefs!*
7. Avoidance • Non-verbal: Ignoring (Silence, etc.) • Verbal: o Hedging o Change topic o Joking o Sarcasm	 *Well, I'll see if I can.*
ADJUNCTS TO REFUSALS	
1. Positive opinion	*This is a great idea, but….*
2. Willingness	*I'd love to go, but….*
3. Gratitude	*Thanks so much, but…*
4. Agreement	*Fine!, but….*
5. Solidarity/Empathy	*I'm sure you'll understand, but…*

It should be pointed out that strategy choice depends on contextual variables. Kasper (2006) states that contextual variables will determine linguistic behavior, and thus, they should be considered in interpreting refusal behaviour. The context will provide information on social power P, social distance D, and degree or rank of imposition R. "The interplay between (i) these contextual variables, (ii) the refusal routine employed and (iii) the conversational turns needed for refusing is the basis of our proposal for analysing EFL learners' refusal behaviour". (Salazar and Safont, 2010, p.9). Therefore, adopting a

discourse perspective may fill the gap in research about acquisitional interlanguage pragmatics which is in line with Alcon's claim (2008): "discourse perspectives in tackling interlanguage pragmatics should account for both: (a) ways of strengthening or weakening a given utterance, that is, pragmalinguistic knowledge and (b) ways of interpreting and acknowledging situational variables, that is, sociopragmatic knowledge" (cited in Salazar & Safont, 2010, p.9).

1.6.3 English Refusals in Interlanguage Pragmatics

Over the past three decades, many studies have been conducted investigating the realization patterns of refusal speech act within and across different languages. Turnbull and Saxton (1997) investigated the use of modality (e.g., can, may, would, perhaps) in 70 refusals to a request. Data collection consisted of telephone conversations with previously contacted university students who had agreed to take part in a psychological study. As the request was receiving an electric shock, the authors anticipated participants' refusals to such a demanding request. Data analysis revealed that modal expressions occurred frequently in the five categories Turnbull and Saxton (1997) proposed, which are as follows:

- Negate requests (9%): "No"; "I don't think so"
- Performative refusal (7%):"I pass"; "I better say no"
- Indicate unwillingness (7%): "I don't think I want to do that kind of thing"
- Negated ability (44%): "I can't"; "I won't be able to do it"
- Identify impeding statement (33%): "I have to work"; "I'm busy"

The use of modality was justified by speakers' attempts to do facework, by means of a tentative refusal ("I don't know") which implies that the speaker is reluctant to refuse. A different possibility is negating the speaker's ability to accept the request (e.g. "I can't"). Moreover, a widely used strategy is giving reasons for refusing the request ("I have to work on Saturday") (Safont &Salazar ,2010).

Based on the work of Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990), Gass and Houck (1999) examined refusals to suggestions, offers, invitations and requests. Data were collected through open role plays, it was found that nonperformative refusal, statement of regret, excuse/reason and alternative accounted for almost two-thirds of responses. As for adjuncts, the authors found a preference for empathy, pause fillers, and expressions of gratitude.

Additionally, Félix-Brasdefer (2003) used three groups of subjects (Americans speaking English, advanced American learners of Spanish and Latin Americans) to investigate what politeness strategies were used when declining an invitation. Refusals were elicited by means of open-role plays with interlocutors of different status. These role plays were tape-recorded and played back to carry out retrospective verbal reports (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). Although no major differences were found among the three groups with respect to the level of directness, they did display different degrees of preference: Americans speaking English were more direct when refusing; the advanced learners were in intermediate position and Latin Americans showed a lesser degree of directness. These findings were further explained with the analysis of the verbal reports, in which the Latin Americans observed that they were not able to provide a direct no to the person who made the invitation. Therefore, an indirect refusal was preferred as it

contributed to save face. This study corroborates previous claims (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998) on the fact that advanced proficiency in a language does not equate with the same level of sociocultural knowledge and values.

For instance, Ming-Fang Lin (2014) examined the cross-cultural differences between Chinese and English refusal and how Chinese EFL learners perceive and perform the speech act of refusal. The data were recruited from three participant groups: 30 native speakers of Mandarin Chinese in Taiwan (NSC), 30 Chinese EFL learners in Taiwan (EFL), and 30 native speakers of American English in America (NSE). Data were collected through a questionnaire with two major parts: Scaled Response Questionnaire (SRQ) and Discourse Completion Task (DCT). Elicited data were analyzed in terms of three perspectives: perception of face-threat, overall strategy use, and strategy patterns. The results showed the similarities and differences between Chinese and English refusals. As for EFL learners, they tended to perceive the face-threat greater, and used more strategies and softening devices than Chinese and Americans. In addition, some L2 native expressions were never used by learners.

Alrefaee and Al-Mansoob (2020) studied refusals to offers and suggestions of Yemeni EFL learners and compared them with refusals of Arabic native speakers (ANS) and English native speakers (ENS). They examined how Yemenis and Americans realize refusals of suggestions and offers to persons of higher, lower and equal social status. The study also aimed to find out the most frequently utilized refusal strategies by Yemeni EFL learners compared with those of Yemenis and American native speakers. Three group participants were used in this study: 20 native speakers of Arabic (ANS), 20 native speakers of English (ENS) and forty Yemeni EFL learners. The results indicated that

Yemenis and Americans used different strategies when refusing persons of equal and lower social status. ANS also used the adjunct of invoking the name of God which is religiously rooted and culturally specific to support and mitigate their excuses. Interestingly, Yemeni EFL learners showed a tendency toward the L1 pragmatic norms in the use of invoking the name of God and the use of direct strategies when refusing someone equal or lower in status.

Sriwijaya (2015) described the strategies of proficient EFL students' refusal realization in Indonesian and in English and the occurrences of pragmatic transfer (PT) in their refusal realization. Adopting a mixed-method approach, data were collected from 18 EFL students through DCTs and analyzed based on combined refusal classification by Wannaruk (2005) and Campillo (2009). The results showed that proficient EFL students mostly used the indirect strategies in their refusal realization both in English and Indonesian and differences occurred in term of semantic formula choice and order in the twelve situations of DCT, which indicates the presence of pragmatic transfer.

Al-Issa (2003) examined the phenomenon of sociocultural transfer and its motivating factors within the realization patterns of the speech act refusal by Jordanian EFL learners. EFL refusal responses were compared with similar data elicited from native speakers of English responding in English and native speakers of Arabic responding in Arabic. The results showed three areas in which sociocultural transfer appeared in EFL learners' speech: choice of selecting semantic formulas, length of responses, and content of semantic formulas.

In the Algerian context, Benbouya and Rabab'ah (2022) studied strategies of refusal used in Algerian Spoken Arabic (ASA) in response to offers. The study included 30 native Algerians (15 males and 15 females) enrolled at the University of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel, Algeria. To achieve the objectives of the study, the researchers used an Oral Discourse Completion Task (ODCT), which included six hypothetical scenarios representing three social statuses (Equal-Equal, Low-High, and High-Low). The findings revealed that Algerian Arabic speakers recorded preference to use direct refusal strategies in their response to offers from all status interlocutors (equal, higher, and lower). It was also found that negative willingness/ability was the most frequently used strategy to refuse all status interlocutors' offers.

Moreover, Tahir (2016) investigated how far does the native language influence the comprehension, and the production of requests, apologies, and refusals in contexts by Algerian EFL learners. The study was meant to highlight the importance of raising English language learners' awareness about how different their pragmatic system is from that of the target language native users. A questionnaire was administered for a group of EFL university students. The results confirmed that students' unawareness of the influence of their L1 leads them to misinterpret some English contexts, thus, pragmatic errors are made in the target language.

To sum up, most studies on refusal behaviour adopt a cross-cultural or pseudo cross-cultural perspective, or analyse the semantic formulas produced by EFL learners and compare them with those used by NNSs. Moreover, research on IL refusals presents either a sociopragmatic description of ESL learners' production or a pragmalinguistic account of EFL refusal behaviour. "Yet, a need for both a pragmalinguistic and a sociopragmatic

account of refusal work within a conversational framework is needed" (Salazar & Safont ,2010, p. 144). On that account, the present study follows Salazar and Safont's (2010) coding scheme and examines both sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic refusal behavior to the four stimulus types; offers, suggestions, invitations, and requests through DCTs, role plays and pragmatic awareness tests.

1.7 The Effects of Situational Variables on Speech Act Performance

Speech has been frequently defined as social actions or activities (Glaser, 2014), therefore, and like any other social action, they take place in a physical environment. Thus, they do not only depend on time and space but rather on the interlocutors, the relationships between them and the communicative goals. Consequently, any empirical research about speech act realizations requires control for these situational variables both in designing data collection instruments or in the analysis if data (Glaser, 2014). Cohen and Olshtain (1985, p. 176) confirm: "it is important to investigate speech acts "across socially-varied situations" in order to "establish the frequency of use of different conventions according to social constraints".

Brown and Levinson (1987) identified three major variables that influence language use in social interactions, namely power, social distance, and rank of impos imposition. In her turn, Thomas (1995, p. 131) emphasized the psychological and affective factors that shape speech act realizations and added a fourth category; rights and obligations, a factor that other researchers (Blum-Kulka & House, 1989; Hartford & Bardovi-Harlig, 1996) agreed with her on its importance in speech act realizations. Given the importance of these sociological variables, the present study takes power, social

distance and rank of imposition into consideration in the design of data collection instruments and data analysis.

a-Power

Social power was introduced by Brown and Levinson (1987) in their politeness theory indicating indirectness levels people use in their interactions. “Power (P) refers to the relative power of the speaker over the hearer (and vice versa) as perceived by the interactants” (cited in Glaser,2014, p.142). Precisely, Brown and Levinson (1987, p.77) define P as “the degree to which H can impose his own plans and his own self-evaluation (face) at the expense of S’s plans and self-evaluation” and Trosborg (1995, p.143) views power as dominance or a higher status in her turn.

In social encounters, speakers generally use a higher level of indirectness with people who (are perceived to) have more power, often resulting in longer and more elaborate utterances (Taguchi, 2007). Furthermore, tests of oral performance have demonstrated that most people find speaking tasks directed towards a person of higher power as more difficult and challenging, regardless of whether the language used was their L1 or L2 (Taguchi, 2007). Hence, it is not only important to include this variable in the teaching of speech acts, but also to devote specific attention to situations with a high social power as they require the most attention and effort both cognitively and linguistically. Glaser (2014).

b-Distance

The second sociological variable influencing speech act production is social distance (D), which is the degree of S's perceived familiarity or closeness with H. Speakers have been reported to produce more elaborate utterances when they are socially distant (Yule, 1996, p.60).

Social distance is often equated with the degree of intimacy between speakers, but it is not limited to perceptions of familiarity. According to Hudson (2001, p.284), social distance "represents the distance between the speaker and the hearer and is, in effect, the degree of familiarity and solidarity they share as represented through in-group or out-group membership. This is reflective of the degree to which the two interactants identify with each other or share some affiliation and solidarity". It is obvious that even total strangers can feel a rather high degree of social solidarity based on factors such as gender, age, status, social function, etc., in a certain situation. This category thus should be viewed as a psychological dimension describing individual perceptions rather than the (more or less) observable hierarchical categories.

However, some researchers find it too challenging to separate P and D "power and social distance very frequently co-occur – we tend to be socially distant from those in power over us (e.g., in the workplace)" (Thomas, 1995, p.129). Likewise, Martínez-Flor (2004, p.183) noticed in the pilot testing phase of her suggestion scenarios that the two factors often overlapped and were difficult to isolate. P and D are thus often combined in ILP research for reasons of stimulus clarity: "A high degree of power distance is coupled with a high degree of social distance, and speaker constellations with a low power distance usually also display a low social distance" (e.g., Blum-Kulka et al., 1989a, p.15). Glaser

(2014) explains that this practice may necessitate the exclusion of certain real-life encounters, but it is employed to ensure that the stimuli presented to the participants are interpreted as similarly as possible across the sample, thus ensuring the validity of the research design.

c-Rank of Imposition

Since speech acts are social actions, they have the potential to change social reality and can thus cause a real or perceived burden on the hearer and interfere with his/her wants or desire of being self-determined or being approved (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p.77). In their theory of politeness, Brown and Levinson (1987) accounted for such a potential burden with "the situational factor ranks of imposition (R), which reflects the expenditure of time, services and/or goods imposed upon the speaker or the hearer".

d- Degree of Imposition

The degree of imposition is contextually dependent, and it varies cross-culturally. For instance, the degree of imposition changes whether the speaker asks to borrow a pen (low imposition) or to borrow a laptop (high imposition). In addition, the relationship with the other interlocutor can modify the degree of imposition. Variables such as power, distance, and the role of the relationship have an influence on the imposition. In the case of the role of the relationship, the degree of imposition can be decreased due to the existence of a contract or obligation, such as a job contract (Spencer-Oatey, 1996). Finally, taking into consideration the three social variables, in addition to other situational factors, speakers choose the use of different strategies to mitigate the impact of the FTA during social interaction (Félix-Brasdefer & Koike, 2014).

The following table presents the three social variables controlled for in the current study:

Table 9

Sociological Variables Involved in Face-threating Acts (Source: Brown & Levinson ,1987, p.74)

Dimension	-	=	+
(P) Power relationship *(Speaker → Hearer)*	Hearer - lower status	Hearer - equal status	Hearer - higher status
(D) Social Distance *(Speaker → Hearer)*	Well acquainted	Somewhat acquainted	Unacquainted
(R) Rank of Imposition	Not significant	Somewhat significant	Very significant

Conclusion

The present chapter reviewed the literature related to the field of Interlanguage Pragmatics ILP, which has been considered as a second-generation hybrid since it belongs to two separate disciplines, namely Pragmatics and SLA (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993). Regarding the first discipline, most studies conducted in ILP have been comparative and closer to cross-cultural pragmatics. As regards SLA research, it has been argued that the field of ILP needs more research about developmental issues that help pragmatic development (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996; Bardov-Harlig, 1999, 2002; Kasper & Rose, 2002). Therefore, this chapter was devoted to the concept of pragmatics, the most influential theories of pragmatics, pragmatic competence, pragmatic failure, interlanguage pragmatics, speech acts under investigation, and the taxonomies adopted in the current investigation. How to put these theories and taxonomies into practice and their applicability

in the EFL/ESL classroom will be dealt with in chapter two which will provide a thorough description of Instructional Pragmatics.

Chapter Two

Pragmatics and Language Teaching

Chapter Two

Pragmatics and Language Teaching

Introduction 101

2.1 Information-processing and Pragmatic Theoretical Approaches in ILP: Cognition, Relevance and Noticing 103

2.1.1 Cognitive Processing Theory 103

2.1.2 Bialystok's Two Dimensional Model of Language Use and Proficiency 104

2.1.3 Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis 106

2.1.4 Relevance Theory 109

2.1.4.1 Relevance and Cognition 110

2.1.4.2 Relevance and Communication 111

2.1.4.3 Relevance and Comprehension 112

2.1.5 The Relationship between Cognition, Noticing and Relevance 114

2.2 Pragmatics and Language Instruction 118

2.2.1 The Effectiveness of Pragmatics Instruction 118

2.2.2 Explicit versus Implicit Instruction 124

2.2.3 Inductive vs Deductive Instruction 127

2.2.4 Instructional Components : Input, Output, and Feedback 133

2.2.4.1 Input 134

2.2.4.2 Output 141

2.2.4.3 Feedback 145

2.3 Pedagogical Frameworks to Teach Pragmatics 149

2.3.1 Characteristics of Second and Foreign Language Settings 150

2.3.2 Teaching Speech Acts 152

2.3.3 Techniques to Teach Speech Acts 153

2.3.4Pedagogical Models to Teach Speech Acts 155

2.4 The Pedagogical Framework Adapted in the Current Study: The 6 Rs Approach 159

2.4.1 Researching Phase 159

2.4.2 Reflecting Phase 161

2.4.3 Receiving Phase 162

2.4.4 Reasoning Phase 164
2.4.5 Rehearsing Phase 168
2.4.6 Revising Phase 172
2.5 Research on Pragmatics in Second/ Foreign Language Classrooms 173
2.5.1 Data Collection Techniques 173
2.5.1.1 Pragmatic Production 174
2.5.1.2 Pragmatic Comprehension and Perception 182
2.5.1.3 Pragmatic Decision Making 186
2.5.1.4 Learners' Perceptions of the Pragmatics Instruction 189
2.6 Studies Dealing with Pragmatics in Second and Foreign Classrooms 192
2.6.1 Observational Studies 193
2.6.2 Interventional Studies 193
2.7 Previous Related Studies 194
Conclusion 200

Chapter Two

Pragmatics and Language Teaching

Introduction

Having reviewed the theoretical background related to pragmatics as an independent discipline and the importance of learning and developing pragmatic competence, the second chapter focuses on the necessary conditions to develop this competence in instructional contexts. Section one presents the three theoretical perspectives of information processing in ILP, followed by the teaching approaches in pragmatics instruction. The next section explains the pedagogical frameworks proposed by different scholars to teach pragmatics, and specifically speech acts. Then, the pedagogical framework adopted in the present study; The 6 Rs Approach, is expounded. Subsequently, we discuss in detail the classroom-based research dealing with instructional pragmatics, and we end up the chapter with previous related studies.

Research on pragmatics in SLA has been largely influenced by cross-cultural pragmatics through which researchers compared native speakers NS' and non-native speakers NNS' performance of pragmatic features (Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper, 1989). The main focus of these studies was on speech act realization strategies, their universality, contextual factors and their influence, cross-cultural variation. "They are broadly the same issues as those which have been investigated in cross-cultural pragmatics (Kasper & Schmidt 1996, p. 150). Therefore, the challenge of ILP remains in how to integrate the insights obtained from cross-cultural, contrastive pragmatics into theories of learning. Kasper argues that to account for the acquisition or development of pragmatic abilities

"pragmatics needs to relate (product) description not only to social processes but also to the psychological processes of speech production/reception, as well as to language learning and acquisition" (Faerch & Kasper 1985, p. 214). The researchers state that "cognitive-pragmatic approach" in the teaching and learning of a second/foreign language "implies that procedural aspects of pragmatic knowledge need to be incorporated as well as its interaction with declarative knowledge in interlanguage studies".

Moreover, Ishihara and Cohen (2010) claim that understanding the development of pragmatic ability is "a multi-faceted phenomenon" that entails shining more spotlight on more aspects involved in language learning. They argue that it is challenging for language educators to have access to what is going on inside students' heads and they cannot follow them around to check out how they actually use the L2 in their social interactions. Consequently, ILP studies have moved in recent years from a rather descriptive to a more explanatory level of development and engaged with a range of theories as constitutive elements. SLA researchers have offered many theoretical frameworks that facilitate our understanding of how language learning functions. For instance, De Paiva and Foster-Cohen (2004) called for "the integration of Information-Processing concepts and Relevance Theoretical insights as part of a complex theoretical architecture capable of capturing the rich diversity of pragmatic development in second language acquisition" (p.12). Thus, this multi-model theoretical framework which offers an integrated perspective on both communication and cognition is the theoretical basis of the present study and will be explained in the following subsections.

2.1 Information-processing and Pragmatic Theoretical Approaches in ILP: Cognition, Relevance and Noticing

2.1.1 Cognitive Processing Theory

According to Trosborg (1995), the cognitive learning theory explains the different mechanisms the learner activates during the process of learning. First, it describes how knowledge is presented to the learners, then, how they practice using this knowledge, and finally, how this new knowledge is stored in their cognitive system and its use becomes automatic. Likewise, pragmatic knowledge follows the same process, Kasper (2001) asserts that these considerations have been adapted to pragmatic development and she believes that a full understanding of how pragmatic features of language are cognitively processed will help in designing appropriate pedagogical frameworks that foster pragmatics acquisition. Therefore, Kasper and Rose (2002) suggest the two proposals of Schmidt (1993) The Noticing Hypothesis, Bialystok's (1993) Two-Dimensional Model that have been adopted in interventional studies in the field of instructional pragmatics. On the other hand, De Paiva and Foster-Cohen (2004) suggest Relevance Theory that "makes a useful contribution to second language theoretical models, specifically those of Bialystok and Schmidt and their respective notions of 'analysis', 'control' and 'noticing'" (p.281). They argue that the inferential mechanisms of Relevance Theory can account for the contingencies of communicative interaction without which pragmatic negotiations do not make sense, and thus can supplement the weaknesses of such information-processing frameworks through the notions of 'manifestness' and the balance between 'effort' and 'effect'. Consequently, and as abovementioned this study adopted the three theoretical frameworks to capture the diversity and complexity of pragmatic development. They

contributed to the design of the pedagogical framework of the present investigation; The 6 Rs Approach adopted from Martinez-Flor (2006).

2.1.2 Bialystok's Two-Dimensional Model of Language Use and Proficiency

This cognitive theory proposed by Bialystok explains pragmatic competence development by adult learners from a cognitive processing perspective. As its name indicates, the model comprises two dimensions for language use and pragmatics; namely, *analysis of knowledge* and *control of processing*. According to Bialystok (1978, as cited in De Paiva, 2010), linguistic information is different and is stored in different ways: as *other knowledge*, as *explicit linguistic knowledge*, and as *implicit linguistic knowledge*. She defines *explicit linguistic knowledge* as "all the conscious facts the learner has about the language and the criterion for admission to this category is the ability to articulate those facts", and *implicit linguistic knowledge* as "the intuitive information upon which the language learner operates in order to produce responses (comprehension or production) in the target language. Information which is automatic and is used spontaneously in language tasks is represented in *implicit linguistic knowledge*" (Bialystok ,1978, p.72). *Explicit linguistic knowledge* is a kind of knowledge that can be manipulated, examined, and uttered. Conversely, *Implicit Linguistic Knowledge* includes unanalyzed information about the language and can be developed by unconscious acquisition and/or through automatizing *Explicit Linguistic Knowledge* by practice.

Bialystok suggests a model of language processing as a framework for both language acquisition and use, in which language proficiency is the correlation between the processing abilities of the learner and the task demands imposed by a specific language use situation Bialystok (1993). This model describes both learners' abilities and task demand

based on the two cognitive components of language processing: analysis of knowledge and control of processing, which develop through practice and experience.

The first dimension of her model is analysis of knowledge which is defined as "the process of making explicit, or analyzing, a learner's implicit knowledge of domain". The second dimension is Control of Processing, which is "the process of controlling attention to relevant and appropriate information, of choosing what is relevant for carrying out a specific task" (Bialystok ,1993, p.48). In other words, for learners to be effective language users, they should focus their attention only on relevant information, so that, they can use it under real time pressures.

The author divides mental representations into conceptual, formal and symbolic representations. Conceptual representations are organized around meanings, formal representations are coded in terms of the structure of the language and refer to metalinguistic knowledge, and finally the concept of symbolic representations expresses the way in which language refers, coding between form and a referent.

According to Bialystok (1982), pragmatic competence depends to a greater extent on symbolic representations and to a lesser extent on formal representations. However, she argues that the mapping is not between form and meaning, but rather between form and social context where meaning does not vary across intentions within a certain social context. Regarding, the development of pragmatic competence, she applies this model and points out that the two cognitive processing components must be integrated. "Knowledge for rules of use must be learned, represented, and transformed in the same way as the knowledge that controls other, more formal, aspects of the linguistic system" (Bialystok ,1993, p. 44). She concludes that for the acquisition of pragmatics, children face serious

barriers from analysis, while adults are constrained by control. However, the model does not explain how the processing components (analysis of knowledge and control) develop. In this context, Schmidt (1993) argues that it is not enough to claim that control develops with experience in its own course, rather, control has to be explained in terms of learning mechanisms. In the case of the learning of pragmatic abilities, De Paiva (2010) asserts that what is missing in Bialystok's model is an account of inferencing processes.

2.1.3 Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis

Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (1990) focuses on the role of consciousness in the acquisition of target language knowledge. He claims that learning requires awareness at the level of noticing, i.e., what learners notice in input is what becomes intake in learning. Besides, Schmidt (1993) distinguishes between noticing and understanding as follows:

> "I use noticing to mean registering the simple occurrence of some event, whereas understanding implies recognition of a general principle, rule, or pattern. […]. Noticing is crucially related to what linguistic material is stored in memory […], understanding relates to questions concerning how that material is organized into a linguistic system" (p. 26).

Regarding pragmatic knowledge, Schmidt (1990) claims that it is not always used automatically and unconsciously, but rather seems to be partly conscious. Even knowledge which relies on automatic processing might have been internalized through conscious understanding at the time of learning. He added that attention which is necessary for noticing is not related to input in general, but to linguistic forms, functional meanings and pertinent contextual features. In other words, to acquire pragmatic competence, learners should pay conscious attention to relevant forms, their pragmalinguistic functions and the

sociopragmatic constraints these forms involve (Martinez-Flor, 2004). In this case, learners have to be able to select material or to determine levels of relevance.

In his paper, Schmidt (1995) clarifies the relationship between the Noticing Hypothesis and the learning of L2 pragmatics:

> "In pragmatics, awareness that on a particular occasion someone says to their interlocutor something like, "I'm terribly sorry to bother you, but if you have time could you look at this problem?" is a matter of noticing. Relating the various forms used to their strategic deployment in the service of politeness and recognizing their co-occurrence with elements of context such as social distance, power, level of imposition, and so on, are all matters of understanding". Therefore, L2 pragmatic instruction should aim at both levels of awareness, noticing and understanding, and that by understanding he means explicit or declarative knowledge. (p.30).

Schmidt (1990) suggests *conscious awareness*, *noticing understanding* and *unconscious abstraction* in the context of three different kinds of learning: subliminal, incidental and implicit learning. In the context of "the role of consciousness in input processing", Schmidt (1990) asks three questions:

> "whether conscious awareness at the level of noticing is necessary for language learning (the subliminal learning issue); whether it is necessary to consciously pay attention in order to learn (the incidental learning issue); and whether learner hypotheses based on input are the result of conscious insight and understanding or an unconscious process of abstraction (the implicit learning issue)".Schmidt also asserts that attention is tied to the concept of noticing, and this latter is crucial and sufficient for acquisition to take place" (p.129).

Moreover, regarding the relationship between explicit and implicit knowledge and how they are internalized, Schmidt emphasizes the stronger role of explicit knowledge in learning, as a facilitator for internalization. However, Noticing, acting as a constraint for learning, is also constrained by: innate universals and expectancies that are considered as unconscious contextual constraints, frequency in input, perceptual salience, skill level and task demands also are limitations for learning. Concerning frequency, Schmidt claims that forms that did not appear in the input available to the learner were not used in the learner's speech either. However, unless these forms are noticed they become intake. Schmidt explains that learners start using only forms that are noticed and he establishes a strong connection between Noticing and production (Schmidt,1990)

In the same vein, Schmidt (1990) argues that the salience of a specific feature can be influenced by its frequency in the input. However, research suggests that "frequency alone does not necessarily lead to the feature being noticed, as the level of salience may be related to individual learners' cognitive representations" (Carroll 1999, p.361). Essentially, learners process input differently and the input that is noticed is typically relevant to their existing knowledge, but is not a complete repetition of what is already known. According to a relevance theoretical framework, relevant input is one that can be processed with minimal effort and yields benefits in the interaction or goals. Carroll argues that relevance is a key factor in determining the salience of input.

The acquisition of pragmatic abilities in a second language involves selecting relevant information from various factors such as grammar, text, discourse, and social context. Relevance Theory offers a useful theoretical framework for understanding this process by focusing on communication and cognition. According to Foster-Cohen (2004),

Relevance Theory redefines context as psychological and cognitive, emphasizes the notion of manifestness over mutual knowledge, and prioritizes the idea of effort-effect over rule violation. As a result, Relevance Theory presents a challenge to both cognition-based and socio-cultural approaches to understanding pragmatics in second language acquisition (De-Paiva ,2010).

2.1.4 Relevance Theory

The third theoretical framework of the multi-model framework adopted in the present study is *Relevance Theory* assuming that pragmatic development in EFL/ESL contexts is complex and requires a complex theoretical architecture capable of capturing the rich diversity of pragmatic development in second language acquisition (De-Paiva &Foster-Cohen, 2004).

Relevance theory is a framework in pragmatics that aims to explain how people communicate effectively by considering the ways in which speakers and listeners use context and background knowledge to infer meaning (Grice, 1989). Developed by Dan Sperber and Deirdre Wilson in the 1980s, relevance theory posits that communication is driven by a principle of relevance, which holds that speakers will only communicate information that is relevant to their listeners' needs and interests.

According to Sperber and Wilson (1980), communication involves two stages: the first stage is the comprehension of an utterance, in which listeners use their knowledge of the language, the context, and their own experience to infer the intended meaning of the speaker. The second stage is the inference of the speaker's intention, in which listeners use their knowledge of the speaker's goals and context to infer the speaker's intended meaning.

The theory also emphasizes the importance of the cognitive effort involved in communication, suggesting that speakers and listeners are constantly balancing the cost of processing information with the potential gain in relevance (Sperber& Wilson, 1980).

2.1.4.1 Relevance and Cognition

Relevance and cognition are closely related concepts. Cognition refers to the mental processes involved in acquiring, processing, storing, and using information. Relevance, on the other hand, refers to the degree to which something is related to, or important for, a particular purpose or context (Sperber &Wilson, 1995).

In order for cognition to be effective, information must be perceived as relevant to the task or situation at hand. Relevance can help individuals focus their attention, filter out irrelevant information, and make more effective decisions based on the information available. For example, when reading a news article, relevance is important for determining which information is important to remember and which can be discarded. Similarly, when studying for an exam, relevance is key in determining which concepts are important to learn and which can be safely ignored (Sperber &Wilson, 1995).

Relevance and cognition play a significant role in pragmatics, which is the branch of linguistics that studies the use of language in context. Pragmatics is concerned with how speakers and listeners use language to communicate effectively and efficiently. In pragmatics, relevance and cognition are essential for understanding the meaning of utterances in context. Speakers often convey meaning indirectly or implicitly, relying on the listener's cognitive abilities to infer the intended meaning. Sperber and Wilson (1980) suggest that listeners process information in a way that maximizes relevance, using

contextual information to infer the speaker's intended meaning. For example, consider the utterance, "It's cold in here." Without context, this statement may not be particularly informative. However, if the listener knows that the speaker is wearing a heavy coat, the statement becomes more relevant and informative, as it suggests that the speaker is uncomfortable and would like the temperature to be raised.

Overall, relevance and cognition are fundamental to understanding how language is used in context and how speakers and listeners communicate effectively. By taking into account the principles of relevance, pragmatics provides insights into how language is used to convey meaning beyond its literal interpretation.

2.1.4.2 Relevance and Communication

Sperber and Wilson's theory of relevance and communication (1980) posits that communication is a cooperative process that involves the exchange of information between speakers and listeners. According to their theory, speakers have the intention to communicate a certain message to their listeners, and listeners use contextual clues to infer the intended meaning of the message.

At the heart of their theory is the concept of relevance, which they define as the degree to which something is connected to a cognitive environment. They argue that people are more likely to pay attention to and remember information that is relevant to their current cognitive environment. In communication, relevance plays a critical role in determining what information is worth conveying and what information is worth receiving. They suggest that speakers and listeners engage in a mutual effort to maximize relevance in their communication and that successful communication depends on the ability of speakers

to convey their intended meaning clearly and the ability of listeners to infer that meaning accurately.

Moreover, Sperber and Wilson (1980) introduced the concept of Ostensive-inferential communication in which speakers use ostensive cues, such as eye contact, gestures, and tone of voice, to signal their intention to communicate a particular meaning to their listeners. Listeners then use inferential processes to interpret the intended meaning, using their own background knowledge and the context in which the communication takes place. The use of ostensive cues is seen as a key component of successful communication, as it allows speakers to convey their intention to communicate a particular meaning, and helps listeners to focus their attention on the relevant information. In addition, the use of ostensive cues can help to establish a common ground between speakers and listeners, by providing a shared context for understanding the intended meaning.

2.1.4.3 Relevance and Comprehension

The relevance theory of comprehension is a cognitive approach to communication proposed by Dan Sperber and Deirdre Wilson. The theory suggests that successful communication occurs when the speaker provides information that is relevant to the listener's cognitive goals. The relevance theory of comprehension emphasizes the importance of cognitive effort in processing information and the balance between the relevance of the communication and the cognitive effort required to process it.

The theory proposes that comprehension involves a process of cognitive inference, in which listeners use contextual cues to infer the intended meaning of a speaker's communication. Listeners construct a set of possible interpretations of the

speaker's communication, assess the relevance of each interpretation to their cognitive goals and the context of the communication, and search for contextual assumptions that might help to disambiguate the remaining interpretations. Finally, they select the interpretation that is most relevant to their cognitive goals and the context of the communication.

The relevance theory of comprehension suggests that listeners are more likely to process information that they perceive to be highly relevant and informative, and are less likely to process information that requires a high level of cognitive effort. This means that speakers must aim to provide information that is both relevant and informative, while also minimizing the cognitive effort required for listeners to process the information.

Overall, the relevance theory of comprehension provides a framework for understanding the way in which people communicate and the factors that influence successful communication. It emphasizes the importance of relevance, cognitive processing, and cognitive effort, and provides insights into the way in which people convey and interpret meaning in a variety of communication settings.

To sum up, examining the power of relevance theory requires a careful selection of other cognitive approaches in a second language. De-Paiva and Foster-Cohen (2004) suggested Schmidt's (1990) *Noticing Hypothesis* and Bialystok's (1993) *Two-Dimensional Model*; the most prominent cognitive theories of second language acquisition and pragmatics.

2.1.5 The Relationship between Cognition, Noticing and Relevance

This section explains the contributions of relevance theory to second language theoretical models, particularly those of Bialystok and Schmidt. While relevance theory accentuates the importance of internal context, Bialystok's approach emphasizes the role of explicit cultural knowledge in interpreting utterances in a culturally-bound way. Moreover, it explains how relevance theory relates to Schmidt's noticing hypothesis and how inferencing is vital for developing learners' pragmatic abilities.

In their article, De-Paiva and Foster-Cohen (2003) explored the relationship between information-processing theories and relevance theory in the acquisition of a second language in general SLA and pragmatics in particular ILP. According to the authors, relevance theory is deemed a valuable contribution to second-language theoretical models, particularly those proposed by Bialystok and Schmidt regarding *analysis*, *control*, and *noticing*. They argue that relevance theory is based on inferential mechanisms which "can account for the contingencies of communicative interaction without which pragmatic negotiations do not make sense, and thus can complement such information-processing accounts through the notions of *'manifestness'* and the balance between *'effort'* and '*effect*'" (De-Paiva & Foster-Cohen ,2003, p.1)

While understanding the concept of context is pivotal in all approaches to pragmatics, Bialystok's approach and relevance theory have distinct perspectives on this concept. In this regard, Bialystok's approach considers context as broad and separate from the learner, while relevance theory identifies it as within the learner. Moreover, relevance theory emphasizes the individual's internal context and takes an agent-based approach,

unlike sociocultural approaches that focus on social and cultural limitations (De-Paiva & Foster Cohen, 2003).

In contrast to Bialystok's approach to pragmatics, relevance theory overlooks the significance of explicit cultural knowledge in interpreting utterances in a culturally-bound way. It adopts a cognitive perspective and integrates external factors of context such as location and situation but through an internal context. This internal context is perceived through the eyes and mind of the speaker and listener. In essence, relevance theory places greater importance on the individual's internal context in contrast to the cultural and social factors that serve as limitations towards an agent-based approach (De Paiva & Cohen, 2003).

In this regard, De-Paiva and Foster-Cohen (2003) argue that relevance theory did not consider the role of explicit cultural knowledge in making sense of implicit communication in ILP. Thus, they suggest incorporating Bialystok's ideas to explain how second language learners develop their pragmatic understanding in displaced contexts. Bialystok's approach suggests that learners construct their pragmatic knowledge by establishing symbolic representations that connect form to the external context based on their existing level of formal representations. The authors added that learners must examine their existing knowledge and create new categories to acquire cultural norms and rules for using pragmatic language. Bialystok's concept of "analysis" can help in explaining how relevance theory assumptions are integrated into the speaker's and listener's minds. However, neither theory provides a complete explanation of how the analysis of pragmatic input occurs precisely, nor how the control mechanisms for new representations evolve.

According to Relevance Theory, the factors that determine how assumptions are used in interpretation include their relevance to the current context, their cognitive availability, and the effort required to process them. Assumptions that are more relevant to the current are more likely to be used, while less relevant and more effortful assumptions may be less likely to be used. The strength of contextual clues and the listener's familiarity with the speaker's intentions and style can also affect how assumptions are used in interpretation.

Schmidt's noticing hypothesis (1990) is related to how assumptions are used in Relevance Theory. Noticing is related to directing attention to a particular stimulus. This attention is specifically directed toward linguistic forms, functional meanings, and relevant contextual features. Schmidt suggests that connectionist models can offer a better explanation for the implicit or unconscious aspects of pragmatic knowledge. Associative networks, rather than propositional rules, can represent principles of pragmatics and discourse more accurately. Learners do not need to consciously count the frequency of contextual and pragmatic features, but they must notice specific relevant features in order to trigger encoding. Connectionist models can explain how learners acquire implicit pragmatic knowledge by recognizing patterns and associations in the input, without the need for conscious rule memorization.

Additionally, Schmidt's noticing hypothesis (1990) claims that learners need to pay attention to certain linguistic and contextual features to acquire implicit pragmatic knowledge, which can be explained by connectionist models. However, the criteria for determining the importance of these features is not clear. The concept of 'manifestness' in relevance theory may be a useful addition to understanding how learners select pertinent

information in their acquisition of pragmatic proficiency, as it is more adaptable and flexible than Bialystok's 'analysis'. Similarly, the concept of 'control' may not fully capture the fluid nature of pragmatic interactions, as it focuses on automatic processes (De-Paiva & Foster-Cohen, 2003). The concept of 'manifestness' is more flexible than 'analysis' in Bialystok's model because it depends on what the learner can understand. It is crucial to better understand how the 'control' mechanism works and connect it to learning theories. Learning pragmatics happens through inference, which can lead to sudden progress instead of a gradual accumulation of assumptions and control.

In light of relevance theory, inferencing is a vital process for developing learners' pragmatic abilities, leading to sudden realizations and significant progress. Relevance Theory posits that assumptions are important in inferencing and are easily accessed based on previous experiences. When learning a new language, a learner's prior assumptions from their first language context enter their cognitive context, which can lead to only partial understanding. People often strive to communicate effectively when learning a new language, which motivates them to put more effort into inferencing to achieve clarity.

On the other hand, non-native speakers may prioritize certain pragmatic conventions, such as explicitness, which can lead to a loss of impact and more effort. This is referred to as "waffling" and is explained by Foster-Cohen's work. Non-native speakers may also challenge pragmatic conventions intentionally to maximize impact while minimizing effort. Sperber and Wilson's differentiation between strong and weak communication is also significant in this context.

To sum up, although information-processing concepts are useful for second language learning, they have limitations in understanding communicative interaction.

Relevance theory can serve as a complementary theory that considers internal context and inferencing processes. Thus, combining these approaches can offer a better understanding of how second language learners acquire pragmatic abilities in diverse contexts. Therefore, a complex theoretical framework that integrates these insights can lead to promising directions for future research in second language acquisition and L2 pragmatics. De-Paiva and Foster-Cohen (2003).

It is worth pointing out, that noticing, control, analysis, manifestness, and the balance between effect and effort are significant processing components in cognition and communication and De-Paiva and Foster-Cohen (2003) suggest that they may be combined in a multi-model framework to help understanding the rich diversity of pragmatic development in second language acquisition. In this vein, the current study adopts this multi-model approach that combines noticing, cognition, and communication reflected in the pedagogical framework the 6 Rs Approach which will be examined in section 2.4.

2.2 Pragmatics and Language Instruction

This section focuses on research related to teachability, teaching approaches and paradigms, the effectiveness of teaching strategies, decisions regarding teaching design, and instructional components which are crucial considerations for language teachers when planning and implementing pragmatic instruction.

2.2.1 The Effectiveness of Pragmatics Instruction

Over the last two decades, studies in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) (Doughty, 1991; Larsen-Freeman, 1991, and Ortega, 2000) have demonstrated that receiving instruction has a positive impact on language acquisition, in contrast to simply

being exposed to the target language, and they supported this claim with empirical evidence. For instance, Long (1988) provided proof of the effectiveness of instruction in the four domains of SLA, specifically those of (1) SLA processes, (2) SLA route, (3) SLA rate, and (4) Level of ultimate SL attainment.

Likewise, ILP research conducted over the last two decades has consistently shown that teaching pragmatics is both possible and beneficial, leading teachers to integrate it into their curricula and researchers to examine the multi-faceted area of pragmatic teaching methodology. These findings are supported by various scholars such as Bardovi-Harlig (2001), Ishihara and Cohen (2010), and Kasper (1997). In other words, the vast majority of the interventional studies in instructed language learning have overwhelmingly and steadily demonstrated that teaching pragmatics is highly effective and leads to a significant improvement of learners' pragmatic ability, as compared to those who learn without instruction. According to Jeon and Kaya (2006), this difference is notable. "Therefore, the subsequent review of the relevant literature will summarize briefly studies that aimed at examining the teachability of pragmatic features, then studies comparing instructed learners to learners who received no formal instruction in their L2 (i.e., exposure-only conditions), and finally by studies comparing learners who received instruction on the pragmatic features in question to learners receiving other kinds of L2 instruction.

The first type of research, often known as "teachability studies" (Kasper & Rose, 2002,), uses a one-group design to compare the results of instructed learners before and after the instruction. Olshtain and Cohen (1990) investigated whether apology strategies could be taught to advanced EFL learners in Israel and discovered that there was a clear

improvement in the quality of the learners' speech act behavior in terms of the types of intensification and downgrading, the choice of strategy, and the awareness of situational factors. They concluded that teaching speech act behavior is a worthwhile pursuit.

Wildner-Bassett's (1994) study proved that even beginners (specifically, American learners of German as a Second Language) can be successfully taught pragmatic routines. Alcón-Soler (2012, p. 531) investigated how Spanish-Catalan bilinguals were able to improve their proficiency in refusals in EFL through instruction, which provided "evidence of the effect of pragmatic intervention on learners' gains on pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge"

Liddicoat and Crozet (2001) described how Australian FFL learners improved their small talk skills by being taught how to appropriately use and respond to the question "T'as passé un bon weekend?" (Did you have a good weekend?) in social-pragmatic contexts. Safont-Jordà (2003) and Salazar-Campillo (2003) analyzed instructed learners' acquisition of requesting strategies and found that their intermediate Spanish EFL learners had improved their use of request modifiers (Safont-Jordà) and mitigation strategies and indirect requests (Salazar-Campillo) following the instruction period. Morrow's (1995) study on teaching complaints and refusals to ESL learners demonstrated that the pedagogical intervention was successful, not only in the immediate post-test but also in the delayed post-test six months later (as cited in Glaser, 2014)

Cohen and Ishihara (2005) conducted a distinctive study on teachability, using a web-based method to instruct American learners of JFL in speech act norms. They created online teaching resources that covered five different speech acts (apologies, compliments, requests, refusals, and thanks) and administered them to a group of twenty-two students.

The outcome of their research indicated that the teaching intervention was efficient, particularly in the area of requests.

The second group of research demonstrates that instructing pragmatics yields superior results in developing pragmatic competence compared to simply being exposed to the language. Félix-Brasdefer (2006) supports this view, stating that empirical evidence points in this direction. Rehbein (1987) conducted one of the earliest studies on the development of interlanguage pragmatics (ILP), analyzing the discourse functions of routine formulae used by Turkish learners of German who had been immersed in the language for eight years but had not received any formal instruction in the L2. He discovered that the learners minimized the complexity of the language structure while enhancing the functions of the discourse. However, Rehbein's analysis did not include an instructed group, and this suggests that exposure alone may not be sufficient for developing pragmatic competence. Presently, it is widely accepted that pragmatic functions and the pertinent contextual factors are usually not noticeable to learners, and thus, even a long time of exposure may not result in their acquisition. (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p. 237)

Félix-Brasdefer (2005) conducted a study on refusal performance with two groups; one received instruction and received only exposure to the language. The results showed that the instructed group had improved significantly on the posttest, whereas the exposure-only group did not show any improvement. Likewise, Cohen and Shively (2007) found that students who had undergone pragmatic training prior to their study abroad program in a Spanish or French-speaking country produced requests and apologies that were more appropriate upon their return than the control group. The control group had also studied abroad but did not receive any pragmatic instruction.

The third category of research involves quasi-experimental designs that compare learners who have received instruction in specific pragmatic features to comparable learners who have received L2 instruction but not in these specific pragmatic phenomena. These groups are typically referred to as "instructed" and "uninstructed" groups, respectively, with a focus on whether or not the targeted pragmatics instruction is present. These groups are also commonly labeled as "treatment" and "control" groups. In recent years, there has been a significant increase in this type of research, which has led to numerous insightful studies on a range of pragmatic features.

Kubota (1995) investigated the acquisition of conversational implicature among Japanese EFL learners and found that the two instructed groups performed noticeably better in the posttests compared to the uninstructed control group. Additionally, Wishnoff (2000) analyzed the use of hedging devices in academic writing by ESL learners and found that the instructed learners showed a five-fold increase in the use of hedging devices compared to the uninstructed learners, resulting in a statistically significant difference between the two groups.

Regarding studies on speech acts, such as refusals, compliments, suggestions, requests, and apologies, they have compared instructed and uninstructed groups of learners in terms of their performance in these speech acts. Félix-Brasdefer (2008) found that an instructed group of intermediate Spanish as a Foreign Language learners (SFL) exhibited significant improvements in their refusal interactions, while the control group did not. Similarly, Silva (2003) found that the instructed group's refusal behavior improved compared to the uninstructed group.

Farrokhi and Atashian (2012) reported that their instructed Iranian EFL learners also displayed improvements in their refusal behavior.Tajeddin and Ghamari (2011) investigated English learners' complimenting behavior and found that the instructed group outperformed the uninstructed learners in initiating and responding to compliments. These studies suggest that teaching responsive moves can be successful when they are the focus of the instructional treatment, contrary to House's (1996) study on conversational routines.

However, Glaser (2014) mentioned some studies that did not show any improvement and provided the limitations that may be taken into consideration in future research. For instance, studies of (Fukuya & Clark, 2001; King & Silver, 1993) did not show any significant differences between the groups that received pragmatic instruction and the control groups. In the study by King and Silver (1993), six intermediate ESL learners with various L1 backgrounds were analyzed for their refusal behavior, but the authors found no differences between the treatment and control groups. This is not surprising as each group had only three students, and the instruction lasted for only a single 70-minute period, which provided no authentic input and hardly any practice opportunities.

In summary, the existing research suggests that teaching pragmatics is effective in enhancing pragmatic competence. Consequently, researchers are now investigating how to teach pragmatic skills more effectively by exploring different teaching designs. In other words, the shift in focus now is to the content and the quality of the interventional treatment (Glaser, 2014). Before delving deeper in the pedagogical frameworks another central focus in acquisitional interlanguage pragmatics is the effectiveness of explicit versus implicit teaching methods, as well as inductive versus deductive instruction. These issues will be discussed in the next sections.

2.2.2 Explicit versus Implicit Instruction

Having confirmed the feasibility and effectiveness of pragmatic instruction in foreign/second language teaching through empirical evidence, researchers' focus shifted more to analyzing the impact of pedagogical conditions on acquisitional interlanguage pragmatics (ILP). One of the most significant concerns in this area is the comparison of explicit and implicit instructional designs and their respective effects on the development of ILP. To comprehend these two types of instruction, the concepts of explicit and implicit learning are explained below.

According to Schmidt (1993), explicit learning pertains to a conscious and deliberate process where learners are cognizant of the new information they are acquiring. In this line, the majority of scholars agree on the meaning of explicit instruction as any form of teaching that involves "the provision of metapragmatic information designed to make the target features more salient" (Rose, 2005, p. 393). On the other hand, implicit instruction is defined as instructional forms that do not provide learners with metapragmatic information. In Ellis's terms (1994, p.1): "the acquisition of knowledge about the underlying structure of a complex stimulus environment by a process which occurs naturally, simply and without conscious operations" . Therefore, the dichotomy distinguishes between the explicit presentation of the rules underlying the pragmatic feature being taught and the absence of such rule provision, as described by Norris and Ortega (2000):

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

Glaser (2014) asserts that the majority of scholarly works, comprising primary studies and meta-analyses, have established that explicit instruction in pragmatics is typically more effective than implicit instruction. This finding is supported by numerous reviews and meta-analyses, including those carried out by Cohen (2005), Kasper (2001), and Rose (2005). Trosborg (2003) in her turn contends that the reason behind the success of explicit pragmatic instruction is that adult learners derive great benefit from and appreciate having explicit knowledge of pragmatic rules, as well as explicit information about differences in cultural patterns between their first language and the target language (p.269).

Takahashi (2010) reviews almost 50 studies on instructional effectiveness in interlanguage pragmatics, and confirms that there is empirical evidence about the supremacy of explicit instruction over implicit instruction, in Glaser's (2014) terms, for the acquisition of sociopragmatic abilities, which refers to the awareness, noticing, and offline knowledge of socio-cultural aspects of the language. Moreover, many studies suggest that explicit designs are more effective than implicit ones when it comes to pragmalinguistic abilities. For instance, The studies conducted by Alcón-Soler (2005), Takahashi, (2001), House (1996), Martínez-Flor (2004), Fukuya and Martínez-Flor (2008), Nguyen, M., Pham and Pham (2012), Farrokhi and Atashian (2012) (as cited in Glaser, 2014) have found that

explicit instruction is more effective than implicit instruction for various pragmatic phenomena such as requests, pragmatic routines, suggestions, thanking formulas, constructive criticism, refusals, compliments and compliment responses, and active listening behaviors. These studies compared groups that received explicit instruction with those that received implicit instruction, sometimes with a control group, and evaluated the changes through pretest-posttest designs.

These positive effects of explicit teaching methods align with Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (1993, 1995, 2001), which claims that noticing the input is essential for learning. Explicit teaching draws students' attention to the rules and mechanisms underlying language material, meeting the central requirement of the hypothesis. Therefore, implicit and incidental may lead to development, but explicit approaches are so helpful because they involve focused and deliberate attention to the important features of the input.

Although the majority of studies on acquisitional interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) suggest that explicit teaching is more effective, there is some empirical evidence that suggests equal effectiveness of both explicit and implicit approaches for certain pragmatic features and teaching objectives. Martínez-Flor (2004, 2006) found that in a study on suggestions with Spanish EFL students, both the implicit and explicit interventions were similarly successful in improving the students' production and awareness, as well as their confidence in assessing pragmatic appropriateness. Tateyama's (2001, as cited in Glaser, 2014) research showed that the group taught using explicit methods had better results in multiple-choice tests, but the group taught using implicit methods performed better in role plays.

In general, it seems that research on the impact of explicit and implicit instruction on ILP acquisition is still in its early stages and further investigation is necessary, particularly with regard to long-term effects of teaching methods. While the current results are not always conclusive in terms of the superiority of one approach over the other, it is noteworthy that no evidence has been found to support the effectiveness of implicit instruction over explicit instruction. Although it is not certain that an explicit approach will always be more successful than an implicit one, it is clear that it will not be less successful. Therefore, research within the explicit paradigm may prove to be a promising area for exploring the effectiveness of different teaching approaches in depth, which is the main focus of the present study.

Focusing more specifically on instructional designs and their effect on ILP learning, the following section examines another teaching dimension, namely inductive vs. deductive teaching designs.

2.2.3 Inductive vs Deductive Instruction

Although the deductive/ inductive dichotomy is not widely discussed in the field of ILP as the explicit-implicit debate, the effectiveness of inductive versus deductive teaching methods is an encouraging area of research in the study of pragmatics acquisition (Glaser,2014). This topic could even be viewed as an extension or refinement of the explicit-implicit debate, as it delves deeper into the analysis of instructional designs by exploring the sequencing of instruction and the importance of consciousness-raising activities in the classroom.

According to Ishihara and Cohen (2010), deductive instruction involves providing learners with explicit information about pragmatics from external sources, such as teachers and materials, before they study examples. On the other hand, inductive teaching requires learners to analyze pragmatic data to uncover the L2 pragmatic norms that govern different language uses. Glaser (2014) in her turn, claims that there is a dearth and inconsistency in interventional ILP studies that focus on deductive / inductive perspective, therefore, they require elaborate definitions.

Decoo (1996, as cited in Glaser, 2014) defines deduction as a process that moves from general to specific, from consciously formulated rules to application in language use. In the context of pragmatics instruction, this means that the metapragmatic information or rule is given first, followed by examples and practice. Induction, on the other hand, is defined as the process that moves from specific language examples to patterns, rules, and generalizations. In the same line, DeKeyser (1995) summarizes this dichotomy as follows:

> "Inductive learning means that examples are encountered before rules are inferred; deductive learning means that rules are presented before examples are encountered. Whereas induction can be either implicit or explicit (and explicit induction can happen with or without help from a teacher or textbook), deductive learning is necessarily explicit". (p. 380)

Glaser (2014) adds that any deductive approach is also an explicit approach, as it includes providing explicit rules at the beginning of instruction. However, categorizing inductive approaches is more complex. It would be overly simplistic to equate inductive approaches with implicit methods and DeKeyser (2003) emphasizes the need to differentiate between implicit and inductive learning in SLA, describing them as "two

separate concepts" (p.314). He also offers evidence that inductive learning can be both explicit and implicit. The following table explain the difference between the two paradigms

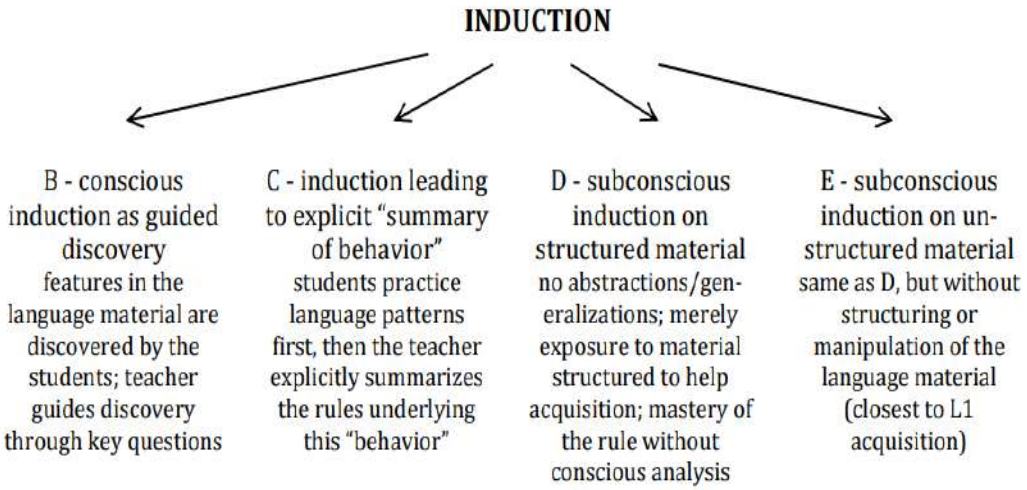
Table 10

The Explicit/Implicit and Inductive/Deductive Matrix (Glaser, 2014, p.60)

	explicit	implicit
deductive	explicit-deductive	n/a
inductive	explicit-inductive	implicit-inductive

It is important to note that the implicit/explicit dichotomy is different from deductive / inductive dichotomy as they pertain to distinct features of the instructional design: while the former pertains to whether or not rules are explicitly given to learners, the latter is about the order in which instructional elements are presented, specifically whether the rule or language material is introduced first or at a later stage. (Glaser, 2014). Moreover, Decoo's examination of inductive and deductive language teaching methods highlights the intricacy of inductive teaching methods. While the explicit-deductive modality A is relatively straightforward, he identified four inductive modalities, each of which varies in terms of explicitness and/or the role of consciousness. These modalities, labeled B through E, are summarized in Figure 4

Figure 4 *Decoo's (1996) Modalities of Induction (Source: Glaser, 2014, p.60)*



It is obvious that not all inductive teaching approaches are necessarily implicit in nature. While modalities D and E are clearly implicit due to their lack of abstraction and generalization, modality C can be considered a form of explicit instruction. In this modality, the teacher provides a summary of the lesson as a rule to the students, making it explicit.

In this context, induction means that the rule or metapragmatic information is given to students after they have already been exposed to the language material. Therefore, it is important to note that the terms implicit and inductive do not always refer to the same teaching methods or principles. At the same time, while deductive instruction is inherently explicit, the terms "deductive" and "explicit" pertain to different characteristics of the teaching approach, and consequently, of its treatment in instructional research (Glaser, 2014).

Decoo's article categorizes previous studies based on the five modalities. He suggests that modalities B and C are not necessarily separate categories, but rather they focus on different aspects of teaching. Although they compete as classification criteria, B highlights the guided discovery process that assists students in discovering rules, while C emphasizes the instructor's provision of a summary of previous classroom activities. Thus, a teaching situation where the learners discover and articulate the rule, and then later the teacher provides a summary of it, can be categorized under both B and C since it satisfies the requirements of both guided discovery (B) and the teacher's provision of the rule as a summary (C). From this deductive-inductive controversy, Glaser (2014) infers two fundamental hypotheses:

> (a)The inductive-deductive is a second-order principle in comparison to the explicit-implicit dichotomy. In other words, the presence or absence of explicit rule provision generally has a stronger effect on teaching outcomes than whether the linguistic material is presented according to inductive or deductive principles. (b) Since deductive approaches are by definition explicit, in order to isolate and successfully compare the effects of inductive vs. deductive instruction, these approaches need to be contrasted within an explicit framework so as not to confound the two dichotomies. (pp. 67-69)

Takimoto (2008) provides empirical evidence that supports inductive instruction. Takimoto investigated the impact of three different approaches, namely, (a) deductive instruction, (b) inductive instruction using problem-solving tasks, and (c) inductive instruction using structured input tasks, on the acquisition of requesting behavior in Japanese EFL students. The author of the study explicitly referred to Decoo's (1996) article and classified the two inductive treatments under modality B, which involves guided discovery. Additionally, the researcher considers both treatments as explicit and applies extended modality B to them. However, upon closer examination of the teaching

conditions, it becomes clear that only the inductive instruction with problem-solving tasks meets the requirements of guided discovery that leads to rules. Takimoto (2008) concludes that the explicit knowledge gained by the deductive treatment participants was not strongly established and was not accessible during the follow-up test. On the other hand, the explicit knowledge gained by the inductive treatment participants was more directly acquired and more accessed by the learners during the tests. It can also be assumed that the "participants who used the inductive approach were better able to process information about the target features and store it in working memory" (Takimoto, 2008, pp. 381-382).

Kubota (1995) conducted a study that was designed more rigorously than the two previous ones in terms of comparing inductive and deductive instruction. The study investigated the teachability of conversational implicature by contrasting an explicit-inductive approach with an explicit-deductive approach, although that was not the main focus. The treatment for group A involved receiving rule explanations at the beginning of the instruction, which is the explicit-deductive approach, while group B received consciousness-raising tasks followed by a group discussion and the teacher providing the correct answers, which is the explicit-inductive approach. In general, both the explicit-inductive and explicit-deductive approaches used in the study by Kubota (1995) were equally effective, particularly when compared to the control group with slight differences that were highly dependent on the testing methodology (Glaser, 2014).

Based on the literature review of inductive versus deductive studies in SLA and ILP discussed in this section, Glaser (2014) confirms that a research design is more promising when it i) examines the inductive/deductive contrast within an explicit paradigm, ii) incorporates guided discovery in the inductive design, and iii) ensures that the rule

provision in the inductive design is either performed or approved by the teacher, which means that learners receive some form of teacher feedback at the end of the rule search units. By meeting these criteria, the research design can eliminate the confounding of the two teaching dichotomies and/or the impact of teacher rule-provision, which could otherwise distort the validity of the results. In other words, if two teaching conditions are compared, and the only difference between them is whether they are deductive or inductive, while all other aspects are kept the same, the researcher should be able to identify the effects of this dichotomy in a relatively clear manner. However, the present study focuses only on the explicit inductive teaching design reflected through the 6Rs approach as a pedagogical framework.

2.2.4 Instructional Components: Input, Output, and Feedback

After providing a detailed description of the theoretical frameworks and the teaching approaches and paradigms in the preceding sections, as language teachers and educators we should consider and prepare the pedagogical components, essential for effective language teaching.

Previous studies have repeatedly demonstrated that successful F/SL teaching is determined by the three requirements, namely input, output, and feedback (Alcón-Soler, 2002). These conditions have also been explored in relation to pragmatic instruction and it has been confirmed that the acquisition of pragmatic aspects necessitates the same three instructional components as any other type of knowledge in the target language, specifically those of "appropriate input, opportunities for output, and the provision of feedback" (Alcón-Soler & Martínez-Flor, 2005, p.381). Kasper (2001, p.57) claims that developing learners' pragmatic competence in the target language should require the

following: “Sustained focused input, both pragmatic and metapragmatic, collaborative practice activities, and metapragmatic reflection appear to provide learners with input and practice they need for developing most aspects for their pragmatic abilities”.

As it can be noticed, Kasper (2001) emphasizes the significant role of pertinent input, ample opportunities of practice and metapragmatic reflections and feedback in acquisitional interlanguage pragmatics. Thus, the three upcoming sections will be devoted to these three theoretical conditions necessary for pragmatic development in instructed settings.

2.2.4.1 Input

In the context of Foreign/Second language learning, input refers to the language information that learners are exposed to (Zhang, 2009), i.e., the language learners hear or read. This means that it is the “raw data” that they use as evidence to form hypotheses about the second language system (Gass & McKay, 2006). Apart from receiving the language or the input, Krashen (1985) highlights that input should be understood by learners in order for the acquisition to occur. Therefore, he proposes his Input Hypothesis which argues that successful SLA depends on comprehensible input that is slightly more advanced than the learner's current level of L2 proficiency, also known as the i+1 condition. Krashen explains that i stands for the current linguistic level of the student, 1 stands for the next level the learner is to achieve.

Krashen's Input Hypothesis, which emphasized the importance of the meaning of the input over grammatical forms, challenged existing teaching methods that focused on practicing new forms before communication. Krashen believed that meaning was more

important than form. Although some aspects of Krashen's hypothesis have been disputed, particularly his idea that comprehensible input alone is enough for SLA to occur (Long, 1996; Swain,1985), several sources (Long,1996; Swain,1985) assert that input is significant for SLA development, as well as pragmatic development. This idea is widely accepted in the field today (Gass, 2003). Similarly, Bardovi-Harlig (2001) emphasizes the importance of input in acquisitional interlanguage pragmatics.

Regarding pragmatics, it has been established as crucial for learners to receive genuine input (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001), input that was not produced "for the purpose of teaching, but for a real-life communicative purpose" (Lee, 1995, p. 324). Only authentic input can serve as a stimulus for learners to acquire the target language in its complete communicative ability and as a foundation for further discovery and learning (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996).

When it comes to exposure to authentic language input, there is a distinct benefit to learning the target language in a second language (SL) compared to a foreign language (FL) setting. Learning in a SL environment exposes learners to more than just the target language (Glaser, 2014).

In terms of availability of authentic input, second language (SL) environments offer distinct advantages compared to foreign language (FL) settings. In SL contexts, “learners are exposed to language input and cross-cultural communication opportunities outside of the classroom, allowing for language acquisition and pragmatic development” (Usó-Juan, 2007, p.234). However, in FL settings, learners are usually limited to target language input within the classroom, and their chances of developing pragmatic competence largely depend on the input provided in class (Martínez-Flor & Usó-Juan, 2010). This is further

compounded by the fact that classrooms are generally "impoverished learning environments" (Kasper, 1997) as they cannot offer the same range of contexts, communicative functions, and social roles as real-life situations (Alcón-Soler, 2008, p.24; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996, p. 160).

Empirical evidence from various studies, such as Takahashi and Beebe (1987) and Kitao (1990) for Japanese learners of English, Shimizu (2009) for American learners of Japanese, and Schauer (2006) for German learners of English, confirms that SL environments offer greater advantages over FL environments. This suggests that in FL settings, the selection and delivery of appropriate input in the classroom is even more critical since it is the sole source of input for the learners (Glaser, 2014).

Most of the studies reviewed so far, consider teacher talk as the first source of input and it has been addressed as a type of "special register that is modified and adapted to learners' needs" (Martinez-Flor, 2004, p.89), i.e., teachers tend to simplify the language to facilitate comprehension. Trosborg (1995) points out, this kind of modified language involves using a simplified style, simplified sentence structure, shorter phrases, and avoidance of ungrammatical speech. Regarding pragmatics, teachers themselves are considered as models to provide learners with the rules of politeness, the appropriate use of formulaic expressions, or the importance of selecting the linguistic forms depending on sociopragmatic factors. Multiple studies have demonstrated that the learners rely on their teacher to provide them with a suitable example of the target language, even though input offered by teachers has been found to be sub-optimal for the acquisition of pragmatics (Ohta, 1994; Bardovi-Harlig, 1996, among others). For instance, in their research on academic advising sessions, Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1996) point out that the requests

performed by teachers to the students were status-bound and could not be considered as authentic models for students. Ohta (1994) noticed that teachers used a narrower range and low frequency of affective particles than would have been in a natural conversation.

Taking into account these findings, and in line with (Bardovi-Harlig 1991, 1992, 1996; Kasper, 1997), We believe that arranging training programs and raising teachers' awareness of the significance of their communication and the selection of suitable resources that promote the development of pragmatics would be advantageous. In reality, as suggested by Bardovi-Harlig (1996), "it is important that learners observe native speakers in action" (p. 34). Given this, apart from teacher input, we think that bringing native speakers to the EFL classroom through authentic materials would affect positively learners' exposure to natural language, expand and enrich their pragmatic input. Therefore, materials used in the classroom are the second source of input and their appropriate choice is crucial.

The employment of adequate teaching materials is crucial to develop learners' pragmatic competence, especially in a foreign language context. Textbooks are among the instructional materials that provide input in the FL/SL classroom and the relationship between the pragmatic information presented in EFL/ESL textbooks and authentic communication has been the focus of many studies up until now. However, it has been claimed that most of them have been written based on NS's intuitions and not on empirical-based data of the pragmatic norms (Martinez-Flor, 2004). Moreover, the vast majority (Vellenga, 2004; Gilmore, 2004; among others) conclude that what is portrayed in the materials is either largely incongruent with naturally occurring conversation or depicts the social reality of communicative encounters as grossly oversimplified (Glaser, 2014).

For instance, Vellenga (2004) investigated how much and what kind of pragmatic information was provided in eight English Language Teaching (ELT) textbooks. The focus was on how speech acts were covered and whether the textbooks provided any metapragmatic information on topics like register, illocutionary force, politeness, and appropriateness. According to Vellenga's research, the textbooks displayed a lack of metapragmatic information.

Likewise, Gilmore (2004) analysed textbooks in terms of natural discourse characteristics such as turn-taking, backchanneling, overlaps, and hesitation devices. He observed that these characteristics were mostly absent from the materials, which meant that students were not getting exposure to authentic language input. However, he did note that newer publications have begun to incorporate some of these genuine discourse characteristics.

In the same vein, Boxer and Pickering (1995) conducted research to examine how the speech act of complaint is presented in ELT textbooks. The study focused on four American and three British ELT textbooks and found that they underrepresented indirect complaints, despite the fact that these types of complaints are commonly used in natural speech.

To conclude, the majority of textbook analyses reviewed suggest that they are not a reliable source of pragmatic input for language learners in the classroom. Bardovi-Harlig (2001) drew this conclusion, indicating that this is especially significant in foreign language contexts where textbooks often serve as the primary source of input. Teachers may supplement the aforementioned textbook deficiencies with their own materials.

However, this can be a difficult and time-consuming task due to the complex unpredictable nature of spoken language and the private nature of most social interactions.

Several researchers, such as Alcón-Soler and Guzmán-Pitarch (2010) and Grant and Starks (2001), have recognized the challenge of providing authentic audio-visual input for language learning. To address this issue, some scholars have suggested using films, TV series, shows, and interviews as a way to compensate for the lack of authentic interactional materials. Kondo (2010), Martínez-Flor (2007), Martínez-Flor and Usó-Juan (2010), Rose (1997), and Washburn (2001) have all proposed this solution. Empirical studies have provided evidence that films and series effectively depict the linguistic characteristics of real-life communication. (Fernández-Guerra, 2008; Grant & Starks, 2001; Rose, 2001; Tatsuki, 2006; as cited in Glaser, 2014).

However, it should be noted, that the language used in movies is not the same as that of natural conversation as it falls somewhere between written and spoken language. Nonetheless, it is a better option than the inauthentic dialogues found in textbooks. Additionally, studies have shown that incorporating videos in language classrooms has a positive effect on student motivation, helps provide context for target language items, adds variety to classroom routines, and broadens the range of contexts and stimuli that can be introduced (Glaser, 2014).

Additional suggestions for bringing authentic input into the classroom include encouraging students to become ethnographers and collect their own data on pragmatics using worksheets or discourse completion tasks (Rose, 1999). However, it should be noted that these methods rely on written modes to capture the spoken language, which may lead to some reduction in input (e.g., intonation, facial expressions, hesitations). While such

methods can be beneficial for fostering pragmatic awareness and discussing sociopragmatic issues, they may be less suitable and reliable for teaching pragmalinguistic strategies. To bring more authentic input into the classroom, using spoken corpora and computer-mediated communication are recommended. Researchers such as Ishihara and Cohen (2010) have suggested using corpora in general, while others like Belz (2007) and González-Lloret (2008) have explored the potential of computer-mediated communication. These technologies can provide opportunities for students to analyze authentic language use in context, though they may require additional support to be effectively incorporated into language learning activities.

In addition to the significance of input authenticity, we have seen in section 2.1, that in order for an input to become intake and affect learning, relevant features of the input should be noticed (Schmidt, 1993). This necessity of input saliency has given rise to input enhancement techniques (Sharwood-Smith, 1993) which have been developed and used effectively in both classroom practice and research.

Another approach to help making input more accessible to language learners is that of structured input, suggested by VanPatten (1996). Structured input activities are designed to assist learners in decoding and fully utilizing input for language learning, taking into account their limited L2 proficiency. This is done by providing learners with controlled opportunities to process the form in the input, which facilitates better connections between form and meaning compared to less controlled situations. This approach has been used in grammar and vocabulary acquisition, but it has also been applied successfully in pragmatics by Takimoto (2004) who analyzed the development of request behavior of Japanese EFL learners.

Takimoto suggests that structured input materials need to be created with the intention of presenting target forms frequently, ensuring the meaning of the target forms is apparent, and that understanding the target forms is crucial for comprehending the text as a whole. When following these principles, learners are more likely to notice the input features, leading to improvements in their pragmatic skills, as noticed in all three of Takimoto's studies.

In addition to the importance of the availability, type and quality of input, practice and interaction, i.e., opportunities for learners' Output in the language classroom are of the same value as stated by (Martínez-Flor & Usó-Juan, 2010): "learners' active participation is a powerful force for the acquisition of pragmatics in the classroom setting" (p. 12). This is the second instructional component necessary for pragmatics instruction which will be presented thoroughly in the next section.

2.2.4.2 Output

SLA research has emphasized the importance of output in addition to input in the development of L2 skills. According to Swain's Output Hypothesis (1985, 1995, 2005), producing the target language is just as crucial as comprehending the input in language learning. Swain (1995) suggests that producing language serves four purposes for language learners:

The first of these functions is related to practice, which helps learners improve their fluency and automaticity in speaking, routinization of production (Gass, 2003).

The second function, according to Swain (1995) output serves the function of facilitating noticing whereby learners become aware of gaps between what they want to

express and what they are able to express, thus enabling them to identify areas in which they lack knowledge and leading to the discovery of new features in the L2.

The third function of output is hypothesis testing. This means that the learner can test their hypothesis about how comprehensible and well formed a certain utterance is. With the help of feedback, either from the hearer or from the situation, the learner can modify their output or, if they are successful, confirm their assumptions about the L2.

Finally, the fourth function of output can also have a metalinguistic function for the learner, as it enables them to reflect on their own use of the L2. While the first function of output is centered on improving fluency, the remaining three functions are related to enhancing accuracy.

Swain (1995) argues that there is a difference between the mental processes required for producing output and those involved in understanding input in that "output pushes learners to process language more deeply (with more mental effort) than does input" (p.126). She explains, "it may stimulate learners to move from the semantic, open-ended, non-deterministic, strategic processing prevalent in comprehension to the complete grammatical processing needed for accurate production" (p.128). Swain's hypothesis presented a significant change in perspective, as traditionally output was seen as a means of replicating prior learning, rather than a crucial prerequisite for or component of the learning process itself.

In the previous related studies, the examination of the function of output is closely connected to that of interaction because human communication is mutually dependent and involves negotiation. For instance, Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis suggests that the

negotiation of meaning, particularly through interactional adjustments made by a native speaker or a more proficient interlocutor, promotes language acquisition by linking input, the learner's internal capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways. Gass (2003) adds, “conversational interaction in a second language forms the basis for the development of language rather than being only a forum for practice of specific language features” (p.234), she emphasizes that: “interaction provides opportunities for learning through interactional modification, comprehension checks and the provision of recasts and other feedback” (Gass, 2003, p.233-234). Therefore, interaction “provoke[s] adjustments to linguistic form, conversational structure, message content, or all three, until an acceptable level of understanding is achieved” (Long, 1996, p.418).

The Output and Interaction Hypotheses suggest that language teachers have a responsibility to provide opportunities for practice and interaction in language learning. Encouraging learners to produce output, or pushed output, has been shown to be effective in promoting language learning, as demonstrated in several studies (Hazrat & Hessamy, 2013; Izumi, S., 2002; Izumi, Y. & Izumi, 2004; Keck, Iberri-Shea, Tracy-Ventura & Wa-Mbaleka, 2006, p. 91; Leeser, 2008; Swain & Lapkin, 1995, as cited in Glaser, 2014).

Unfortunately, the importance of output and interaction in the acquisition of pragmatic competence has been largely neglected in the field of ILP (Alcón-Soler, 2002), despite recognition of their significance in teaching guidelines for teaching pragmatics (Martínez-Flor & Usó-Juan, 2010). For instance, in Alcón-Soler's (2002) study, which involved Spanish learners of EFL, both teacher-led and student-led interaction were found to be beneficial for the development of requesting behavior in the foreign language. “When

second language learners experience communication problems and have the opportunity to negotiate solutions, they are able to acquire new language" (p. 359).

Bella (2011) conducted a study on Greek as a Second Language, which is a rare occurrence. The study compared the refusal of invitations made by learners with a longer duration of residence but restricted access to native speakers to those made by learners with a shorter duration of residence but more opportunities for communicative interaction. She found that it was not length of stay but opportunities of interaction which caused greater gains in pragmatic skills and politeness. Bella points out from her findings "the need for pedagogical intervention which aims at providing learners with metapragmatic information and meaningful opportunities for interaction that may promote their pragmatic development" (p. 1718).

Glaser (2014) reveals that the reasons behind the scant research about the relationship between interaction and output in pragmatic development are unclear, but it might be due to the alignment of this relationship with the core principles of sociocultural language learning and communicative language teaching, and hence, is not questioned much (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010; Ohta, 2005). This is reflected in the teaching guidelines that emphasize the need to provide ample opportunities for practice and interaction in language lessons, such as group work and role-play activities (Martínez-Flor & Usó-Juan, 2010), role play (Trosborg, 1995, p.473), Alcón-Soler (2002, p.371) and Ohta (2005, p.505) promote the use of collaborative learning techniques, assisted performance and negotiative tasks.

It can be inferred that while the relationship between output and pragmatic development has not been extensively studied, language teaching professionals and teacher educators widely recognize the importance of output and interaction in developing pragmatic skills. Therefore, it is likely that these aspects will continue to play a crucial role in language classrooms.

For instance, Trosborg (1995) supports the use of role plays in the FL classroom as an excellent exercise to enhance learners' communicative competence with a focus on both the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects of the target language, she states:

> "[…] when engaging learners with role playing in pairs or in small groups, they are offered the opportunities of experimenting, of repairing their utterances when negotiating the outcome of the conversation, and they engage in the communication practice which is very helpful in promoting procedural knowledge" (p.53)

It is worth mentioning that the present research used role plays as an instructional activity and as a research instrument for the same teaching and assessing objectives mentioned above by Trosborg (1995).

2.2.4.3 Feedback

As previously stated in relation to the Interaction Hypothesis, one crucial purpose of engaging in conversation with someone else is to obtain feedback on one's own output. This can potentially result in the learner making modifications and corrections to their output, as well as becoming aware of the disparity between their own speech and that of a native speaker. Therefore, the third instructional component in SLA and pragmatics instruction is the provision of feedback (Alcón-Soler, 2002). Gass & Mackey (2006) refer

to it as negative evidence (with positive evidence being the input the learners receive) or corrective feedback (CF) (Lyster et al., 2013)

In relation to the Interaction Hypothesis, it has been previously mentioned that interacting with someone can provide important feedback to language learners. This feedback can be given explicitly, through corrections and explanations, or implicitly, through methods such as checking understanding, requesting clarification, and correcting the errors made by the learner. In other words, feedback can be provided as claimed by Martínez-Flor & Usó-Juan (2010): through an "overt error correction and explanations or implicitly through the provision of comprehension checks, clarification requests and recasts, that is, reformulations of the erroneous output" (p. 14). Aside from the feedback given by the interlocutor, there is also implicit feedback that comes from the situation when there are communication breakdowns that require attention and repair (Gass & Mackey, 2006, p.1)

Lyster et al. (2013) have identified two fundamental types of feedback, namely prompts and reformulations, from their classroom observations. Prompts offer only negative evidence, meaning information about what is not possible in the target language. In contrast, reformulations provide both negative and positive evidence by indicating that an error has occurred and providing information about what is possible in the target language. The authors have identified nine classroom techniques for providing these two types of feedback, which they have categorized along a continuum from implicit to explicit feedback, namely "clarification requests, repetition, paralinguistic signals, elicitation, metalinguistic clues for prompts and conversational recasts, didactic recasts, explicit correction, and explicit correction plus metalinguistic explanation for reformulations" (pp.

3-5). According to their observation, Lyster et al. (2013) found that recasts are the most frequently used form of feedback initiated by teachers in the classroom, although there may be other forms that are more effective depending on the context. They conclude that "the most effective teachers are likely to be those who are willing and able to orchestrate, in accordance with their students' language abilities and content familiarity, a wide range of CF types that fit the instructional context" (p. 30).

Apart from feedback given by native speakers and teachers, feedback from peers can also benefit language learners. While there is limited research on peer feedback in second language acquisition, the existing studies suggest that it can have a positive impact (Lyster et al., 2013). Gass and Mackey (2006) point out that the effectiveness of feedback and its usefulness for the learner to correct their erroneous utterance in SLA might depend on the learner's proficiency level, especially when the correct form is not provided as part of the feedback: "If a learner is not sufficiently advanced to be able to make appropriate changes or to be sensitized to future patterns in the input, the feedback may not be developmentally useful" (p.14).

In the domain of pragmatics, giving feedback to learners is particularly crucial as native speakers rarely correct pragmatic errors during conversation. Instead, they tend to overlook these errors, thus denying language learners the opportunity to become aware of their mistakes (Washburn, 2001). For instance, Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1996) reported an observation from their study on authentic advising sessions in the US academic environment. They found that the advisors with higher status provided feedback to non-native speaking students on the content of their suggestion rejections, either directly or through implicit comprehension checks that were often mistaken for a request to repeat

rather than a signal to rephrase. However, feedback on the form of the language was never given. They conclude that this: “may provide little incentive for NNSs to modify their output. Instead, such exchanges provide evidence to learners that they are communicating successfully.” (p. 179). Thus, Martínez-Flor and Usó-Juan (2010) confirm that: “corrective feedback plays an important role in developing learners’ pragmatic ability in the classroom and it should be provided on both meaning and form” (p. 14).

Among the empirical proof from ILP studies on the effectiveness on feedback in the development of pragmatic competence, the study of Fukuya and Zhang (2002) which examine how recasts impacted the requesting behavior of Chinese EFL learners. The study compared a treatment group that received recasts to a control group that did not receive any feedback. The results showed that the recast group had a significant impact indicating that feedback is crucial and effective in instructed settings through large effect sizes.

In the same line, Koike and Pearson (2005) conducted a study on US-American learners of Spanish as a Foreign Language where they compared the effects of explicit and implicit feedback. They divided the learners into four groups with different feedback conditions and included a control group. The study found that the learners who received feedback showed a significant improvement in their pragmatic skills compared to the control group. Explicit feedback, in the form of correction and metapragmatic information, helped learners comprehend the pragmatic aspects, while implicit feedback, in the form of comprehension questions, aided in the learners' ability to produce suitable utterances.

As these researchers confirm through empirical evidence, receiving feedback is crucial in teaching pragmatic skills, especially in foreign language (FL) instruction where opportunities for feedback outside the classroom are limited.

The current study's instructional design included feedback from both the teacher and peers as a crucial component and it is in the sixth step, Revising, of the pedagogical framework adopted (cf. section 2.4.6 for more details), along with providing ample opportunities for output and interaction and rich input. The aim is to create an environment that is highly favorable for language learning and pragmatic enhancement

2.3 Pedagogical Frameworks to Teach Pragmatics

The development of learners' overall communicative competence and pragmatic competence in a second/foreign language setting has been the main concern of language teaching professionals in the field of Second Language Acquisition (Kasper and Rose 2002). As most researchers in the field of ILP (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001, Kasper, 2001; Martinez-Flor,2004; Trosborg, 1995; among others) strongly admit that communicating effectively and appropriately does not only require knowledge of the language system but also knowledge of the pragmatic rules of language. They assert that the consequences of pragmatic errors are more negative and serious than grammatical errors, as the non-native speaker may be perceived as uncooperative, rude, or offensive due to inappropriate language use (Alcón and Martínez-Flor 2008). Consequently, teaching pragmatic competence, particularly speech acts that are an indispensable aspect of pragmatics and the focus of the current study, in instructed settings has been regarded as necessary to facilitate learners' pragmatic developmental process.

The subsequent sections will describe, first, the second and foreign language settings as they are different and do affect pragmatic acquisition, then we will discuss the teaching of speech acts throughout the last three decades and different activities,

techniques, and pedagogical frameworks offered by pragmatic scholars with empirical proof.

2.3.1 Characteristics of Second and Foreign Language Settings

As previously mentioned, the context in which language learners are immersed plays a crucial role in terms of the quantity and quality of input they receive and the opportunities available for them to practice using the target language. Kasper (1989) differentiates between natural contexts where language learning happens through communication, and SL and FL contexts that are intentionally created for language learning. She refers to these two contexts as non-educational and educational contexts, respectively. While the former, Dyadic face-to-face interaction, is an example of natural context, whereas the latter, which is traditionally associated with frontal teaching, refers to SL and FL contexts where the teacher has control over the interaction. This section deals with the advantages and disadvantages of second and foreign language classroom settings for developing learners' pragmatic competence, distinguishing between the two types of settings.

In 1989, Kasper compared SL and FL contexts, with a specific focus on discourse management aspects such as opening, closing, and discourse regulation. The study compared conversations between pairs of NSs of English and German collected in SL settings with conversations between high-intermediate German learners of English and English NSs collected in FL settings. Results indicated that learners in FL contexts did not utilize appropriate interactive procedures, likely due to the absence of active cooperation and negotiation opportunities. Kasper suggested that this lack of appropriate interaction may be attributed to frontal teaching methods and recommended that learners in these

settings should be provided with communicative activities that allow for active participation and adopting initiating roles. (Martinez-Flor, 2004).

Among the differences that have been observed between the two types of settings are opportunities available for learners' acquisition of pragmatic competence. Kasper (2001) argues that the SL context provides more opportunities than a FL setting for developing learners' pragmatic competence. In an environment where a second language is spoken, learners are extensively exposed to the target language beyond the confines of the classroom, and have numerous occasions to utilize it in authentic situations. This allows learners to enhance their pragmatic skills as they may find themselves in situations where they need to comprehend utterances within context and communicate with various individuals of different social positions in various settings.

On the other hand, learners in a foreign language (FL) setting do not have the same chances to engage in authentic communication in the target language and do not have the benefit of directly observing native speakers (NSs) as role models. As a result, their only exposure to input and pragmatic behavior may come from classroom instruction (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996; Kasper, 1997). Therefore, it is crucial to establish the required circumstances that facilitate for learners enhancing their pragmatic skills in this particular setting. Nevertheless, as highlighted by Rose (1999), this factor poses a significant challenge since FL context is characterized by large size classes, and the available contact hours are limited, which restricts teachers from creating an ideal atmosphere to promote learners' pragmatic competence.

Rose (1999) identifies some advantages of a FL classroom setting despite its limitations for developing pragmatic competence. One such advantage is the homogeneity of the class, which allows for easier identification and resolution of conflicting pragmatic features by comparing the learners' L1 and TL. Another advantage is the prevalence of NNS teachers who, as fellow learners, can participate in discussions comparing the two languages. Additionally, both the teacher and learners share the same culture, which facilitates a better understanding of the similarities and differences between the two cultural systems in terms of pragmatic features.

In summary, SL classrooms offer several features that are absent in FL classrooms, such as exposure to authentic TL input, interaction in the TL outside the classroom, exposure to diverse contexts, and authentic purposes.

2.3.2 Teaching Speech Acts

Considering the differences between foreign and second language settings, it seems that creating the necessary conditions to facilitate learners' pragmatic competence regarding speech acts is necessary for foreign language contexts, although it is also strongly recommended in second language contexts. Counting all the advantages that these particular attitudes can provide for pragmatic development, it is claimed even after prolonged exposure, the potential insufficiency of some pragmatic aspects is still controversial (Bardovi-Harlig 1996, 2002).

Hitherto, the teaching of speech acts in second and foreign language settings is considered necessary because, it helps learners gain knowledge of the various pragmatic language choices that can be used to perform a particular speech act, depending on the

contextual factors and who they are talking to. Therefore, considering the benefits that learners in both learning environments can gain after a period of instruction, some researchers have proposed different techniques and activities as well as specific instructional models to teach speech acts in these learning environments. (Tatsuki 2005; Martínez-Flor and Usó-Juan 2006, 2010; Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor 2008).

2.3.3 Techniques to Teach Speech Acts

To increase learners' pragmatic awareness, various techniques and activities have been developed for teaching speech acts. These include using transcripts of natural conversations as awareness-raising exercises, identification tasks that involve writing and listening (Fujimori and Houck 2004), and what Bardovi-Harlig (1996) has named the *culture puzzle* and the classroom guest.

In performing the *Culture Puzzle* Technique learners are first encouraged to think about how a particular speech act functions in their own language and culture. Then, they are made aware of the differences between the pragmatic rules that distinguish their mother tongue speech community from that of the target language they are learning.

The activity known as the classroom guest involves a natural language sample being brought into the classroom by having a conversation with a guest that includes the targeted speech act. The teacher records the conversation and the learners later listen to it and discuss it. Two students then prepare a role-play based on the same situation, and the two conversations are compared and discussed. This activity provides ample opportunities for classroom interaction, and numerous studies have been conducted to explore its potential in enhancing learners' proficiency in performing various speech acts.

The *Pragmatic Awareness-Raising* (Rose 1994, 1999) includes the use of video and the design of thought-raising techniques considered practical. The technique involves an inductive approach, where learners collect data in their native language and learn about the strategies used for a specific speech act. They then, compare it with the target language.

All of these techniques, including utilizing authentic conversation transcripts, arranging pre-determined dialogues, utilizing video clips, and implementing the pragmatic consciousness-raising technique, have the goal of improving learners' understanding of the specific speech act being studied.

Besides, to develop learners' pragmatic production, it is necessary to include tasks that involve learners in communicative practice. Role-play, simulation, and drama are some of the activities designed for this purpose, and among them, role-play is the most frequently recommended activity in the literature. Therefore, both raising awareness and engaging in productive activities are essential for teaching particular speech acts. According to Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor (2003), the ultimate aim of pragmatics instruction is to enhance learners' pragmatic consciousness, enabling them to become familiar with different pragmatic features and practices in the target language, and to apply these features effectively in real-life communication.

The authors provide a range of online lesson plans that are accessible to learners of all ability levels and cultural backgrounds. These courses focus on various pragmatic features, of which speech acts are the most prominent aspects of suggestion, such as complaining, praising, disagreeing, greeting, refusing, requesting, intimidating, and other various speech acts. A similar structure is used in Tatsuki's (2005) work, where the authors present a chapter dedicated to examining pedagogical innovations with a pragmatic focus.

Several authors present useful and innovative activities to help students increase their knowledge of various speech acts, such as refusals, requests or suggestions.

2.3.4 Pedagogical Models to Teach Speech Acts

Regarding instructional models for teaching speech acts, Olshtain and Cohen (1991) were the first authors to propose a framework consisting of distinct steps. According to these authors, learners must first become familiar with the most typical implementation strategies for the speech act under study. After the demonstration, they should be explained the factors involved in choosing one form over the other, and finally given the opportunity to practice using speech acts. To plan and implement these recommendations, Olshtain and Cohen (1991) developed five steps that included three conditions for each aspect of learning the target language, namely input, output, and feedback. The first step, the *diagnostic assessment*, aims to determine the learner's level of knowledge of the speech act in general and the specific speech act in question in particular.

Using acceptance assessment tests and oral/written tests, teachers are able to assess learners' ability to understand and produce verbal acts. *Modeling dialogue* is the second step and involves showing learners short examples of natural dialogue in which they can observe the speech acts used. The purpose of this activity is to make learners guess whether the participants in the conversation know each other and other aspects, such as their age or status. In this way, learners become aware of social and pragmatic factors that can influence speech acts. The third step, *evaluation of the situation*, is seen as a skill that increases learners' awareness of the factors that influence the selection of appropriate speech act strategies, as learners are asked to discuss and evaluate different situations. Learners then engage in a variety of role-play activities suitable for practicing the use of

speech acts. An important aspect of preparing for these events is providing sufficient relevant information about the situation and the participants. Finally, *feedback* and discussion should be provided to learners so that they recognize if inappropriate expressions were used during the role play. They should also have the opportunity to express their perceptions and perceived differences between their native and target languages. Some of the instructional practices suggested by Olshtain and Cohen (1991), including participation in relevant input through the presentation of natural dialogue.

Opportunities to generate output through role-play, and feedback on their performance, are also addressed in Judd (1999) model. In his view, the teaching model of speech acts that he proposes must be adapted to the specific situation of each classroom. Whether it is a second or foreign language program, whether the teacher is a native or non-native speaker of the language, the learner's needs for learning the target language, and the materials available must be considered. After considering all these aspects, the authors propose a framework that, like Olhstain and Cohen's (1991) model, also includes four steps. First, a teacher's analysis of speech acts is presented in order to connect what is to be taught with the actual needs of learners. Second, the development of the learner's cognitive perceptual skills is also important so that the learner is exposed to the speech act being taught and thus understands the appropriate linguistic realizations that can be used to express that particular speech act. Third, learners need receptive/synthetic skills to recognize language patterns in actual language use, i.e. as part of decontextualized discourse fragments. Finally, students undertake free synthesis exercises that challenge them to produce not only specific speech acts, but also other forms of speech in natural conversation. According to Judd (1999), this last step would be considered a practical test

of learning, since at this point learners should be able to use speech acts appropriately, not just in isolation, but in actual communicative interactions.

Moreover, Kondo (2008) outlines a procedure for teaching various speech acts, including apologies, complaints, compliments, refusals, requests, and thanking. The lessons are divided into five phases to help learners recognize the significance of *"speaking as doing"* reflect on their language usage, and identify similarities and differences in conducting speech acts between Japanese and Americans. The first phase, *Feeling,* involves a listening comprehension task where learners listen to two different dialogues related to a specific speech act and answer questions. In the second phase, *Doing,* learners are given a hypothetical speech situation and asked to respond similarly to a discourse completion task and role-play the situation with their partners. In the third phase, *Thinking,* learners analyze their own speech act performance through activities like examining classifications of different strategies for a given speech act, listening to dialogues, and writing down key expressions for each strategy, and analyzing their own performance. The fourth phase, *Understanding,* involves taking notes on cross-cultural communication as learners compare and contrast the strategies used in their own and other cultures. The final phase, *Using,* focuses on practical use, where learners utilize their new skills in various communicative contexts.

Juan and Martínez Flor (2008) developed a learner-based instructional approach to strategies for performing head acts without considering the importance of focusing on elements aimed at mitigating face-threatening speech acts, and the call for mitigation consists of three main stages. In the first stage, Learner *Exploration,* learners have the opportunity to explore the pragmatic-linguistic form and sociopragmatic factors that affect

the sufficiency of a request for mitigation by engaging in two types of awareness-raising activities. On the one hand, students' understanding of relationships in request's pragmaliguistics and the sociopragmatic knowledge they built. During the second stage, learner *production*, learners have written and oral opportunities to make requests and their mitigations. In the third and final stage, learner *feedback* stage, learners receive feedback from their peers about their performance in communicative practice activities related to the chosen pragmatic language form to express their interrogative head movements and their means of mitigation, as well as those sociopragmatic factors considered sufficient performance in a given situation.

Drawing on the two aforementioned models, (Olshtain and Cohen 1991; Judd 1999), Martínez-Flor and Usó-Juan (2006) propose a pedagogical framework for speech acts of requesting and suggesting. It aims at guiding learners to gradually engage in the learning activities, notice the importance of contextual and sociopragmatic factors that affect which of the two speech acts must be performed and how. Their framework is called the 6Rs approach and consists of six steps.

This framework adopts an inductive approach and incorporates most of the abovementioned activities and techniques, namely *culture puzzle, awareness-raising activities, cross-cultural comparisons, role plays, conversation analysis in the classroom, feedback, and discussion.* By engaging learners in these awareness-raising and production activities learners can gain a deeper understanding of how speech acts work in actual conversations. This involves examining the various components of a speech act interaction, such as the specific actions taken, the linguistic and non-linguistic cues used to convey the speech act, and the way in which multiple speakers take turns in the conversation. All of

them aim at developing learners' pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics at the level of discourse to become successful cross-cultural communicators. Thus, the current study adopts the 6 Rs Approach to examine its effects on students' pragmatic competence regarding awareness and production of appropriate refusals and requests, in addition to students' attitudes toward the application of this pedagogical framework in pragmatics instruction. Thus, the subsequent section will be devoted to a detailed description of the 6 Rs approach and each step is described with its activity.

2.4 The Pedagogical Framework Adapted in the Current Study: The 6 Rs Approach

Based on the previous pedagogical models suggested by (Olshtain and Cohen 1991; Judd 1999) and explained in the previous section, Martínez-Flor and Usó-Juan (2006) have developed an instructional framework for teaching the speech acts of requesting and suggesting, the aim of this framework is to help learners understand the importance of contextual and sociopragmatic factors in determining which speech act to use and how to use it. The framework, known as the 6Rs Approach, includes six steps, namely Researching, *Reflecting*, *Receiving*, *Reasoning*, *Rehearsing* and *Revising*. Each step will be described with some sample activities and how they were adapted to the aims of the current study and the speech acts under scrutiny; requests and refusals.

2.4.1 Researching Phase

To begin with, teachers should give students a quick overview of what pragmatic competence is. Rose (1999) advises educating learners on the two main components of pragmatics: pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. Pragmalinguistics, on the other hand, pertains to the grammatical side of pragmatics and discusses the resources for expressing

certain communication behaviors. Contrarily, sociopragmatics refers to the social conditions in which a language act is considered suitable. In accordance with Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory, there are three main social factors that determine whether a linguistic form is appropriate: (i) social distance, or the degree of familiarity between interlocutors; **D** (ii) power, or the relative power of the speaker with respect to the speaker; **P** and (iii) degree or rank of imposition **R**, or the kind of imposition the speaker is imposing on the listener.

At this point, learners should get explicit instruction on the nature of these two pragmatic components as well as how sociopragmatic components impact the suitability of the linguistic forms chosen by speakers (for information that can be discussed with learners (cf. Appendix G). After introducing the concept of pragmatics in class, the lecturer informs the students that they will concentrate on the theory of speech acts (Austin, 1962), a subfield of pragmatics, and in particular on the directive speech act; *request* and commissive speech act *refusal* (Searle, 1976). Then, they are given a basic explanation of what these two speech acts imply (i.e., that one represents an attempt to persuade someone to take a particular action for the speaker's benefit, in the case of requests, and in the second the speaker directly or indirectly says no to his/her interlocutor’s request, invitation or suggestion or offer, in the case of refusals), they are both face-threatening acts, as well as the differences between them regarding their perlocutionary effects.

This first step serves two purposes: (i) to increase learners' comprehension of the relationship between pragmatics and language instruction; and (ii) to increase learners' sensitivity to the speech acts of requesting and refusing that they naturally engage in

throughout their daily lives (Olshtain & Cohen, 1991). It is also a method of piquing students' interest in the subject being taught and an awareness-raising technique.

After this overview, learners are instructed to become *researchers* and collect naturally occurring requests and refusals in their mother tongue (L1) Rose (1999). To work on that, students are given a data-collection worksheet that controls for the three sociopragmatic factors explained at the beginning of the course; social power **P,** social distance **D,** and rank of imposition **R,** Learners are asked to write down information about at least five requests and five refusals they encounter in their daily life or they perform in different contexts.

2.4.2 Reflecting Phase

In the second step, students use their own data as the basis for the analysis and use the lecturer's basic awareness-raising questions to reflect on the two speech acts they have just studied. Both sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic issues are covered in the questions. An awareness-raising questions worksheet (cf. appendix G) is provided to the students, who are then requested to examine their own LI samples by responding to the consciousness-raising inquiries. They are invited to compare their data with their peers after this individual analysis to access a larger sample and to get them to think more deeply about how requests and refusals are performed in their L1 and how sociolinguistic factors affect the appropriate strategy selection for both speech acts. Moreover, through the analysis of a large number of situations that the learners provided in their previous worksheet, learners may notice that there is no direct correspondence between a linguistic expression and a specific function. Since in many situations, context is so vital to be able to be able to interpret the speaker’s intention. In fact, pragmatic ability has been said to

depend on the multifunctionality of utterances (Thomas, 1995; Rose, 1999). Thus, this second phase likewise serves two purposes: In order to choose a strategy, social aspects are a crucial consideration. Additionally, learners should be made aware of the fact that one utterance might serve a variety of purposes depending on the speaker's aim.

2.4.3 Receiving Phase

Learners receive specific instruction on the pragmalinguistic forms used for making requests and refusals in English as the L2 after reflecting on their LI data. Since they have been expanded upon by earlier studies in the field of ILP, we think that Trosborg's (1995) proposed taxonomy for requests and Salazar et al's. (2009) serve our aims regarding the teaching of appropriate strategies for carrying out both speech actions. (cf. appendix G for more details about the two speech acts). Regarding requests taxonomy is mainly divided into the strategies of indirect requests that include hints such as "I have to be at the airport in half an hour", conventionally indirect requests (either hearer-oriented or speaker-based) such as ability, willingness, wishes, permission, suggestory formula, desires, needs and obligation, and direct requests include performatives, imperatives and elliptical phrase.(Trosborg, 1995)

Additionally, we also considered Trosborg's (1995) taxonomy of request modification items, which is distributed into internal and external modifications as the use of these mitigators is important, since they represent different ways of modifying a request in order to make it more polite and decrease its threatening nature.

On the other hand, according to Salazar et al's. (2009, refusals taxonomy includes semantic formulas divided into direct and indirect realisations of refusals. Direct categories

include performative statements such as “I refuse” and non-performative statements like “No” or “I can’t”. By means of indirect realisations, the refuser mitigates the face-threatening act in order to soften negative effects. This is accomplished through the use of excuses, explanations, alternatives, and so on. As mentioned in chapter I, adjuncts cannot by themselves be used to perform a refusal. Yet, they may appear just before the semantic formula (prerefusals) or after it (postrefusals), in Félix-Brasdefer’s (2004) terms.

After being given all of these realization strategies, students are asked to compare them to those in their native language and discuss whether they distributed the L1 forms for both speech actions similarly. To help students understand the similarities and differences between the two languages, a cross-linguistic and cross-cultural comparison is necessary. Regarding commonalities, students may discover that techniques can be distributed over a continuum of directness in both languages, while students may discover that their LI strategies are not always perfectly transferable to those used in English as a second language (L2). This awareness-raising activity helps learners notice the similarities between their L1 and L2 which they may consider as universalities regarding refusals and requests strategies, and the differences are considered as culture specificities that should be learnt to avoid pragmatic failure.

In fact, research has shown that when negative pragmatic transfer occurs, L1 pragmalinguistic competence may impair the production of several pragmatic elements in L2 (Kasper, 1992; House & Kasper, 1987; Maeshiba et al., 1996, among others). Learners should be aware of this fact as a result to prevent potential misconceptions in the L2.

This third step's sole goal is to teach students every possible language form for the speech acts of requests and refusals in order to significantly broaden the range of tactics

covered in textbooks, which they do not reflect actual language use, according to field research (Crandail & Basturkmen, 2004). Since many course books only offer the customarily indirect forms as choices without giving them any sort of ranking (Salazar & Uso, 2001, 2002). These commonly used indirect expressions of ability include "you can" and "you should" when making requests and ‘direct refusal’, ‘regret’, ‘excuse and reason’, ‘wish’, and ‘postponement’ when refusing. However, restricting learners to only using these specific pragmalinguistic forms prevents them from using alternative expressions seen in real-world interactions. We then concentrate on the sociopragmatic elements that influence their linguistic choices and ppropriateness of their use once learners are familiar with all of these speech act realization strategies.

2.4.4 Reasoning Phase

The three sociopragmatic factors discussed in Step 1 (i.e., social distance D, power P, and imposition R) as well as the speaker's intention and the setting may influence the form that a speech act takes at this stage, which is where learners engage in three different types of awareness-raising activities (Kasper, 1997; Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan- Taylor, 2003). Each effort to raise awareness has a unique purpose. The first assignment is to broaden the range of request and refusal tactics taught to students in textbooks. Learners are instructed to read a language scenario and three requests or three refusals that are offered on a scale of increasing directness for this aim.

Example 1

You are a recent college graduate who is applying for a job at a large corporation. The company has called you for a first interview, and at the end of the first interview, they ask for a second interview. You are very interested in a second interview, but you are very busy at your part-time job and can only come to interviews very early in the morning. The interviewer only wants to make afternoon appointments. What do you say in order to get an early morning interview?

a. I can only interview in the morning because of my other job.

b. I'm sorry to be so much trouble, but is there any possible way we could schedule the second interview in the morning?

c. I hate to ask this, but can you be more flexible?

Example 2

You are a graduate student in a university program and there is another student in some of your classes. You have met with this student outside of class a couple of times, and know the student pretty well. Sometimes you have coffee together at the student union coffee shop. You see this student outside your building, and the student asks to borrow a book from you. You need to use the book this afternoon because you have a big test tomorrow. So, what would you say?

a. I would give it to you, but I need it this afternoon to study for a test.

b. I want to lend you this book, but I will use it this afternoon for my test. How about tomorrow morning? Is that ok for you?

c. Sure, here you are.

The second assignment tries to assess the metapragmatic awareness of the students. Learners study a language scenario where a potential refusal (cf. Example 3) or request (cf. Example 4) has already been made in order to achieve that goal. They are requested to grade the request's or refusal's level of appropriateness after reading these circumstances, and to explain why they gave that particular rating (providing a metapragmatic explanation)

Example 3: (conversation between friends)

Jack: Hi Claire! Can you help me with final project work?

Claire: Uhm. I'd love to. Sorry, but I have to study for an exam tomorrow. Tomorrow maybe?

Completely appropriate 5-4-3-2-1 really inadequate.

Reason:……

Example 4:

You work in a travel agency. You have just answered the phone and need to note down some specific details about a tour that a client is asking you for. You do not have a pen at hand and need to borrow one from a co-worker (and close friend).

You say: Would you mind if I borrow your pen?

Rating: Totally acceptable 5-1-3-2-1 is terribly inadequate.

Reason:……

The third awareness-raising exercise invites students to imagine the appropriate situation and context for the given requests or refusals as well as in determining the purpose of a particular speech. In order to achieve this, the teacher gives students a list of mixed requests and refusals gleaned from real-world conversations amongst English native speakers adopted from the literature reviewed. The three sociopragmatic criteria discussed in Step 2 are then asked to be taken into consideration by the learners when they elicit the most suitable context and then state the function of the utterance (cf. appendix G for more awareness-raising activities in this step; Reasoning)

I'm very sorry, I just had a lot of dental work done and I shouldn't chew gum.

Put this suitcase up there for me.

I never lend money to strangers

Sorry, I'm going out of town, too. I was going to ask you the same thing.

No, I can't do it.

My car has broken down. Will you be using your car tonight?

Thanks for the invite but I do terribly studying with other people

Oh no thank you. I had some coffee before I got here

Excuse me, I'm sorry to interrupt, but this part of the library is for quiet studying.

I would give it to you, but I need it this afternoon to study for a test.

You might make less noise.

I'm sorry I already have plans with my friends. Would you like to join us?

(adopted from Trosborg, 1995; Glaser, 2014; Salazar et al. 2009)

Table 11

Path to a Suitable Context for a Given Request/ Refusal Form (Martinez & Uso-Juan,2006).

Path to a suitable context for a given Request / RefusalForm
Ste Step1:Add the given utterance   **……**
Step2: Think about   **1.role-relationship between the speaker and the addressee:**   **2.speakers' occupation:……..**   **3.speakers' intention:…….**   **4.setting:……**
Step3: Provide a suitable context taking into account the sociopragmatic factors described in step 2:   **……..**
Step 4: Is the utterance a request or a refusal   **(in case of refusals indicate if it is the refusal to : request, invitation, offer, suggestion)**   **……**   **……**

2.4.5 Rehearsing Phase

Having acquainted learners with how requests and refusals are expressed linguistically in English as a second language, along with their sociopragmatic characteristics, they are prepared to put that knowledge into practice through production activities. On the basis of Kasper's (1997) recommendations to engage learners in communicative practice after being involved in awareness-raising activities, the decision to add this phase at this stage of the method was taken. In this vein, learners are given two

sorts of production activities at this stage: controlled and free (Judd 1999). We think it is a good idea to begin with controlled activities to guide learners complete the task first, then to give them practice with unstructured activities.

Additionally, we would like to stress the need of managing two distinct production modes: oral and written. Oral production activities as it will be explained in the section of data collection techniques in pragmatics research, help learners practice employing their pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge in interaction. Written production activities allow more control over the contextual variables that may appear in the situational descriptions and guide learners' choice of the linguistic expressions for the pragmatic features under focus. (Martinez-Flor and Uso-Juan, 2006)

One of the assignments in this step is a controlled oral production task illustrated by utilizing authentic video clips that portray scenarios of making requests and refusing. The teacher selects different scenes from movies that interest the learners, in which the characters are interacting either performing requests or refusals. During the speech acts performance, the video scene is paused and learners are asked to complete the video worksheet that evaluates the situational factors of each scene (for more details about the film excerpts (cf. appendix G)

Concerning the selection of the film itself, Martinez-Flor and Uso-Juan (2006) advise to choose films which communicate cultural values in order to enhance learners' intercultural competence.

I. Focus on Sociopragmatic Features

Table 12

Video Worksheet (Martinez-Flor &Uso-Juan,2006).

Video Worksheet			
Step1: Circle the option you think it is appropriate			
1.Speakers' social distance: close stranger		distant	
2.Speakers' power:	S* > H**	S = H	S < H
3.Rank of Imposition:	low	mild	high
Step2: Provide the context where the characters are interacting			
……			
Step 3: Provide additional contextual features concerning their non-verbal behavior and para-linguistic features (tone of voice, body language, attitudinal behavior, facial expressions, and so on)			
S*= Speaker ; H**= Hearer			

II. Focus on pragmalinguistic Features

Step 4. Note down the refusal & request strategies that take place in the scenes and consider whether cultural differences can be observed:

……

After contemplating the specific situations depicted in the video scenes, the learners are instructed to work in pairs and simulate a role play to demonstrate their understanding of how the conversations are expected to unfold.

Moreover, to engage learners in a reflective observation, the whole class is divided into two groups: group1 are assigned to perform the scenes of requests, and group 2 are

assigned to perform the scenes of refusals. Each time, a volunteer pair from each group act out the dialogue in front of the class and the rest of the learners are given an observation worksheet to judge the appropriateness of the speech acts performances;

Table 13

Class Observation Worksheet (Martinez-Flor &Uso-Juan,2006).

Class Observation Worksheet
Step1. Focus on pragmalinguistic features.
Which linguistic expressions have been used to convey the Request/refusal?
Step2: Focus on sociopragmatic features
If you perform the same role play, compare this realization
Strategy with yours and say which one is more appropriate.
Are the students acting as naturally as in real life? (non-verbal Behaviors)
Step 3: Focus on the goals of both speech acts
What are the differences between each speech acts in terms of the interlocutors, the benefits, the threats and face-saving strategies used?

After working on their worksheets individually, the learners review again all the film scenes from the beginning to the end and compare them to the ones they performed as they were all videotaped. This comparison is followed by a class discussion. It should be noted that the design of the activities is based on the three instructional components of SLA discussed previously, namely those of authentic input, output and feedback.

As a follow-up activity, learners are required to perform the same role plays but the situational variables should change (i.e., social distance, social power, and imposition) for more practice in varied situations with different interlocutors (Judd, 1999).

Regarding written production tasks, an example of a controlled production task is sending emails. Learners are instructed to read two different situational descriptions that vary in terms of sociopragmatic features and reply to these emails appropriately.

The overall aim of these oral and written controlled production activities is to engage learners in a series of varied situations with different contextual factors that require different semantic formulas and strategies for more practice and production. As they become more aware, teacher's guidance should be reduced or removed to allow them practice through free production activities.

According to Judd (1999), free production tasks are those designed by lecturers similar to real life situations and encourage natural language.

Example:

Choose two email request situations and two email refusal situations and write what you're going to say in these emails

(explain the social and contextual factors before you write your email)

2.4.6 Revising Phase

Finally, lecturers have to *revise* the outcome of the free activities assigned in Step 5 and provide feedback related to their participation on either the face - to - face learners ' conversations with each other or online via emails. In our opinion, such feedback on learners' participation and further discussion about all aspects covered during the whole approach is necessary to help learners gain a full mastery of the use and appropriate behavior of the speech acts of requesting and refusing in the L2.

In summary, and as mentioned in the previous section, the 6Rs Approach is an instructional framework that aims at developing learners' pragma linguistic, sociopragmatic and metapragmatic abilities through varied activities and techniques. However, extremely limited studies (Martinez-Flor and Uso-Juan, 2006; Shirinbakhsh, Eslami Razekh, and Tavakoli, 2016) , as far as we know, have used the 6Rs Approach to develop pragmatic competence in the EFL/ESL classroom. Thus, this study investigates the impact of the 6Rs Approach on students' pragmatic competence, regarding awareness and production of appropriate refusals and requests, in addition to learners' perceptions of this pedagogical framework.

2.5 Research on Pragmatics in Second/ Foreign Language Classrooms

Research on L2 pragmatics focuses on the acquisition of pragmatic knowledge and skills in the target language by L2 learners. Speech acts are the most commonly researched aspect of L2 pragmatic competence. To investigate L2 pragmatics, researchers have used various methods to collect and analyze data, depending on their research goals.

2.5.1 Data Collection Techniques

The data gathered can come from natural conversations, field notes, or deliberately elicited methods such as conversation tasks, role plays, Discourse Completion Tasks DCTs, Multiple Choice Questionnaires MCQs, rating scales, verbal reports, and perception of the instruction questionnaire. The advantages and limitations of these techniques are examined, and the data collection techniques of the present study are stated.

The data collection methods commonly used in research on pragmatics are categorized into four areas: (1) Pragmatic production (2) pragmatic comprehension and

perception, (3) pragmatic decision-making processes (4) learners' perceptions and attitudes of the instruction. It should be noted that this overview of research methods in ILP is based on the review of Nguyen (2019) which is based on a survey of 246 empirical studies in L2 pragmatics published from 1979 to 2017.

2.5.1.1 Pragmatic Production

In L2 pragmatics research, the area of pragmatic production has received the most attention, it involves generating meaning in social contexts, such as speech acts and humor. The main challenge in this area has been to collect data that accurately represent real-life interactions while controlling for social variables that can impact the interaction, such as setting, topic, and speaker relationships. Various methods are used for data collection, including recording authentic or semi-authentic discourse, role-playing, and DCTs.

Naturally occurring or *authentic data* include everyday conversations, institutional talk (e.g., teacher-student interaction), CMC (e.g., e-mail exchanges and interactions in virtual environments), and published texts (e.g., essays). Field observations are a method for collecting naturalistic spoken data, which involves taking notes on what individuals say during real-life interactions. (e.g., Shively, 2015, as cited in Nguyen, 2019). Due to the fact that field notes are based on the researcher's recollection of conversations, they may not be as precise as audio or video recordings. Therefore, they are frequently supported by recordings. Paralinguistic aspects of the conversation may not be fully represented in field notes such as facial expressions, gestures, and pauses, which convey pragmatic meanings.

Ishihara and Cohen (2010) suggest a solution to this issue by advising researchers to take notes not only on the content of conversations, but also on the nonverbal elements

such as tone, gestures, and eye contact. Additionally, researchers can include information about physical settings, speakers' ages, genders, social status, and social distance in their field notes. For instance, in Shively's (2011, as cited in Nguyen, 2019) study, L2 Spanish learners in Spain recorded their service encounter interactions while completing a form provided by the researcher that prompted them to note contextual details about the interactions.

One way to collect naturalistic spoken data is through the use of audio or video recordings of authentic conversations, as demonstrated in Shively (2015, as cited in Nguyen, 2019). To avoid potential biases resulting from the observer's presence, researchers often opt not to be present during the recordings and refrain from providing a predetermined topic for discussion. In Shively's study, for instance, L2 Spanish learners recorded their own conversations using a handheld recorder without a given topic.

Recent advancements in computer technology have expanded the possibilities of collecting genuine interaction data. This can now be achieved through the use of technology-based methods, such as synchronous and asynchronous computer-mediated communication (CMC). It is a favorable method for data collection because the data is immediately accessible and digitally recorded, allowing for convenient analysis. Moreover, it enables researchers to minimize the observer's paradox since they can observe interactions without being present. The use of CMC provides researchers with a variety of meaning-making resources, such as verbal and non-verbal means (e.g., images and sounds), providing a more comprehensive perspective on the pragmatic phenomenon being studied (Nguyen, 2019). An instance of using computer technology for collecting naturalistic interaction data is demonstrated by Cunningham (2017, as cited in Nguyen, 2019) who

collected expressions of request produced by L2 German learners in a telecollaboration aimed at professional purposes. The database included spoken interactions that took place between the German learners and a group of L1 German speakers during a series of online conferences.

In the study of pragmatics, naturalistic data are preferred because they offer the most accurate representation of language use, as well as the impact of interaction on participants. As Bardovi-Harlig (2010) notes, naturalistic data best reveal the occurrence of two-way communication. However, naturalistic data are rarely used in empirical studies. For instance, Nguyen (2019) in her meta-analysis, found only 53 studies out of 217 production studies that used naturalistic data and she relates this to the difficulty associated with collecting and using this type of data. Moreover, comparing pragmatic behaviors across participants or time points can be challenging when using naturalistic data, as social situations can vary significantly.

Conversation tasks, in Kasper's view, are (2008) defined as tasks where "participants ... converse about a topic or ... jointly reach a particular goal determined by the researcher" (p. 287). It is considered as a semi-naturalistic conversation method. This data collection method involves recording conversations that occur spontaneously during class activities or conversations that are initiated by the researcher but without the speakers' awareness of being observed or of the research focus. Examples of studies that have utilized this elicitation method include Nguyen (2017), Al-Gahtani and Roever (2014), and Taguchi (2014).

In one study, Nguyen (2017) arranged students in pairs to critique each other's essays, eliciting spontaneous constructive criticisms and responses in L2 English. In

another study, Al-Gahtani and Roever (2014) investigated L2 requests in Arabic by having students request a schedule change from their school administrators due to a scheduling conflict. These conversation tasks are conducted with the goal of benefiting the researcher, but the participants are not required to pretend to be someone else or to act out imaginary situations, instead maintaining their real-life identities (Taguchi & Roever, 2017).

The data gathered through conversation tasks resemble naturalistic conversations since they are spontaneous and have real consequences. Nonetheless, unlike naturally occurring discourse, which arises from real-life interactions, conversation tasks are designed to achieve specific research goals and are therefore not completely authentic. However, according to Bardovi-Harlig (2010), interactions that are goal-oriented in institutional settings often obscure the boundary between genuine interaction and elicited data, making them beneficial for research on pragmatic production.

In summary, conversation tasks offer several benefits for collecting pragmatic data in controlled settings, such as the ability to target specific pragmatic features and manipulate contextual variables. They also allow for the collection of large amounts of data on naturalistic speech in classroom discourse, including common speech acts such as agreeing, disagreeing, giving advice, and asking questions. However, classroom discourse is limited to interactions between teachers and students or among peers, which may not provide as much variety in social situations and participant relationships as open role plays or contextually controlled conversations. Despite this limitation, conversation tasks remain a valuable tool for investigating specific pragmatic phenomena (Nguyen, 2019).

Role plays are a frequently used research method in pragmatic production studies (Taguchi & Roever, 2017), appearing in 83 out of 217 studies. Role plays involve

simulating social encounters and can be designed to explore interactions in various contexts, including differences in power, social distance, and imposition between speakers. They are particularly helpful in collecting data on sensitive types of discourse that are hard to access in real-life situations, such as conflict discourse, as noted by (Archer et al., 2012, as cited in Nguyen, 2019).

A role play is a task that involves participants enacting a situational scenario in a manner that would reflect their behavior in real-life. There are two types of role plays: closed and open. In a closed role play, the participants act out a scenario individually, without an interlocutor, and produce a single-turn response (Schauer, 2009). While they can be used to study non-interactive discourse, closed role plays are not useful for examining interactions. Ghavamnia et al. (2018) employed closed role plays in a novel way to gather suggestions that sound natural. In this study, L2 English learners were instructed to call a real phone number provided by the researchers and to provide a suggestion (e.g., making a suggestion to a friend about course selection). However, when the learners called the number, an answering machine informed them that the recipient was not available, and they had to leave a message containing their suggestion.

In other studies, technology has been used to improve the effectiveness of closed role play tasks. Schauer (2008) conducted a study in which L2 English learners' requests were elicited through a computer-based closed role play task. This task included visual cues, such as pictures representing the situational scenarios, and audio input, consisting of recorded descriptions of the scenarios. The additional contextual information provided by the audiovisual cues facilitated learners' imagination of the situations, and the task enabled control over the timing and nature of the input, such as the tone of voice and image of the

interlocutor. This helped to standardize the test conditions, making the data comparable across learners.

On the other hand, an open role play is different from a closed role-play as it requires two or more participants to act out an interaction, with each participant being assigned a specific role that is not disclosed to the other participant(s). In some cases, the role card may also specify which participant should speak first. To encourage more extended discourse, some studies have created a scenario in which the participants' goals are in direct opposition, forcing them to negotiate and come to a resolution. As an illustration, Al-Gahtani and Roever (2012) employed a situation where one participant requested their roommate to purchase bread from the supermarket, but the roommate declined as they were watching TV. This initial refusal prompted the participant to continue persuading their roommate, resulting in a more extended conversation.

Although open role plays enable spontaneous speech production during conversational exchanges, they differ from natural conversations in several ways. One key difference is that role-play interactions are simulated and lack real-life consequences for the participants, making them fundamentally distinct from natural interactions (Kasper, 2008). Participants may become aware that the role play is artificial when they observe the same interlocutor playing different roles. This awareness may affect the reliability of the data collected. Additionally, participants may feel stressed if they are not good at acting or are assigned roles that differ from their real-life roles. To address these issues, researchers often attempt to increase the naturalness of role play. For instance, in Nguyen's (2013) study, participants were given the option to decline a role-play scenario if they did not find it familiar or if the assigned role did not match their real-life roles.

Written *Discourse Completion Test* (DCT) has been widely used in pragmatic research to elicit speech acts. In fact, almost half of the studies on pragmatic production, or 41%, utilized DCTs. Like role plays, the DCT scenarios vary in terms of power, social distance, and degree of imposition, which allows researchers to investigate a speech act in different situations. The DCT provides a description of a situation and leaves a blank space for the participants to insert their responses. While most descriptions of situations provide basic information about the setting and the relationship between the participants, some are more detailed and include contextual details such as the gender of the participants, their familiarity with each other, and the physical setting s (Billmyer & Varghese, 2000 as cited in Nguyen, 2019)

In contrast to the written DCT, an oral DCT requires participants to provide spoken responses to a given situation. However, like the closed role-play, oral DCT is limited to eliciting brief, one-turn responses.

DCTs were typically given in a paper-and-pencil format, as in Martinez-Flor (2004) study and similar to the case of the present study. However, more recent research has used computer-based DCTs, such as those used in Bardovi-Harlig, Mossman, and Vellenga's (2015), Li's (2013), and Taguchi et al.'s (2013) studies. Bardovi-Harlig et al. (2015) showed DCT scenarios via a visual display and audio recordings. Computerized DCTs have gained popularity due to their ability to provide more extensive contextual information and the flexibility to evaluate a wide range of pragmatic abilities. Li (2013) and Taguchi (2013) used computer-delivered oral DCTs to measure response times, which allowed the researchers to draw inferences about students' pragmatic performance fluency.

Regarding the structure and the design of DCTs, there are two types; single turn DCTs and multiple turns DCTs. In a single-turn DCT, the participant is only required to provide one response. In contrast, a multi-turn DCT provides the participant with turns from an imaginary interlocutor, and the participant must fill in the blanks with appropriate responses (Bardovi-Harlig, Mossman & Vellenga, 2015). Another form of a multi-turn DCT is a dialogue construction task in which the participants compose a short dialogue based on a given scenario, producing turns for both parties (e.g., Martinez-Flor, 2013, as cited in Nguyen, 2019).

Multi-turn DCTs can generate extended discourse and simulate turn-taking, but they may not necessarily produce more genuine conversation compared to single-turn DCTs. In dialogue completion tasks, the responses of the interlocutors are predetermined, which differs from natural conversations where such information is not known beforehand, leading to potential differences in participants' responses (Golato, 2003).

Despite their limitations, DCTs offer certain advantages in terms of administration. They are highly controlled and can be easily administered to a large group of participants at once, allowing researchers to collect a large amount of comparable data across different participant groups. This convenience also helps to ensure the replicability of studies. For instance, Ogiermann (2009, as cited in Nguyen, 2019) utilized a DCT scenario that involved requesting lecture notes from a classmate and obtained 400 requests from speakers representing four different L1 backgrounds. Since the same DCT scenario has been used in many studies, the results can be compared across studies. Although DCT responses do not necessarily reflect what people would say in real-life situations, they can still reveal what is typical and acceptable in a specific context (Golato, 2003). Therefore,

while DCTs may not be ideal for studying genuine language use, they can be useful in answering other research questions, such as speakers' understanding of normative language use and pragmalinguistic assessment. Furthermore, written DCT responses can be appropriate for examining written genres such as emails and text messages (e.g., Ghavamnia et al., 2018). In terms of analysis, DCT allows for the comparability of data. DCT responses are typically coded for speech act strategies, which are subsequently counted for frequencies of occurrences and are compared across groups of participants (e.g., Shishavan & Sharifian, 2016, as cited in Nguyen, 2019).

Regarding pragmatic production, in the current study, data were collected through written single turn DCTs and role plays.

2.5.1.2 Pragmatic Comprehension and Perception

In comparison to pragmatic production, pragmatic comprehension and perception have not received as much attention in research. Out of 246 studies reviewed, only 54 (22%) explored these areas. Despite both being components of pragmatic competence termed in the literature *pragmatic awareness*, pragmatic comprehension and perception evaluate different constructs.

Pragmatic comprehension pertains to comprehending implied meanings, such as indirect responses, sarcasm, and humor. On the other hand, pragmatic perception concerns the assessment of the appropriateness of language usage in a specific context (Taguchi & Roever, 2017).To gather pragmatic comprehension data, multiple-choice questionnaires (MCQs) are frequently used. MCQs are also referred to as *recognition tasks* in some studies. 19 out of the 246 studies used MCQs to assess comprehension of implicatures and

routines. An MCQ item includes a situational description and a list of possible responses from which participants can choose.

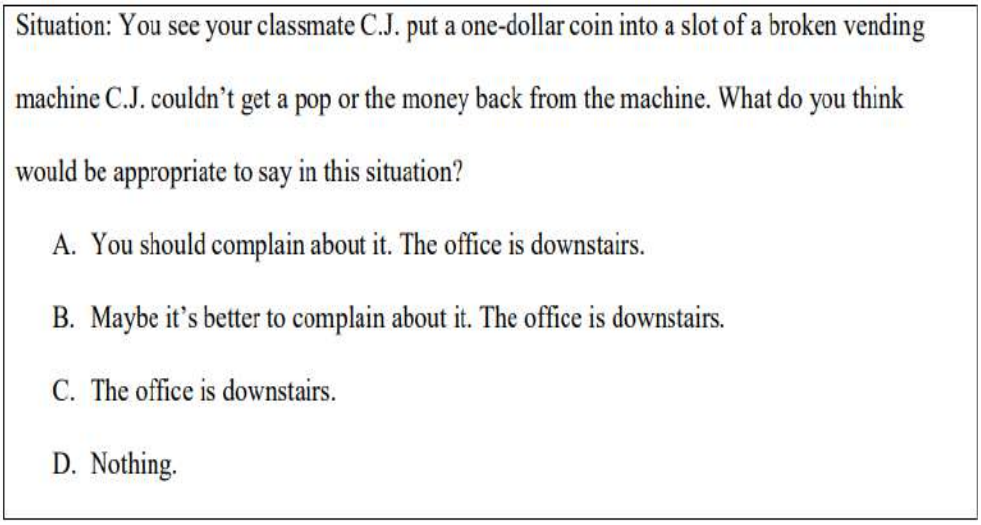
In recent times, advancements in computer technology have offered new possibilities for designing multiple-choice questionnaires (MCQs). For instance, (Taguchi et al., 2013; Taguchi et al., 2016) used computer-based MCQs to assess implicature comprehension. In their study, L2 Chinese learners were presented with audio recordings of short dialogues containing implied meanings and were required to choose the appropriate meaning from four options displayed on a computer screen. The use of audio in the presentation of dialogues allowed learners to make use of prosodic cues for interpretation. Furthermore, the computer recorded response times to examine the learners' processing fluency.

Taguchi et al. (2016) created a computer-based multiple-choice questionnaire that was modified to include video recordings of dialogues. This modification improved the authenticity of the task by incorporating linguistic and para-linguistic features, such as tones, gestures, and facial expressions that are present in real-life situations. These cues provide additional information to the learners, which can help them activate their prior knowledge and increase their processing efficiency, leading to better comprehension. The use of visual input in this modified version of the MCQ also enhances learners' ability to understand the task, as discussed in Taguchi et al. (2016).

Pragmatic perception refers to evaluating the appropriateness of language use based on the context of the interaction; researchers often employ a judgment task. Among the studies Nguyen (2019), surveyed, 26 out of 29 that focused on comprehension and perception, as well as 52 out of 81 mixed studies, used a judgment task. Such a task can

come in the form of a multiple-choice questionnaire, such as the one used in Matsumara's (2003) study, or a scaled-response questionnaire, such as the one used in Takimoto's (2009, as cited in Nguyen, 2019) study. In a multiple-choice questionnaire, participants are presented with a situational scenario and a list of expressions from which they must select the most suitable one for the situation. (An example of a sample item can be seen in Figure 5).

Figure 5 *A Sample of MCQ Item in Pragmatic Perception (adapted from Matsumura, 2003, p. 469, as cited in Nguyen, 2019)*


Situation: You see your classmate C.J. put a one-dollar coin into a slot of a broken vending machine C.J. couldn't get a pop or the money back from the machine. What do you think would be appropriate to say in this situation?

A. You should complain about it. The office is downstairs.

B. Maybe it's better to complain about it. The office is downstairs.

C. The office is downstairs.

D. Nothing.

A scaled-response questionnaire is a tool used to investigate pragmatic perception where a situational scenario is presented to participants, followed by a speech act utterance that they need to assess for appropriateness. Takimoto (2009, as cited in Nguyen, 2019) designed a scaled-response questionnaire consisting of 20 items to examine the awareness of appropriate request-making forms of L2 English learners based on different situations. Participants were given several request expressions after reading a situational description and were asked to rate their degree of appropriateness on an 11-point scale. An example of a sample item can be seen in Figure 6.

Figure 6 *A Sample of Scaled-response Questionnaire in Pragmatic Perception (adapted from Takimoto, 2009, as cited in Nguyen, 2019)*

Directions: Read each of the situations. After each situation you will be presented with three possible responses. Score the first possible response on an 11-point scale and score subsequent responses with a proportionally higher or lower number in accordance with the response's degree of acceptability.

Situation: You overslept and missed the final exam for Professor Jackson's course. You are not so familiar with Professor Jackson and you know that Professor Jackson has to hand in students' grades in a few days and does not like to offer students a make-up exam. However, you need to pass the final exam to graduate and you have decided to go and ask Professor Jackson to give you a make-up exam. What would you ask Professor Jackson?

a: *I was wondering if it would be possible for me to have a make-up exam.*

not appropriate at all 0—1—2—3—4—5—6—7—8—9—10 completely appropriate

b: *I want you to give me a make-up exam.*

not appropriate at all 0—1—2—3—4—5—6—7—8—9—10 completely appropriate

c: *Could you possibly give me a make-up exam?*

not appropriate at all 0—1—2—3—4—5—6—7—8—9—10 completely appropriate

Other appropriateness judgment tasks, evaluate both the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects of the pragmatic feature under focus. For instance, Hendriks (2010) utilized an appropriateness judgment task that considers both language use and contextual factors, native English speakers evaluated the level of politeness in various email requests made by non-native speakers using a 7-point Likert scale. They also assessed the degree of

rights and obligations involved in making and granting the request, as well as the likelihood of the recipient complying with the request.

Most researchers (Martinez-Flor, 2004; Ishihara and Cohen, 2010; Glaser, 2014, among others) insist that judgment task items be constructed based on empirical data, as reliance on the researcher's intuition alone to create response options is not recommended, and plausible options might not be effectively captured by the researcher's own judgment (Nguyen, 2019).

Concerning pragmatic awareness in the present study, data were collected through a pragmatic awareness test (PAT) that evaluates participants' comprehension and perception of the ten scenarios designed based on research-based data.

2.5.1.3 Pragmatic Decision Making

Pragmatic decision-making instruments aim to investigate the cognitive processes involved in learners' pragmatic choices, and this is one major research area in L2 pragmatics, i.e., how learners make specific pragmatic choices. Verbal reports are a method to study cognitive processes, and in the reviewed studies of (Nguyen,2019), 31 out of 29 non-production and 52 mixed studies used verbal report data. The roots of verbal reports can be traced back to cognitive psychology (Nisbett & Wilson, 1977; Tversky & Kahneman, 1973 as cited in Nguyen, 2019), where two types of reports, retrospective and introspective, have been used. The retrospective method requires participants to report on their thought processes involved in the task after completing it, while the introspective method, also known as concurrent verbal reports or think-aloud protocols, involves learners

thinking aloud about their decision-making during the task. Both methods provide insight into learners' cognitive processes, which cannot be observed solely from performance data.

In L2 pragmatics research, verbal reports are frequently utilized in conjunction with performance data to uncover how learners strategize, implement, analyze, and assess their pragmatic language usage, as evidenced by studies such as (Ren ,2014 & Taguchi et al. ,2016, as cited in Nguyen, 2019).

Woodfield (2008, as cited in Nguyen, 2019) utilized verbal reports to examine how L2 English learners engaged in a DCT and evaluated its efficacy as a data collection method. Six native English speakers were paired up to complete a DCT aimed at eliciting requests. Concurrent verbal protocols were used to elicit participants' thoughts as they worked in pairs. The participants reported facing certain challenges during the DCT exercise due to the limitations of the task. For instance, they found it challenging to write what they would normally say, and as a result, they used language that was more typical of written communication. Additionally, the demand for one-turn responses posed a challenge as it did not account for the interactive nature of discourse.

However, despite these challenges, the participants attempted to imagine the conversation that they would have with the hypothetical interlocutor, anticipating interlocutor's verbal responses to their utterances and determining what they would say in the subsequent turn. In this manner, the participants went beyond the task descriptions. These findings suggest that participants are capable of critically reflecting on the research task and recreating it in accordance with what they perceive to be more realistic. The findings also suggest that verbal reports are useful for gathering data on participants' perspectives to evaluate the validity of a research instrument.

Regarding the design of verbal report methods, the key difference between introspective and retrospective approaches is that the former captures learners' internal thinking processes in real time, while the latter relies on their recall from short-term memory, which can decay over time and result in post hoc rationalization (Gass & Mackey ,2000) suggested certain guidelines for collecting retrospective verbal report data. To ensure the validity of retrospective verbal report data, researchers should minimize the time between the task completion and the verbal report session, play back recordings of participants' task performance to refresh their memories, and focus on learners' thoughts related to their pragmatic language use during the original task rather than post hoc comments. Asking specific questions like: “What were you thinking when you said that?” “Can you tell me what you were thinking at this point?” and “What were you thinking when you said that?” can help direct learners' attention to their own thoughts during task performance.

In contrast, questions leading learners to explain their thoughts (e.g., why questions) should be avoided because these questions add to learners’ mental processes load, in turn affecting their recall or leading to post hoc rationalization (Nguyen, 2019).

There are some limitations to this method. Firstly, only conscious cognitive processes can be verbalized, while automatic and low-attention processes cannot. Therefore, tasks for verbal protocols must be appropriately chosen to match participants' cognitive abilities. It is also essential to avoid social conversation during the process or asking participants to explain their thoughts to prevent interference with their mental processes. Additionally, while some coaching may be helpful, over-demonstration could lead to informants providing expected responses rather than their genuine thoughts. Lastly,

learners should be allowed to verbalize their thoughts in their L1 to avoid affecting their short-term memory by translating from L1 to L2. Verbal reports conducted in L2 may not represent learners' thought sequences accurately, especially for those with low proficiency levels. In some L2 pragmatics studies, learners provided verbal reports in their L1 to avoid this issue, while in other studies, learners were given the option of using L1 or L2 to minimize the impact of L2 proficiency levels. (Nguyen, 2019)

2.5.1.4 Learners' Perceptions of the Pragmatics Instruction

Pragmatics instruction refers to the teaching of social and cultural aspects of language use, such as how to appropriately use language in different social situations or how to interpret and respond to nonverbal cues (Yuan, 2012). Some learners may view pragmatic instruction as less important than other aspects of language learning, such as grammar and vocabulary, but they often come to appreciate its importance as they develop their language skills (Pearson, 2006). Thus, it is "important to investigate learners' perspectives about the usefulness and attractiveness of the lesson units that teach pragmatic concepts and strategies" (Pearson, 2006, p.101). In this regard, The studies of Glaser (2014) , Pearson (2006), and Chen (2002) have all investigated learners' perceptions of pragmatic instruction in interlanguage pragmatics.

Chen (2002) investigated the attitudes of Chinese learners of English towards pragmatic instruction in the context of politeness strategies. Findings revealed that learners valued pragmatic instruction that was relevant to their cultural background and provided them with explicit instruction on how to use language in different social contexts. Learners also appreciated pragmatic instruction that was interactive and provided opportunities for them to practice using language in real-life situations.

Pearson (2006) conducted a study that investigated the attitudes of English language learners towards pragmatic instruction in the context of speech acts, such as requests and apologies. Results showed that learners had positive attitudes towards pragmatic instruction when it was interactive and involved authentic language use, such as role-playing activities. Learners also reported that they valued pragmatic instruction that appertain to their daily lives and helped them achieve their communication goals.

Yuan (2012) conducted a systematic review of 37 studies to investigate learners' attitudes towards pragmatics instruction in second language classrooms. The studies were published between 1990 and 2009, and involved both qualitative and quantitative data. The synthesis of previous studies indicates that:

First, participants recognized the importance of pragmatics instruction in enhancing their communicative competence in the target language. Second, they revealed positive attitudes towards explicit instruction which focused on the rules and conventions of language use in different contexts. They disclosed that explicit instruction helped them to understand the nuances of language use and how to communicate more effectively. Participants valued input and feedback from their teachers and peers, which helped them to improve their pragmatic competence. They had a tendency towards interactive and experiential learning activities, such as role-plays and simulations, which allowed them to practice using language in different contexts.

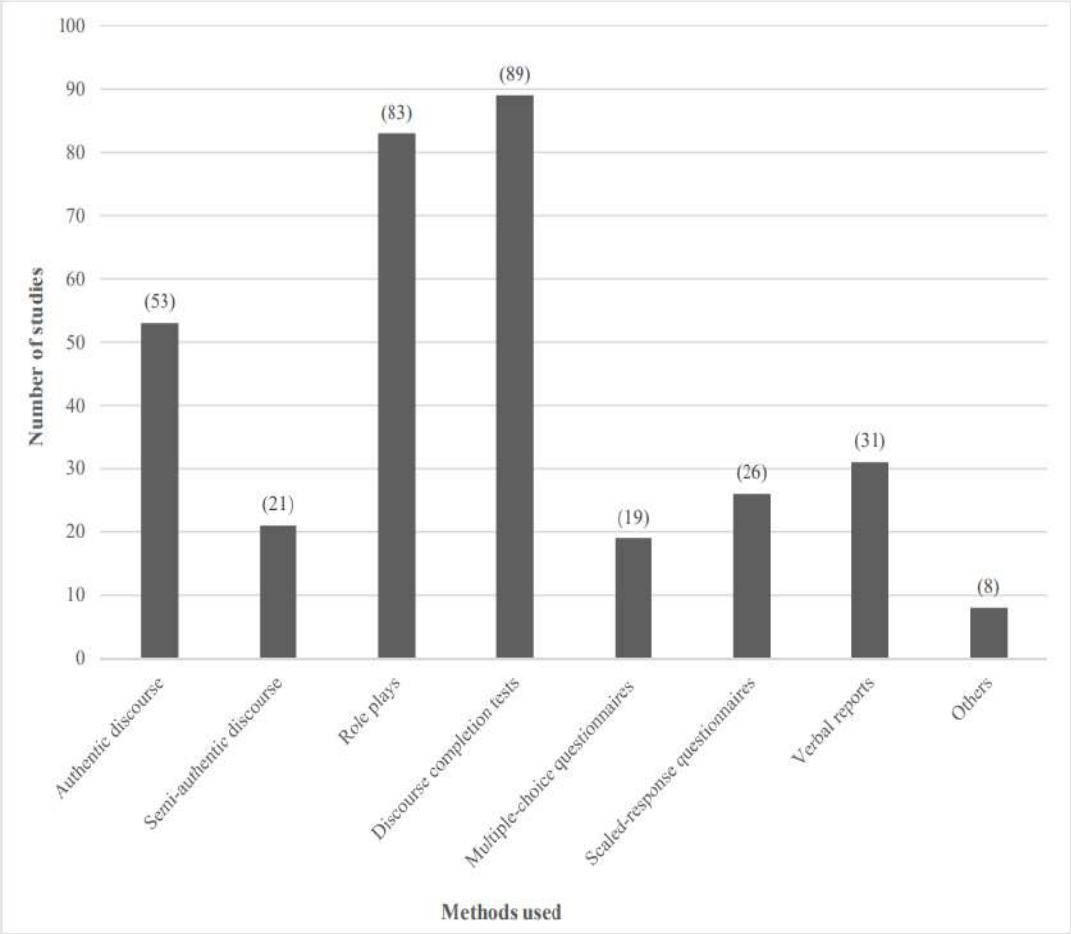
Similarly, Glaser (2014) conducted a study that investigated the attitudes of German language learners towards pragmatic instruction in the context of speech acts. The study involved two groups of EFL learners, one taught using the deductive method and the other using the inductive method. The participants were given a pre-test and post-test to measure

their pragmatic competence, which included the ability to recognize and use appropriate language in context, and they were provided with a course feedback questionnaire to elicit their perceptions towards the intervention. Results indicated that learners displayed positive perceptions of pragmatic instruction when it was well-designed and effectively delivered. Learners appreciated the pragmatic instruction that was interactive and engaging, and that provided opportunities for them to practice using language in real-life scenarios.

To sum up, in the area of L2 pragmatics research, ensuring the validity of data collection and analysis methods has always been a significant concern. The ultimate goal in any study is to make sure that these methods appropriately address its research questions. As demonstrated in this section, all methods have their pros and cons, and the choice of a method should depend on the research goals. Therefore, given that the current study's aim is to investigate the effect of the 6Rs approach on students' pragmatic competence regarding awareness and production of appropriate requests and refusals, and their perceptions of the pragmatic instruction they received, data were collected in a pre-posttests design through , written DCTs to evaluate their pragmalinguistic competence, Pragmatic awareness (judgment task) to evaluate their perception of appropriateness and their metapragmatic competence, i.e., their sociopragmatic competence . To evaluate their interactional skills and their ostensive communication, data also were collected through role plays. Moreover, to complement the speech production data with affective learner data on the usefulness of the instruction as well as their awareness of and perceptions of the pragmatic aspects, as it is a neglected area in ILP research (Glaser, 2014), the study used a course feedback questionnaire. As each data collection method has its pros and cons, "triangulation of data sources is desirable to enhance the validity" of the study (Nguyen,

2019). Ultimately, the distribution of data collection methods used in 246 studies from 1979 to 2017 are displayed in figure 7.

Figure 7 *Distribution of Data Collection Methods (Source: Nguyen, 2019, p.35)*



2.6 Studies Dealing with Pragmatics in Second and Foreign Classrooms

As mentioned previously, the classroom is an important context that offers opportunities for developing learners' pragmatic competence. Kasper (2001) differentiates between two types of research, in an effort to describe the research related to pragmatic features of the target language in a second or foreign-language classroom setting, namely observational and interventional studies.

2.6.1 Observational Studies

Observational studies in pragmatics aim to analyze the processes that take place in the classroom by describing any aspects that may influence the acquisition of pragmatic ability (Martinez,2006). These studies can be either non-developmental or developmental, focusing on language use or pragmatic development, respectively (Kasper, 2001). According to Martinez (2006), "The main purpose of this type of study, then, involves the analysis of the processes that take place in the classroom by describing in detail any aspects that may influence the acquisition of pragmatics, such as teacher input, chances for productive practice in collaborative activities or observation of learners' development of pragmatic ability over time" (p.154).

2.6.2 Interventional Studies

Interventional studies, which are also known as experimental studies, involve manipulating an independent variable to observe its effects on a dependent variable (Martinez-Flor, 2006). In the context of second language acquisition, interventional studies have been used to investigate the effectiveness of different instructional interventions on the development of pragmatic competence in learners of English as a foreign language. Some of these types of studies was mentioned previously in the types of instructional approaches and designs employed in ILP research. However, further research is necessary to determine the generalizability of these findings to other contexts and populations, as well as to explore the potential of other types of instructional interventions and technology for promoting pragmatic development. These types are summarized in (Kasper and Rose, 2002 for more details).

2.7 Previous Related Studies

This section is devoted to reviewing quondam research about the use of instructional frameworks to develop learners' pragmatic competence along with their findings. At the end of this section, the research needs to be identified in the literature, and gaps determined along with the contribution of the current piece of research to the ILP field will be clearly stated.

Martinez Flor and Usó-Juan (2004) carried out research to investigate the effects of explicit and implicit instruction on the development of EFL learners' pragmatic competence by focusing on suggestion as a speech act. Data were collected through oral production tests, written production tests, and rating assessment tests. The research sample comprised 81 students who were assigned into two experimental groups and one control group. The first experimental group received an explicit instruction, and the second one was taught using the implicit instruction. However, the control group did not undertake any treatment. The process of allocating the research participants into different groups aimed at ascertaining whether the two treatments were equally efficient in fostering learners' pragmatic competence with regard to their oral production, pragmatic awareness and written production. The findings indicated that both instructions were effective in improving students' ability to produce pragmatically appropriate suggestions.

Duan (2008) adopted a pre-test post-test quasi-experimental design to examine the effects of explicit and implicit instruction on the appropriateness of English refusals. The purpose of this research was threefold. First, it aimed at comparing the effectiveness of both instructions on learners' ability to generate appropriate English refusals. Second, the researcher attempted to elicit students' attitudes toward the whole course. Third, the

instructional foci of this study are as follows: refusals to invitations, refusals to suggestions, refusals to offers, and refusals to requests. The research sample includes 58 participants. Twenty-nine students were assigned to the implicit group, while the remaining students were assigned to the explicit group. Data were gathered using written DCTs and written self-reports. The findings disclosed that explicit instruction was better than implicit one. Moreover, the explicit group outperformed the implicit one regarding their performance in refusals to invitations and requests. Ultimately, the research partakers displayed positive attitudes towards the course.

In 2009, Schauer conducted research to investigate how study-abroad learners can develop their pragmatic competence in the British L2 environment and determine the extent to which learners' pragmatic awareness and grammatical infelicities are intertwined. Data were collected through video and questionnaire tasks, semi-structured interviews and multimedia-elicitation task. Seventy-one participants took part in this research. They were divided into two categories: study abroad learners and at home learners. It was carried out over a period of 2 years. The results showed that the study-abroad learners improved their awareness of pragmatic and grammatical infelicities after spending a nine-month sojourn at a British University. Moreover, it was found that the study-abroad learners identified more pragmatic infelicities than the at-home learners. The results also indicated that the study-abroad learners were able to develop a larger pragmatic repertoire when compared to at-home learners.

Glaser (2014) attempted to compare the effectiveness of deductive and inductive instruction in developing EFL learners' pragmatic competence by focusing on the speech acts of disagreeing and refusing an offer. The research partakers were 49 students of

English at a German University. They were divided into two groups. The deductive group contained 24 learners, while the inductive group comprised 25 learners. Data were gathered by means of DCTs, role plays, reflective essays, and course feedback questionnaires. The findings indicated that deductive instruction is more effective when it comes to teaching the speech act of disagreement, whereas inductive instruction is more efficient for teaching refusals. Moreover, the research participants revealed positive attitudes towards the course, as they perceived it as intriguing and pertinent.

Shirinbakhsh, Rasekh and Tavakoli (2016) conducted research to compare the impact of the 6 Rs metapragmatic instruction and the input-based practice on TEFL learners' pragmatic accuracy and speed in the oral production of English refusals. One hundred fifteen (115) TEFL students at Sheikh Bahaee University in Iran were divided into three different groups. They were taught using metapragmatic instruction (6Rs approach) and input-based instruction (ACT-R approach). Pragmatic listening judgment task and oral discourse completion task were used as data-gathering tools to examine the pragmatic accuracy and speed of students' refusals. The results demonstrated that the 6Rs approach had an impact on learners' pragmatic accuracy, whereas the ACT-R-based instruction had an impact on their pragmatic speed. Thus, this research ascertains the effectiveness of both the 6 Rs approach and the ACT-R approach in fostering TEFL learners' pragmatic speed and accuracy.

Katchamat (2018) conducted an experimental study to investigate the effects of flipped classroom instruction on the appropriateness of English apologies among Thai EFL learners. The researcher employed DCTs as pre and post-tests. The answers of the DCTs were assessed based on the four aspects of appropriacy, namely quality of information,

quantity of information, choice of strategies, and level of formality. The research sample consisted of 50 Thai EFL learners at a university in Thailand. The participants were assigned to the experimental and control groups. The experimental group was taught using flipped classroom instruction, while the control group received a traditional classroom instruction. Findings revealed that the flipped classroom had a positive impact on the appropriacy of English apologies. The aspects of appropriacy were ranged as follows: quality of information, correct expressions, level of formality, and choice of strategies. Thus, the EG members demonstrated better usage of politeness marker, appropriate expressions of remorse, and cultural sensitivity in their apology production.

Khalid et al. (2022) conducted a study that aimed at investigating the pragmatic competence of Pakistani ESL learners with regard to English Refusals. It also aimed at identifying the challenges encountered by these learners while producing appropriate refusals, adopting a quasi-experimental design. The research sample consisted of 30 Pakistani ESL learners. They were selected based on their willingness to participate and their general English proficiency level. Semi-structured interviews, classroom observation and discourse completion tasks were used as data gathering tools. The results indicated that Pakistani ESL learners faced various challenges while producing appropriate refusals in English. These challenges included difficulties in understanding the underlying cultural norms and pragmatic conventions associated with refusals in English-speaking contexts.

Drawing on the findings of previous research, it is lucid that there is a need for further research. Thus, the current study aims to contribute to the increasing body of research, particularly, instructional effectiveness in acquisitional ILP owing to the gaps identified in the literature.

Firstly, Previous studies (Duan, 2008; Flor, 2004; Glaser, 2014; Schauer,2009) attempted to investigate the effectiveness of their instructional treatments by focusing on either written production, oral production or pragmatic awareness; however, the present study aims at determining the effectiveness of the 6Rs approach with regard to oral production, written production and pragmatic awareness. Moreover, the current study is carried out with a large sample size (102 EFL students) when compared to previous studies (Duan, 2008; Flor, 2004; Glaser, 2014) that were limited to a small sample size (between 49 to 81 research participants).

Most of the studies which examined refusal speech act focused only on one stimulus type. Until now, few research has been conducted that employs different types of stimuli for refusals. A study by Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz in 1990 categorized four types of refusal stimuli based on the status of the person refusing in different situations. These four types are refusals of invitations, suggestions, offers, and requests, and the status of the person refusing is classified as low, equal, or high. This classification system has served as a model for subsequent researchers to adopt. Thus, the current study focuses on the four stimuli, namely suggestions, refusals, invitations, and requests.

One major weakness in L2 pragmatics research is the lack of variation in data collection methods. Many researchers have relied on a single method of data collection in their studies, which limits the scope and validity of their findings. This problem has been well-documented, as the data elicitation technique used in a study can have a significant impact on the results obtained. Thus, to ensure methodological rigor in ILP research and enhance data quality and quantity, a combination of data collection procedures is necessary (Glaser, 2014). This approach is commonly known as a multi-method approach or

triangulation, as referenced by scholars such as Cohen (2004) and Takahashi (2010). Thus, the present investigation collects data through DCTs Discourse Completion Tasks , Role Plays, Pragmatic Awareness Test, and a Course Feedback Questionnaire CFQ, to ensure " (i) the degree of control that the researcher has over the elicitation process; (ii) the degree to which the data reflects authentic interaction; and (iii) whether the data focuses on linguistic output, i.e. production, or is concerned with language perception or metalanguage", in addition to learners' perceptions of the instruction (Geluykens, 2007 as cited in Glaser, 2014)

The majority of acquisitional ILP studies (Martinez-Flor, 2004; Duan, 2008; Glaser, 2014, among others) are grounded in the *Noticing Hypothesis*, and the *Two Dimensional Model* (Schmidt, 1993; Bialystok, 1993), i.e., "a cognitive-pragmatic approach" . However, De-Paiva (2010) states that frequency in the input is not enough to make learners notice the features, i.e., salience seems to be related to the content of learners' cognitive representations and what is missing in Bialystok's model is an account of inferencing processes. On the other hand, she suggests that "inferential mechanisms of Relevance Theory can account for the processes of communicative interaction and thus can complement such information-processing accounts through the notions of 'manifestness' and the balance between 'effort' and 'effect'". (De-Paiva, 2010). Consequently, there is a need for further research that combines the three theoretical frameworks in a multi-model approach to account for the rich diversity of pragmatic development in second language acquisition. Thus the current study adopts this complex theoretical structure in De-paiva and Foster-Cohen's (2003) terms and examines instructional effectiveness of the 6 Rs approach at the discourse level.

Additionally, the ultimate aim of previous studies (Duan, 2008; Flor, 2004; Glaser, 2014) was to examine the effects of a given teaching approach (explicit/implicit; inductive/deductive), on developing learners' pragmatic competence; however, the current probe aims at investigating the effectiveness of the 6 Rs approach as a comprehensive pedagogical framework that adopts the explicit inductive instructional design in fostering EFL students' pragmatic competence and eliciting the research partakers' perceptions of the course. To the all-inclusive knowledge of the researcher, no study to date has examined the effects of integrating the 6 Rs approach on fostering EFL learners' pragmatic competence by focusing on requests and refusals in the Algerian context. Hence, the study examines the impact of the 6 Rs approach which is based on an explicit-inductive teaching design and adopts a multi-model theoretical framework that combines noticing, cognition and communication on instructed students' development of requests and refusals of offers, invitations, requests, suggestions.

Conclusion

This chapter dealt with pragmatics and language teaching by providing an intricate overview about pragmatic theoretical approaches in ILP, types of pragmatics instruction, pedagogical frameworks used to teach pragmatics along with a detailed explanation of the 6Rs Approach; a comprehensive pedagogical framework to teach requests and refusals. Then, research on pragmatics in both second a foreign language classrooms and data elicitation techniques in the ILP field were presented. The ensuing chapter is devoted to the research methodology followed by the researcher to conduct the current research.

Chapter Three

Research Methodology

Chapter Three

Research Methodology

Introduction 198

3.1 Research Questions 198

3.2 Research Hypotheses 199

3.3 Research Design 200

3.3.1 Experimental Design 201

3.4 Internal Validity 204

3.5 External Validity 206

3.6 Triangulation Design 207

3.7 Case Study 208

3.8 Research Locale 209

3.9 Research Population 209

3.10 Sample and Sampling Technique 210

3.10.1 Sampling Criteria 211

3.11 Research Participants 211

3.11.1 Participants in Exploratory Phase 212

3.11.2 Participants in Pre-experimental Phase 212

3.11.3 Participants in Experimental Phase 213

3.11.4 Participants in Post-experimental Phase 213

3.12 Research Instruments 213

3.12.1 Pearson Placement Test 213

3.12.2 Discourse Completion Task 214

3.12.3 Role Plays 216

3.12.4 Pragmatic Awareness Test 218

3.12.5 Course Feedback Questionnaire 220

3.13 Pilot Testing of Research Instruments 221

3.14 Instructional Treatment 222

3.15 Methods of Data Analysis 229

3.16 Ethical Issues and Considerations 232

Conclusion 234

Chapter Three

Research Methodology

Introduction

Research cannot be conducted without a predefined research methodology that explains data nature and determines data processing methods leading to appropriate conclusions (Leedy ,1993). Deciding on a methodology involves deciding which type of information will best be able to address your research hypothesis. In order to do so, a clear understanding of research variables, experimental design, and differences between types of hypotheses will be necessary (Gonzalez-Marquez, B. Becker, & E. Cutting, 2007). This chapter outlines the methodology plan adopted including research design, population and sampling, data collection instruments, procedures, treatment materials, methods of data analysis,and ethical issues.

3.1 Research Questions

Research questions are reviewed again in this section to help justifying the research methodology followed in this study.

1. What are the effects of the 6 Rs approach on Algerian License and Master I students of English pragmatic competence as regards awareness of appropriate requests and refusals?

2. What are the effects of the 6 Rs approach on Algerian License and Master students of English pragmatic competence as regards oral and written production of requests and refusals?

3. What are License and Master I students' perceptions of the pragmatics instruction at the end of the intervention?

3.2 Research Hypotheses

Based on the aims of the current research, the following research hypotheses are to be tested:

Hypothesis 1

The 6 Rs approach will significantly improve Algerian License students of English pragmatic competence as regards oral and written production of requests and refusals.

Null Hypothesis 1

The 6 Rs approach will not improve Algerian License students of English pragmatic competence as regards oral and written production of requests and refusals.

Hypothesis 2

The 6 Rs approach will significantly improve Algerian MA students of English pragmatic competence as regards oral and written production of requests and refusals

Null Hypothesis 2

The 6 Rs approach will not improve Algerian MA students of English pragmatic competence as regards oral and written production of requests and refusals.

Hypothesis 3

The 6 Rs approach will significantly improve Algerian License students of English pragmatic competence as regards awareness of appropriate requests and refusals.

Null Hypothesis 3

The 6 Rs approach will not improve Algerian License students of English pragmatic competence as regards awareness of appropriate requests and refusals.

Hypothesis 4

The 6 Rs approach will significantly improve Algerian MA students of English pragmatic competence as regards awareness of appropriate requests and refusals.

Null Hypothesis 4

The 6 Rs approach will not improve Algerian MA students of English pragmatic competence as regards awareness of appropriate requests and refusals

3.3 Research Design

Research design is the guiding framework of any study. As Mouton (1996) states, "research design is a set of guidelines followed by the researcher in trying to answer the research problem'' (p.107). In other words, it is a detailed outline that the researcher relies on to conduct his/her study. According to Kumar (2018):

> For any investigation, the selection of an appropriate research design is crucial in enabling you to arrive at valid findings, comparisons and conclusions. A faulty design results in misleading findings and is therefore tantamount to wasting human and financial resources. In scientific circles, the strength of an empirical investigation is primarily evaluated in the light of the research design adopted. When selecting research design, it is important to ensure that it is valid, workable and manageable (p.41)

Similarly,Henning,Van Rensburg and Smit (2004) add that it describes the establishment of the study and provides an idea about how the findings will bepresented to public. Therefore, research design is a blueprint or a detailed plan used toconduct a study. In order to achieve the main aim of the current study, which is to test the effect of the 6 Rs approach on EFL students' pragmatic competence, the researcher used a hybrid experimental design as follows:

- **Case Study Design**
- **Quasi-experimental Design**
- **Triangulation Design**

Overall, the current investigation adopts a case study design because it addresses a unique case represented in MA and License students of English at Mohammed Lamine Debaghine-Sétif 2- University. Moreover, the variables of research have a cause-effect relationship demonstrated in the effects of the 6 Rs approach on developing students 'pragmatic competence, which entails that the research design is experimental in nature. Ultimately, the type of approach used in data collection is a mixed-methods approach, which merges both quantitative and qualitative data gathering tools. Hence, the present research is an experimental case study with a mixed-methods approach.

3.3.1 Experimental Design

Experimental designs aim at investigating a cause-effect relationship between independent and dependent variables. In this regard, Leedy & Ormod (2010) define experimental research as "a study in which research participants are randomly assigned to groups that undergo various researcher-imposed treatments or interviews, followed by observations or measurements to assess the effects of the treatments" (p.108). Moreover, Lodico, Spaulding and Voegtle (2006) argue that in the experimental design, "the researcher controls or manipulates one or more independent variables and examines the effect that the experimental manipulation has on the dependent variable" (p.178).

Experimental design comprises four types: true experimental, quasi-experimental, factorial design, and the ex-post facto design. True-experimental and quasi-experimental are the most common types in practice, and in this study only true

experimental and quasi-experimental are reviewed. Both designs require "treatment manipulation, but while true experiments also require random assignment, quasi experiments do not" (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p.83). In this respect, the quasi- experimental designs are mostly used in educational settings in which random assignment of subjects is neither possible nor practical. Supporting this claim, Seliger & Shohamy (1989) argue that "in real world in which schools and classes exist…. language programme administrators are generally unwilling to disturb their ongoing programmes and allow reorganization of classes in order to randomize the assignment of subjects into different experimental groups" (p.148). Therefore, the term ―quasi- experiment, also referred to as "field-experiment and in-situ experiment (Leedy & Ormord, 2010), is used to indicate studies in which experimental procedures are employed but with no complete control of the conditions of the experiment in terms of randomization.

For the current study, randomization is not feasible due to the pre-existing classes designed administratively, and the quasi-experimental design, with its non- random allocation of participants into groups, is more practical. The main advantage of quasi-experimental design is its likelihood to have more external validity because it is conducted under conditions closer to those normally found in educational contexts (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989, p.149). External validity is defined as the population, settings, treatment variables and measurement variables to which can the effect of the experiment be generalized (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). However, the major outcome of the absence of randomization, in quasi experiments, is the threat to the research's internal validity, which is defined as "the degree to which the design of an experiment controls extraneous variables" (Borg, Gall & Gall, 1993, p.1024). The challenging task for this research is, therefore, to

control both the personal variables such as gender, learning styles, learning strategies, learning anxiety, learning motivation and extraneous variables such as maturation, instrumentation and morality. All the probable personal and extraneous variables are neutralized in both EGs and CGs in order to establish research internal validity.

The fact that the present study is conducted in an institutional environment, and that the students are assigned to groups with different schedules, made it impossible to take the whole population as a sample, or to randomly select a sample and randomly assign its members to the experimental and control group neither for master students (MA) nor for bachelor of art students (License). This led to the choice of a quasi- experimental design through the random choice of four intact groups to be the experimental groups and the control groups. The quasi-experiment is represented as follows:

Figure 8 *Pre-test/Post-test Non-equivalent Group Design (Cohen et al.,2007, p.283)*

As figure 8 displays, O1 refers to the pre-test which is administered prior to conducting the experiment, while O2 stands for the post-test and X represents the treatment. For the current study, the treatment was done through the integration of the 6Rs approach to measure its effects on fostering MA and License students' pragmatic competence.

Table 14

Pre-/Post-test Quasi-Experimental Design

Measurement	**Treatment**	**Measurement**
DV	IV	DV
Measure students'pragmatic competence and awareness	Research partakers received a twelve-session treatment	Measure students' pragmatic Competence and awareness
DCTs, pragmatic awareness test and role plays	Instructional treatment	DCTs, pragmatic awareness test and role plays

3.4 Internal Validity

The salient demerit of a quasi-experimental design with a non-random sampling technique is the threat to the research internal validity. As to Borg et al. (1993), internal validity is "the degree to which the design of an experiment controls extraneous variables" (p.1024). It is related to the extent to which the discernible differences observed on the dependent variable appertain solely to the independent variable and not to any other variables (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2011). A research design is deemed as internally valid if the extraneous variables have been fully addressed and controlled. Thus, the main threats to internal validity (Mills &Gay, 2019) along with the measures undertaken by the researcher to control them are presented infra:

- **History:** It is a threat that emerges during the treatment phase due to research participants' exposure to other factors that might engender the effect rather than the treatment. As for the current study, the time span between the administration of the pre-test and post-test was

truncated in order to control this variable.

- **Maturation:** it pertains to the physiological and psychological developments that participants may undergo during the treatment period. Hence, to mitigate the effect of maturation, the experiment is conducted over a period of twelve weeks, which is considered as a short time span for participants to mature to an extent that might affect the dependent variable.
- **Testing:** this threat appears if the time interval between administering identical pre and post-tests is short, as this might affect participants' performance in the post-test. In the current research, the research instruments were deployed as pre and post-tests. Moreover, the time interval between the administration of the pre-tests and post-tests was long (3 months)
- **Instrumentation:** it is a threat that occurs when the pre-test and the post-test are not congruent and unequally difficult, or when the conditions under which the research was carried out are different. For the current study, the researcher administered identical pre and post-tests under the same conditions.
- **Deferential Selection of Participants:** it deals with the differences that might be found between the CG and EG prior to implementing the treatment. In the present research, a language proficiency test was administered to both the EGs and CGs members in the pre-experimental phase to guarantee that the groups are relatively homogeneous insofar as their English language proficiency level is concerned. The results indicated that the proficiency level of the research participants ranges between intermediate (B1) and upper-intermediate (B2) levels.

- **Diffusion of the Treatment:** this threat occurs when the EG members divulge the nature and the content of the treatment to the CG members. For this reason, the EG participants were asked not to impart what they learned during the treatment phase to the CG members for research purposes. Moreover, in order to rule out this threat, the researcher decided to set a one-week interval between the administration of the pre-tests and post-tests to the CGs participants.
- **Mortality:** this threat emerges when the research partakers drop out of the research. It is, thus, difficult for the researcher to control such a variable, as it is ascribed to participants' personal decisions on whether to carry on or to withdraw at any stage of the research. Hence, in the present research, the dropouts from the experimental and control groups were weeded out.

3.5 External Validity

According to Phakiti (2014), external validity is related to the extent to which the research results can be generalized across people, settings and time. Research is externally valid when the research sample is representative of the population from which it was drawn. Hence, the threats to the external validity of the current research along with the measures taken to rule them out are presented infra:

- **Testing Interaction**

Testing interactions refer to the effect of taking a pre-test on participants' performance on the post-test (Jaccard & Turrisi, 2003). When participants take a pre-test, they may become more acquainted with the test and may perform better on the post-test, not because of the treatment, but due to their previous exposure to the test (Jha, 2004). To weed out this threat, a 12-week gap was implemented between the pre-test and post-test in

this study, as the participants were given time to forget the items of the test. The pre-test was conducted at the beginning of the study, and the delay in testing aimed to guarantee that the post-test responses were not affected by the pre-test.

- **Interactive Effects of Selection and Treatment**

Randomization is an effective strategy for addressing various threats to both internal and external validity in research. However, many researchers fail to employ randomization while selecting participants, which can lead to a non-representative sample and may serve a threat to external validity (Jha, 2014). In this study, it was not possible to use randomization due to the pre-existing administrative classes, and the research sample was conveniently selected. Thus, the results of this study cannot be generalized to the entire population.

- **Demand Characteristics**

In research, demand characteristics are hints in the experimental setting that communicate the researcher's hypothesis to the participants (Jha, 2014). These cues, as Jha (2014) explains, may cause participants to change their demeanor accordingly, resulting in altered behavior that does not accurately represent their typical conduct and biased results that cannot be applied to the entire population. To mitigate this threat, the researcher tried to minimize the presence of cues that may disclose the research aims.

3.6 Triangulation Design

Triangulation refers to the process of approaching the research problem from different angles to "map out, or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standpoint" (Cohen et al., 2000, p. 254). It aims at buttressing the validity of the research results by combining qualitative and

quantitative data collection tools since the sole reliance on one research method may not be ample to address the research problem adequately (Cresswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The rationale behind using this design is that "it offers a potentially more comprehensive means of legitimizing findings than do either QUAL, or QUAN methods alone by allowing investigators to assess information from both types" (Dornyei, 2007, p.219). In this regard, Janesick (1994) identified five types of triangulations: data source, investigator, methodological, theoretical, and analysis triangulation. The types of triangulations being used in this research are data source and methodological triangulation. Insofar as data source triangulation is concerned, both quantitative (DCTs, CFQ and awareness test) and qualitative tools (role plays) were used to gain breadth understanding of the research topic and obtain "different but complementary data on the same topic" (Morse, 1991, p.122). As per the methodological triangulation, the researcher opted for a mixed-methods approach by combining both qualitative and quantitative data.

3.7 Case Study

The current probe embodies a case study design. As to Yin (1994), a case study is "an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context ''(p.13). Researchers, as a result, opt for case-based research to examine a given research problem within its real-life context using multiple evidence sources.

Accordingly, Denscombe (2010) argues that 'the starting point and arguably the defining characteristic of the case study approach is its focus on just one instance of the thing that is to be investigated'' (p.52). Besides, this type of research is not restricted by a particular research method. Instead, it enables the researcher to have a thorough understanding of the research problem under scrutiny regardless of the deployed research

method (Henning et al., 2004).

Case studies comprise two types: single site and multiple sites. Single site case studies investigate a specific phenomenon within a sole setting; however, multiple site case studies examine the same phenomenon in different settings. The results are, then, compared among participants from several contexts. Hence, the current research is a single-site case study about the use of the 6 Rs approach to foster students 'pragmatic competence by taking MA and License students of English as a case in point. This enables the researcher to save time, reduce financial costs and have direct access to the research sample, as she is considered as an insider to the research setting.

3.8 Research Locale

The current research is conducted in the Department of English Language and Literature at Mohamed Lamine Debaghine -Sétif 2- University during the academic year 2018-2019.

3.9 Research Population

Hanlon and Larget (2011) defined research population as "all the individuals or units of interest" (p.5). In the present study, MA and License students, enrolled in the Department of English Language and Literature at Mohamed Lamine Debaghine- Sétif 2- University, represent the target population. The choice of this population was based on a set of rationales. First, the current probe aims at gauging the effects of the 6 Rs approach on developing students 'pragmatic competence. Thus, MA and License students of English serve as the target population because scant attention was rendered to pragmatics during their three years at the University. Second, despite the fact that they were introduced to the notion of Pragmatics during their first year at the Master level, the research participants

revealed that they have a lack of practical pragmatic knowledge which, in turn, averted them from designing a pragmatically-focused lesson plan. Furthermore, at the preliminary stage, they ascribed the fact of having little to no practical pragmatic knowledge to the theoretical nature of the lectures they received, which denotes that the concept of instructional pragmatics is under-represented. Lastly, the researcher, a pragmatics teacher in the English department at Mohamed Lamine Debaghine University in which the research was conducted, had easy access to the research partakers.

3.10 Sample and Sampling Technique

The process of drawing the representative sample out of the whole population is deemed as a primordial condition for research to be conducted. A sample is, then, a small subset of the population that has been chosen to be studied (Lunsford & Lunsford, 1995, p.105). In other words, a sample refers to a set of research partakers who are selected by dint of a specific sampling technique.

Sampling techniques are twofold: probability (random) sampling techniques and non-probability (non-random) sampling techniques. The latter encompasses the following types: quota sampling, convenience sampling, purposive sampling, and snowball sampling. Convenience sampling is also referred to as "accidental sampling". It is a sampling technique by which participants are selected on a voluntary basis; it involves choosing the nearest individuals as respondents and continuing that process until the required sample size has been obtained of those who happen to be available and accessible at the time" (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018, p.218).

Although convenience sampling precludes the generalizability of the results to the entire population, it was deployed in the current study because the one hundred two (102)

research partakers were the only easy-to-reach participants who disclosed their willingness and readiness to participate. Moreover, and as stated earlier, the random selection of participants into control and experimental groups was impossible due to the pre- existing classes designed administratively. Thereby, the sample of this study consists of 48 MA students and 54 License students at Sétif 2 University.

3.10.1Sampling Criteria

a) Inclusion Criteria

- MA and License students of English at Mohamed Lamine Debaghine University werechosen as the target population during the academic year 2018/2019.

b)Exclusion Criteria

The researcher opted for the following exclusion criteria:

- Research participants who did not complete their tests: DCT, pragmatic awarenesstest, role plays and course feedback questionnaire were excluded.
- Participants from the EG, who were absent during the treatment phase, were eliminated.

3.11 Research Participants

The contribution of numerous participants is crucial to achieve different research aims. In the current research, the 102 research participants, who were assigned different roles throughout the four phases of the study, were divided into experimental and control groups.

Table 15

The Number of MA Students in the Experimental and Control groups

Groups	Research Participants
Control Group	**21**
Experimental Group	**27**
Total	**48**

Table 16

The Number of License Students in the Experimental and Control groups

Groups	Research Participants
Control Group	**27**
Experimental Group	**27**
Total	**54**

3.11.1 Participants in Exploratory Phase

In the ultimate quest of ascertaining the existence of the research problem within the target population, ninety Master TEFL students were required to design a pragmatically focused lesson plan about a specific pragmatic feature, with an aim of examining their ability to translate their theoretical pragmatic knowledge into a practical lesson plan. They were also asked to reflect on their strengths and weaknesses as regards pragmatics. Furthermore, an informal discussion was held with four teaching methodology teachers about the content they teach for their students.

3.11.2 Participants in Pre-experimental Phase

At the pre-experimental stage, fifty-three participants were assigned to the experimental groups, while forty-eight participants were assigned to the control groups. In

this phase, a language proficiency test was administered to the EGs and CGs members to gauge their English language proficiency level.

3.11.3 Participants in Experimental Phase

It is worth mentioning at this juncture that the ultimate aim of the currentprobe is to investigate the effects of the 6Rs approach on developing students 'pragmatic competence. Therefore, participants of the EG took part in the experiment by attending a twelve-session treatment.

3.11.4 Participants in Post-experimental Phase

After the experimental phase, the participants of both the EG and the CG sat for the post-test. Then, only fifty-three participants from the EG answered the Course-Feedback Questionnaire (CFQ) to elicit their evaluative attitudes towards the course.

3.12 Research Instruments

3.12.1 Pearson Placement Test

In order to determine the proficiency level of the research participants, Pearson placement test A was administered prior to starting the experiment. The incentive behind using the placement test is twofold. First, it was deployed to ensure that the instructional treatment is tailored to the general English proficiency level of the research sample. Second, the placement test was used to guarantee that the EG and CG are homogeneous insofar as their general English level is concerned. Accordingly, the researcher deployed Pearson placement test to gauge the research participants' proficiency level (cf. appendix F).

Pearson placement test comprises 80 multiple-choice questions. The test takers are required to complete it within 30 minutes and write their answers on a separate answer sheet. They earn 1 point for each correct answer. The researcher relied on the answer key to

correct the placement test.

3.12.2 Discourse Completion Task

Discourse Completion Task (DCT, henceforth) was first developed by Levenston and Blum- Kulka (1972) as a data gathering tool in Interlanguage and Cross-Cultural Pragmatics. As to Kasper and Dahl (1991), DCTs are "…written questionnaires including a number of brief situational descriptions, followed by a short dialogue with an empty slot for the speech act under study. Subjects are asked to fill in a response which they think fits the given context" (p.9). The written DCT is easy to administer, and it enables the researcher to gather a large amount of data in a short span of time (Yuan, as stated in Glaser, 2014). It encompasses two types: close-ended DCTs and open-ended DCTs. In the current investigation, the close-ended DCTs were employed to measure the research partakers' written production at the beginning and at the end of the intervention and to assess their pragmalinguistic competence. The DCTs comprised twenty-two situations of requests and refusals. It encompassed nine requests, five refusals to invitation, three refusals to offer, two refusals to suggestion, and three refusals to request. The research participants were, thus, asked to write down their responses, as they would generate them verbally in real situations (cf. appendix A). The answers were, then, compared to the written DCTs of native speakers and NS norms found in the literature (cf. Appendix B).

Table 17

Classification of Each Situation in DCTs According to Sociolinguistic Variations

Situations	Participants	Social Status	Social distance
1	Student-student	S=H	-
2	Student-professor	S<H	0
3	Lecturer-student	S >H	0
4	Student-professor	S<H	0
5	Friend-Friend	S=H	+
6	Lecturer-student	S >H	-
7	Friend-friend	S =H	+
8	Student-friend	S=H	+
9	Student-student	S=H	+
10	Manager-staff member	S>H	0
11	Student-professor	S<H	0
12	Student-student	S=H	-
13	Employee-employer	S<H	0
14	Student-professor	S<H	0
15	Student-student	S=H	-
16	Employee-employer	S<H	0
17	Student-professor	S <H	0
18	Classmate-classmate	S =H	0
19	Student-relative	S=H	+
20	Roommate-roommate	S=H	+
21	Teacher-student	S>H	0
22	Language teacher-student	S>H	0

Note. > = Higher ; = Equal ; <= Lower S = Speaker ; H = Hearer
Social distance (+ = close; - = stranger ; 0 = acquaintance)

3.12.3 Role Plays

Role-play is considered as a data-gathering tool that allows the researcher to elicit oral data in the field of pragmatics. According to Crookall and Saunders (1989), a role play is ‘‘a social . . . activity in which participants take on and act out ‘specified roles, ‘often within a predefined social framework or situational blueprint (a scenario’)’’ (p. 15). In other words, a role play is deemed as a qualitative research tool that renders participants with an intricate description of a situation they are asked to perform. In addition, ‘role plays produce actual spoken language and are thus well-suited to elicit features specific to oral interactive discourse such as turn-taking, speaker-listener coordination, hesitation and para/non-verbal elements ‘‘(Kasper & Rose, 2002, p. 89). Role-plays encompass two types: open role-plays and closed role-plays. The open role-play focuses on the turn-taking mechanism between interlocutors, which engenders the production of oral data; however, in the closed role-play, participants have little to no interaction/negotiation opportunities, as it comprises two turns. The role-play conductor performs the first turn, while the interlocutor conducts the second one (Kasper & Rose, 2002).

Aside from stating the definition and types of role-plays, it is also pivotal to discuss the potencies of this research method. The most salient advantage of role-plays is that they enable the researcher to descry how students’ use of pragmalinguistic expressions may vary according to the socio-pragmatic factors such as degree of imposition, power, and social distance (Brown &Levinson, 1987). Furthermore, role-plays allow the researcher to scrutinize both the content and the discourse features of an utterance, as they generate oral data that reflect real-life performance. Similarly, Félix- Brasdefer (2010, as cited in Glaser,2014) pointed out, “one of the main advantages of using role play data is that they

permit the analysis of speech act strategies across interaction" (p.53). However, they are not devoid of shortcomings. As Golato (2003) asserts, role-plays have been criticized for the fictitious nature of the roles assigned to learners, which might affect their production if they are asked to perform roles they have never came across in real life. Moreover, Golato (2003) pointed out that it might be impossible to administer role-plays to a large number of participants under good conditions, and the researcher may find it arduous and time-consuming to transcribe lengthy conversations.

In the current probe, role-plays were used along with the DCTs to attain data triangulation. Moreover, while DCTs were deployed to gauge the written production of the research participants, role-plays were used in the current investigation to measure their oral production and add more authenticity to the obtained data. Moreover, they were used to assess the sociopragmatic competence of the research participants and to evaluate their interaction skills and ostensive communication. They encompassed six situations: a) The interviewer 's office, b) At the campus, c) In the classroom, d) Professor given a lecture, e) The university cafeteria, f) The professor 's office (cf. Appendix C). The role plays were to be performed with native speakers. However, due to the non-availability of native speakers during the administration phase of this tool and given Ishihara's advice, the researcher asked four expert teachers to perform the role-plays with the research participants.

Table 18

Situations of Role Plays

Situations	Contextual Settings	Participants' Roles	Social Status
1	The interviewer's office	You are a recent college graduate who is applying for a job at a large corporation. The company has called you for a first interview, and at the end of the first interview, they ask for a second interview only in afternoons, but you can make it only in the mornings.	High
2	At the campus	You have worked too hard at your study. Your CLOSE friend knows this and he/she suggests you do something to make your mind relax a bit. However, you refuse his/her suggestion.	Equal
3	In the classroom	Because of the flu, you were absent last Sunday grammar class that you are enrolled in. So you decide to borrow your INTIMATE classmate's notes to catch up with the rest of the class. What would you say to get this friend to lend you notes for the class you missed?	Equal
4	professor giving a lecture	Tomorrow is the due date of a final term paper for one of the courses you are taking this semester. However, you are not able to turn it on time. You ask for an extension on the paper. What would you say in order to get an extension?	High
5	The university cafeteria	are currently having trouble with your laptop and you're hoping to have it fixed in time for your seminar presentation next week. Your classmate offers to lend you her/his laptop, but you refuse and prefer to use your own computer.	Equal
6	The Professor's office	Your professor has a guest speaker and in his next class he will be discussing issues which are relevant to your research topic. your professor invites you to attend, but you refuse because you have an emergency and you have to leave rapidly.	High

3.12.4 Pragmatic Awareness Test

It was first developed by Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei (1998). They defined it as a test of the difference in learners' awareness in the grammatical and pragmatic domains, "we developed a contextualized pragmatic and grammatical judgment task presented in a video format" (p.239). The task was developed throughout five phases: (a) identifying and constructing the test scenarios, (b) testing the scenarios through a production task, (c) selecting the targeted responses for the task, (d) piloting the judgment task in written format, and (e) filming the revised scenarios. In 2008, Eslami and Eslami-Rasekh deployed this test

to gauge learner ‘s pragmatic awareness.

In the current study, the pragmatic awareness test was used to measure the research partakers' pragmatic awareness before and after the treatment, and to evaluate their perception of appropriateness and their ability to provide a metapragmatic explanation. It consists of ten communicative situations in which someone is making a request or refusal. Each situation encompasses two parts. The first part evaluates students’ ability to identify whether the given answer was pragmatically appropriate or inappropriate, whereas the second one asks students to render a metapragmatic explanation to the answer (cf. Appendix D).

Table 19

Classification of Each Situation in PAT According to Social Variations

Situations	Participants	Social Status	Social Distance	Appropriateness
1	University professor-student	S>H	0	Appropriate
2	Student-student	S=H	0	Inappropriate
3	Library monitor-student	S>H	-	Inappropriate
4	Job applicant-manager	S<H	-	Appropriate
5	International student-university president	S<H	-	Inappropriate
6	Student-friend	S=H	+	Appropriate
7	Job applicant-interviewer	S<H	-	Appropriate
8	Student-professor	S<H	0	Inappropriate
9	Waiter-boss	S<H	0	Inappropriate
10	Research assistant-professor	S<H	0	Appropriate

Note. > = Higher ; = Equal ; <= Lower S = Speaker ; H = Hearer Social distance (+ = close; - = stranger ; 0 = acquaintance)

3.12.5 Course Feedback Questionnaire

According to Pearson (2006), it is "important to investigate learners 'perspectives about the usefulness and attractiveness of the lesson units that teach pragmatic concepts and strategies" (p.101). In the current research, learners were given a CFQ to elicit their attitudes towards the pragmatic intervention. Moreover, it was deployed to complement speech act data with affective learner data on the usefulness of the instruction. The CFQ, adopted from the study of Glaser (2014), was deployed to gather data in four different areas: students 'impressions concerning their own improvement, students' evaluation of the intervention 's usefulness, students' perceptions of thedifficulty level of the pragmatic features being taught, and students' attitudes towards the pragmatic aspects covered in class (cf. Appendix E). It encompasses eight questions, each of which has a specific aim.

Question 1: aims at eliciting students' impressions on the pragmatic lessons they learned during the treatment phase.

Question 2: on a scale of one to ten, students were asked to determine the extent to which they thought that the lessons improved their speaking skills and social interaction skills.

Question 3: aims to determine the extent to which the strategies were useful with regard to students' speaking skills and social interaction skills.

Question 4: aims at knowing whether the pragmatic lessons lived up to students' expectations.

Question 5: students were required to rate the usefulness of the instruction on a bipolar four-point scale ranging from not at all useful' to very useful'.

Question 6: on a bipolar scale ranging from _far too low' to _far too high', research participants were asked to indicate how they perceived the difficulty of pragmatic lessons.

Question 7: students were asked to indicate the degree to which they agree with the provided comments.

Question 8: aims at eliciting students' attitudes towards the pragmatics instruction.

3.13 Pilot Testing of Research Instruments

A pilot study is a small-case study that serves as a prelude to the main investigation. It is "a small-case investigation intended to assess the adequacy of the research design, and of the instruments to be used for data collection" (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006, p.103).

To put it differently, the pilot study is a process during which some adjustments are altered to the research instruments prior to administering them. It aims at achieving the validity and the reliability of the tools through eliminating the irrelevant items that lead to unnecessary data, which, in turn, may affect the study's results. In this regard, and as Pahakiti (2014) elucidates, "it is therefore recommended to conduct a pilot study because researchers can begin to understand what works and what does not in their research design. Through a pilot study process, researchers will also realize any unforeseen threats to their research validity'' (p.58). Hence, in the current research, a pilot study is conducted to assess the efficiency of the research instruments.

In the current study, the worksheets used in the instructional treatment were adopted from the study of Martinez (2006). They were given to five expert teachers to check them in terms of content and pertinence. Hence, experts' feedback was taken into consideration in order to modify the worksheets. The DCTs were pilot tested with three native speakers and five students out of the entire population and aside from the research sample to check

the timing, wording and lucidity.

The course feedback questionnaire was pilot tested with four TEFL and research methodology teachers. They reported that some statements were difficult for students to understand. Thus, they suggested the substitution of these statements with simple ones. Moreover, the CFQ was pilot tested with twelve members of the target population for wording, clarity and timing. They disclosed that the time span needed to complete the questionnaire is one hour. With regard to wording, they reported that there were some abstruse vocabulary items for them to understand. Hence, the researcher substituted the difficult words with simple ones. For instance, the verb "to foster" was substituted with the verb "to improve". Similarly, role plays were pilot tested with four English language teachers. They reported that the communicative situations were numerous for students to perform within the time allotted. They were, hence, condensed into six situations instead of ten. On the other hand, the pragmatic awareness test was pilot tested with three methodology research teachers for timing and wording. The teachers' feedback demonstrated that there were no modifications at the level of wording, and they suggested that the test could be completed within one hour.

3.14 Instructional Treatment

The instructional treatment for fostering students' pragmatic competence was carried out throughout six main phases: researching phase, reflecting phase, receiving phase, reasoning phase, rehearsing phase, and revising phase, developed by Martínez-Flor and Usó-Juan (2006). It was delivered by the researcher over a period of twelve weeks. The instructional treatment was divided into seven sessions with a sum of ten hours and a half. The timing of the sessions was scheduled based on the EG timetable. Each session lasted

for approximately ninety minutes (90 mins). Furthermore, the lesson plan, the assignments and the worksheets of each session were prepared beforehand (cf. Appendix G). The four phases of the treatment along with the content and the objectives of each session are presented infra:

Table 20

An Overview of the Instructional Treatment

Phases	**Session (90 minutes)**	**Content**	**Objectives**	**Assessment (end of the session)**
		PRETEST TASKS		
Researching	**1**	1. Exploring the meaning of: Pragmatics, Cross-cultural paragmatics Interlanguage pragmatics, pragmatic competence, pragmatic transfer, pragmatic failure, politeness, face, speech acts.	* To develop learners' understanding of why pragmatics and language teaching should go hand in Hand	**Assignment 1** Worksheet 1 **L1 Data collection**
			* to develop learners' sensitivity to the speech acts of requesting and refusing that they carry out naturally in their normal daily life	
	2	2. Reflecting and analysing L1data through basic awareness-raising questions dealing with both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic issues	*To make learnersaware of the important role thatsocial factors play when selecting a particular strategy	Assignment 2 Worksheet 2 **Awareness-raisingquestions**

Reflecting			*To be aware of thefact that a given utterance can have many functions depending on the speaker's intention	
Receiving	**3**	**3.Receiving an explicit instruction on the pragmalinguistic forms usedin performing requests and refusals in English as an L2 .** **(Trosborg's , 1995 & Salasar's2009 Taxnomies)**	***To instruct learners in all possible linguistic expressions for bothrequests and refusals** ***To widen the scope of strategies presented in extbooks** ***To focus on the sociopragmatic factors that affect their appropriateness of use .**	**Assignment 3** Worksheet3 **Cross-cultural comparison of L1 &L2 requests and refusal strategies**

Reasoning	**4**	4.Reasoning and understanding through threedifferent types of awarenessactivities the dependence of pragmalinguistics on the sociopragmatic factors Discussed in step 1	* To elicit learners' metapragmatic discourse .	Assignment 4 Worksheet 4 Awareness-raisingactivities

Phases	*Session* *(90 minutes)*	Content	Objectives	Assessment
Rehearsing	**5**	5.Rehearsing all the previousknowledge in production activities, by engaging learners in communicative practices (controlled and free production) written and oral	* To notice native speaker performance of requests and refusals in film scenes, sitcoms and other videos *Simulate and roleplay identical scenes	Assignment 5 Worksheet 5 Film observation worksheet Worksheet 6 Oral and production worksheet Worksheet 7 Observation and Evaluation worksheet
Revising	**6**	6. Revising the outcome of thefree activities assigned in step 5 and provide feedback related to learners' participation A wrap-up of all aspects	*To help learners gain a full masteryof the use and appropriate behavior of the speech acts of	**Assignment 6** **Course Feedback Questionnaire**
		covered in the course	requesting and refusing in the L2	
		POSTTEST TASKS		

1- Researching Phase

In the introductory session, the researcher explained the nature of the experiment, the role of the research partakers and distributed the participation consent letters to be signed. Prior to starting the experiment, the experimental group members and the control group members were given pretest tasks. During the first session, the researcher managed to acquaint the EG members with the following notions: cross- cultural

pragmatics, inter-language pragmatics, pragmatic competence, pragmatic transfer, pragmatic failure, politeness, and speech acts, with an aim of developing their sensitivity to the speech acts of requesting and refusing that they carry out naturally in their daily life.

2- Reflecting Phase

This phase aims at raising learners' awareness about the fact that an utterance can have a legion of functions depending on speaker's attention. Accordingly, students were asked to analyse and reflect on L1 data by answering a set of awareness-raising questions that have to do with sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistics issues using worksheet 2. Hence, the aim of this phase is twofold. First, in order to choose a strategy, students should take the social aspects into consideration. Second, learners should be made aware of the fact that one utterance might serve a variety of purposes depending on the speaker's aim.

3- Researching Phase

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5- Receiving Phase

Students received an explicit instruction on the pragmalinguistic forms used in performing requests and refusals in English as an L2 to help them in expanding their knowledge about the linguistic expressions of requesting and refusing. Then, they were required to make a cross-cultural comparison between L1 and L2 requests and refusal strategies using worksheet 3. This phase aims at helping students to realize that their L1 strategies are not always transferable to those used in English as an L2.

6- Reasoning Phase

This phase aims at raising learners' awareness to the importance of social factors and context in the choice of appropriate language through three different awareness- raising activities using worksheet 4. In the first activity, students were provided with 18 situations; they were instructed to indicate the social distance and power to each situation and rate the degree of directness on a scale of 1 to 3. This assignment aims at enabling learners to broaden their repertoire of request and refusal tactics. Moreover, in the second activity,

learners were asked to read a conversation between friends and indicate the strategy used by the interlocutor to politely refuse her friend's request, whereas in the final awareness-raising activity participants were required to select three refusals and three requests from the previous lecture and list the sequence of strategies and phrases in each.

7- Rehearsing Phase

After receiving an explicit instruction about awareness and production of appropriate requests and refusals, students in this phase were invited to practise performing requests and refusals through role-plays. They also observed native speakers' performance of requests and refusals in film scenes using worksheet 5. Afterwards, while two students were performing the role-plays, their classmates were observing and evaluating their performance through worksheet 7.

6-Revising Phase

This phase serves as a wrap-up of the aspects presented in the treatment. In order to help students develop a full mastery of the speech acts of requesting and refusing in the L2, the activities assigned in the rehearsing phase were recapitulated. At the end of this phase, the CFQ was distributed to students in order to elicit their attitudes towards the course.

3.15 Methods of Data Analysis

This section reports the steps undertaken to analyze the different types of data collected in the current study. The instruments selected for this research are DCTs, pragmatic awareness tests, CFQ and role-plays. Hence, the obtained data were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively.

Table 21

The Criteria of Assessing the Four Aspects of Appropriacy (Hudson , 2001)

Scale	Criteria for Four Aspects of Appropriacy			
	Correct Expressions	**Quality of Information**	**Strategies Choices**	**Level of Formality**
5	Completely appropriate	Completely appropriate	Completely appropriate	Completely appropriate
4	Mostly appropriate	Mostly appropriate	Mostly appropriate	Mostly appropriate
3	Generally appropriate	Generally appropriate	Generally appropriate	Generally appropriate
2	Not very appropriate but acceptable	Not very appropriate but acceptable	Not very appropriate but acceptable	Not very appropriate but acceptable
1	Not appropriate and not acceptable	Not appropriate and not acceptable	Not appropriate and not acceptable	Not appropriate and not acceptable
O	The mean score of the above four items			

O= Overall score

Participants' responses to written DCTs were assessed based on the following criteria: correct expressions, quality of information, choice of strategies, and level of formality. The appropriacy of each aspect was assessed on a five-point Likert scale (1= Not Appropriate, 2= Not Very Appropriate but Acceptable, 3= Generally Appropriate, 4= Mostly Appropriate, 5= Completely Appropriate. This rubric was adopted from Hudson 's (2001) study.

The first aspect is the correctness of expressions. It refers to the use of expressions without grammatical mistakes, i.e., linguistic accuracy. Hence, the score was given based on the number of grammatical mistakes. The score of five was assigned to the expressions that were grammatically correct. However, it was reduced to four if there was one grammatical mistake. Likewise, if the expression was not grammatically correct, the score was relegated to three, two or one.

The second aspect is the quality of information. It pertains to the length of expressions and the appropriateness of information provided by the participants. Accordingly, the refusal or request considered as inappropriate if it started with "I cannot" and was not backed up with a reasonable justification. Contrariwise, if the research partaker used a lengthy expression with a good explanation, he/ she was given five out of five. Lastly, short expressions, which contained only two words, were marked with two.

The third aspect is the choice of strategies. It refers to the refusal and requests strategies used by native speakers such as gratitude, positive feeling, explanation…etc. Hence, the EG members, who managed to use the aforementioned strategies to rebuff a given request, were given five out of five.

The fourth aspect is the level of formality. It is related to the degree of politeness and the formality of word choice. Thus, the research participants who used appropriate and polite words were rendered the full score, whereas those who used inappropriate and impolite words were given a low score. Insofar as the mean score is concerned, it was calculated by adding the four scores together and dividing them by four. The final score was rounded off if it was under five and was rounded up if it was above five.

As for the course feedback questionnaire, it comprises multiple-choice items and two open-ended questions. For the multiple-choice items, they were coded by allocating a number to each choice. For example, question three was coded as follows: Not at All Useful= 1, Somewhat Useful= 2, Quite Useful= 3, Very Useful=4

After assembling the data, all the values of the coded questionnaires were entered into the SPSS software (Version 22) which facilitated the process of transforming the obtained numerical data into graphs and tables. As for the open-ended questions, they were analysed qualitatively by taking excerpts from students' answers to be discussed.

As for the pragmatic awareness test, students were asked to indicate whether the communicative situations are appropriate or not and provide a rationale behind their choices. The appropriateness of each situation was coded as follows: appropriate=0, inappropriate=1. After the data coding process, the numerical data were analysed using the SPSS software. As for the justifications, they were analysed qualitatively by the researcher.

On the other hand, role plays were transcribed using a list of transcription symbols which was adopted from the study of Glaser (2014) (cf. appendix H). Moreover, in order to examine students' pragmatic performance regarding making requests and refusals among the six given situations of role plays, the researcher relied on the relevance theory to interpret students' performance. Therefore, the qualitative analysis of role plays followed the four aspects of relevance theory:

1. **Identify the communicative goals of the participants:** The researcher tried to identify the communicative goals of the participants. This involves understanding what each participant is trying to achieve through their use of language in the role play.

2. **Analyze the linguistic clues used to convey meaning**: Relevance theory suggests that people use a variety of linguistic clues to convey meaning, including literal meaning, implicatures, and presuppositions. By analyzing the language used in the role play, the researcher was able to identify these different types of clues and determine how they contribute to the overall meaning of the communication.

3. Evaluate the cognitive effort required to process the communication: Relevance theory suggests that people seek to optimize the relevance of the information they receive by balancing the cognitive effort required to process the information with the potential benefits of understanding it. In the current study, the researcher evaluated how the participants use language to minimize the cognitive effort required to understand their meaning, while still conveying the information they intend to communicate.

4. Consider the context and background knowledge of the participants: Finally, relevance theory suggests that people rely on their background knowledge and the context of the communication to understand the intended meaning. As for the present study, the researcher took into consideration the context and background knowledge of the participants, as this will influence how they interpret and respond to the language used in the communication.

3.16 Ethical Issues and Considerations

Conducting research does not only necessitate perseverance and diligence, but it also requires honesty and morality. Thus, research participants should be treated with utmost respect, and they should not be prone to any kind of harm. As Williams (2011) asserts, “you should treat participants with due ethical considerations, in the way you choose them, deal with them personally, and how you use the information they provide”

(p.47). For the current probe, a consent letter, which disclosed both the nature and the purpose of the study, was given to the participants in order to sign it (cf. Appendix I). Besides, they were not compelled to partake in this research. Yet, their participation was voluntary. As for privacy concerns, the confidentiality of the participants' personal information was ensured through anonymity. Lastly, the obtained data are reported with no manipulation or alteration.

Table 22

Summary of Research Methodology

Approach	Mixed Methods
Research Design	Quasi-experimental Design
Case Study	Single Site
Research Setting	Department of English Language and Literature, Sétif 2 University.
Research Sample	102 MA and License Students of English.
Research Instruments	**Exploration Phase** • Lesson Plans • Reflective Essays • Informal Discussion **Pre-experimental Phase** • Placement Test. **Experimental Phase** • DCTs (pre-test post-test) • Pragmatic Awareness Test (pre-test post-test) • Role Plays (pre-test post-test) • Course Feedback Questionnaire (CFQ) after the post-test
Experiment	***Phases*** Researching, reflecting, receiving, reasoning, rehearsing, and revising. ***Duration*** 12 weeks
Data Analysis	SPSS/Qualitative analysis

Conclusion

This chapter affords a painstaking account on the different steps followed by the researcher in a bid to answer the research questions and test the aforementioned research hypotheses. Ultimately, the ensuing chapter is devoted to the analysis, interpretation and discussion of the gathered data, along with pedagogical implications and recommendations, limitations and suggestions for future research, and the general conclusion.

Chapter Four

Data Analysis

and Interpretations

Chapter Four

Data Analysis, Interpretation and Discussion

Introduction 236

4.1 Quantitative Analysis of Discourse Completion Task (License Students) 236

4.1.1 Comparison between the Post-test Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups 243

4.2 Quantitative Analysis of the Discourse Completion Tasks (MA Students) 244

4.2.1 Comparison between the Post-test Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups 250

4.3 Qualitative Analysis of Role Plays (License Students) 253

4.4 Qualitative Analysis of Role Plays (MA Students) 263

4.5 Quantitative Analysis of Pragmatic Awareness Test (License Students) 273

4.5.1 Qualitative Analysis of the Justifications Provided by License Students 274

4.5.1.1 Experimental Group (Pre -Test) 274

4.5.1.2 Experimental Group (Post-test) 278

4.5.1. 3 Control Group (Pre-test) 281

4.5.1.4 Control Group (Post-test) 285

4.6 Analysis of Pragmatic Awareness Test (MA Students) 289

4.6.1 Analysis of the Justifications Provided by MA Students 290

4.6.1.1 Experimental Group (Pre-test) 290

4.6.1.2 Experimental Group (Posttest) 293

4.6.1.3 Control Group (Pre Test) 296

4.6.1.4 Control Group (Post test) 299

4.7 Analysis of Course Feedback Questionnaire (License Students) 303

4.7.1 Analysis of Validity and Reliability 303

4.8 Analysis of the Course Feedback Questionnaire (MA Students) 316

4.9 Discussion of Findings 332

4.9.1 Instructional Effectiveness of the 6 Rs Regarding Written Production 332

4.9.2 Instructional Effectiveness of the 6 Rs Approach Regarding Oral Production 335

4.9.3 Instructional Effectiveness of the 6 Rs Approach Regarding Pragmatic Awareness 339

4.9.4 Students' Perceptions of the Pragmatic Instruction 344

4.9.5 Discussion of the Findings from the Perspective of Noticing, Cognition and Relevance 344

4.10 Pedagogical Implications and Recommendations 352

4.11 Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research 356
Conclusion 362
General Conclusion 364

Chapter Four

Data Analysis and Interpretation

Introduction

This chapter will present the results of the study both quantitatively and qualitatively from DCTs, Role plays, Pragmatic Awareness Test, and CFQ course feedback questionnaire as pertaining to the research questions and the hypotheses put forward in the previous chapter. Thus, the results will be presented following this order: The teaching effects after instruction, Written pragmatic production (DCT results), Oral pragmatic production (Role Plays), Pragmatic Awareness (PAT) and Students' Perceptions of the pragmatics instruction

4.1 Quantitative Analysis of Discourse Completion Task (License Students)

The analysis of the four aspects of appropriacy in the written DCT is considered as evidence to the answer and the quantitative results of the pre and posttests in the DCT are described and presented so as to test hypothesis 1 set in the introduction (The 6 Rs approach will significantly improve Algerian License students of English pragmatic competence as regards written and oral production of requests and refusals)

Table 23

Pre and Post Test Scores of the Control Group (License Students)

Aspects of Appropriacy	*(n=27)*		*(n= 27)*					*Effect*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	***MD***	***T-Value***	***Df***	*size "d"*
Correct Expressions	75,69	14,58	82,38	10,83	-6,69	* -2,27	25	**0,45**
Quality of information	78,73	16,69	84,35	13,50	-5,62	-1,74	25	**0,34**
Choice of strategies	52,54	8,26	50,65	9,15	1,89	0,95	25	**0,19**
Level of formality	**83,58**	**23,15**	**87,88**	**12,54**	**-4,31**	**-1,03**	**25**	**0,20**

**** P < .0***

Figure 9 *Correct Expressions for 3rd Year Control Group in Pre and Post Tests.*

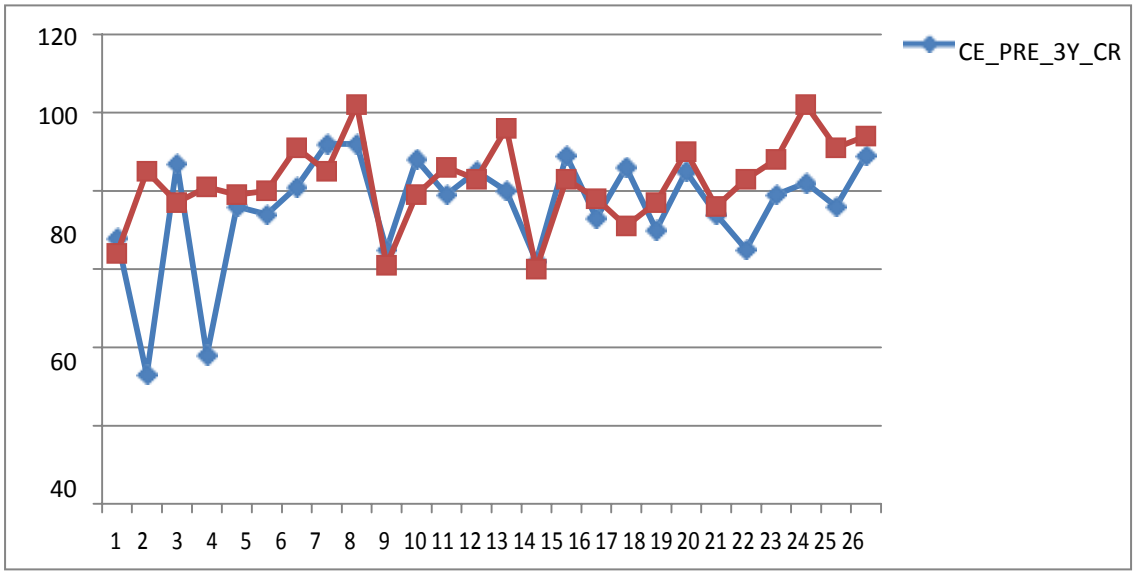


Figure 10 *Quality of Information for 3rd Year Control Group in Pre and Post Tests.*

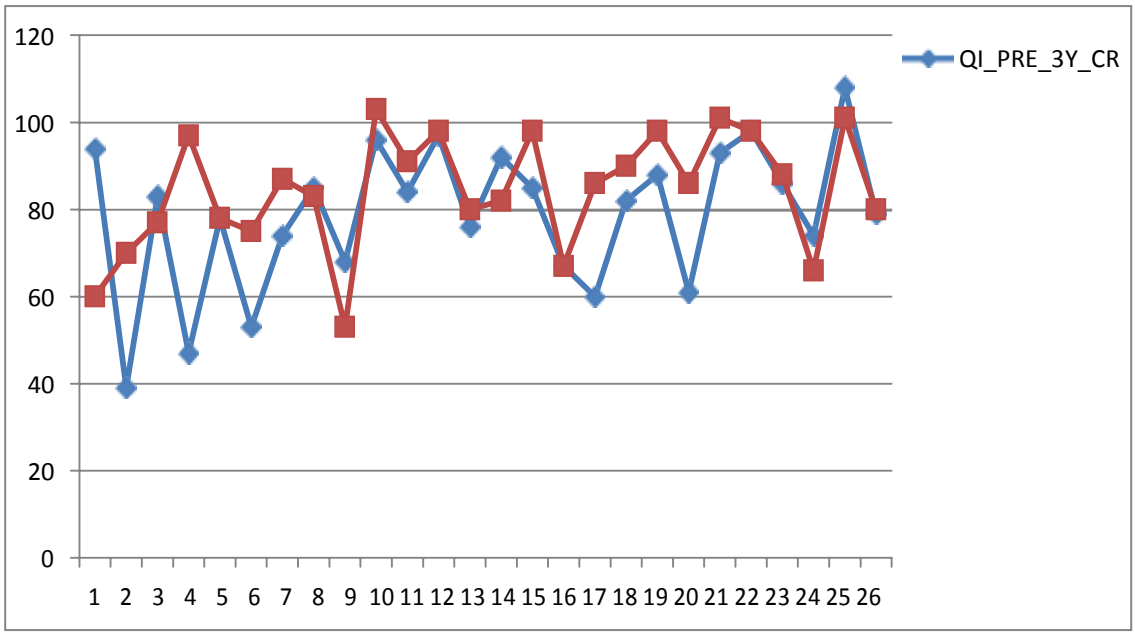


Figure 11 *Strategies Choices of 3rd Year Control Group in Pre and Post Tests*

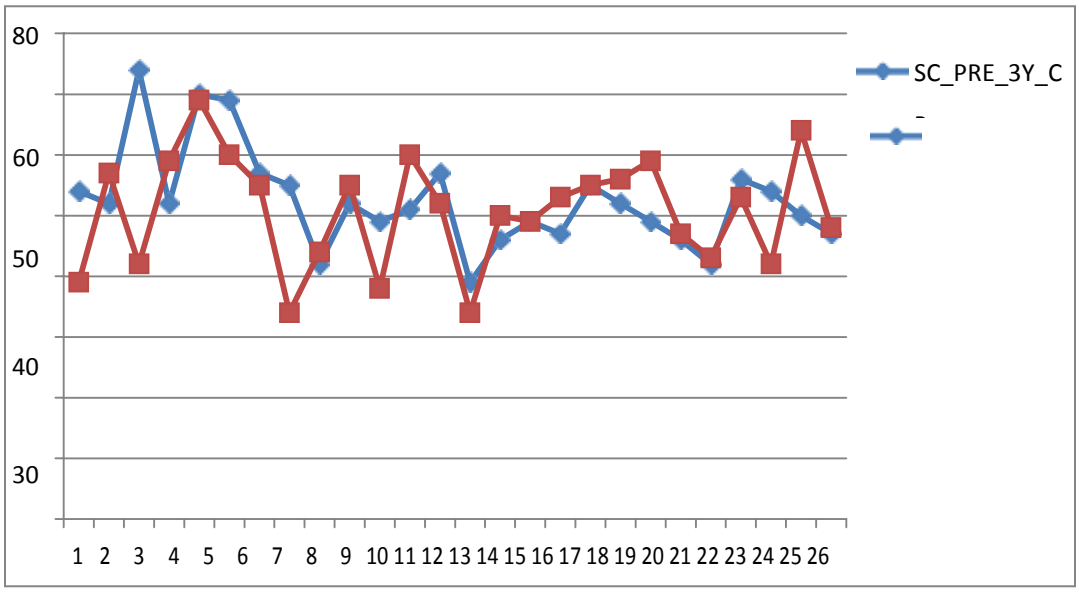
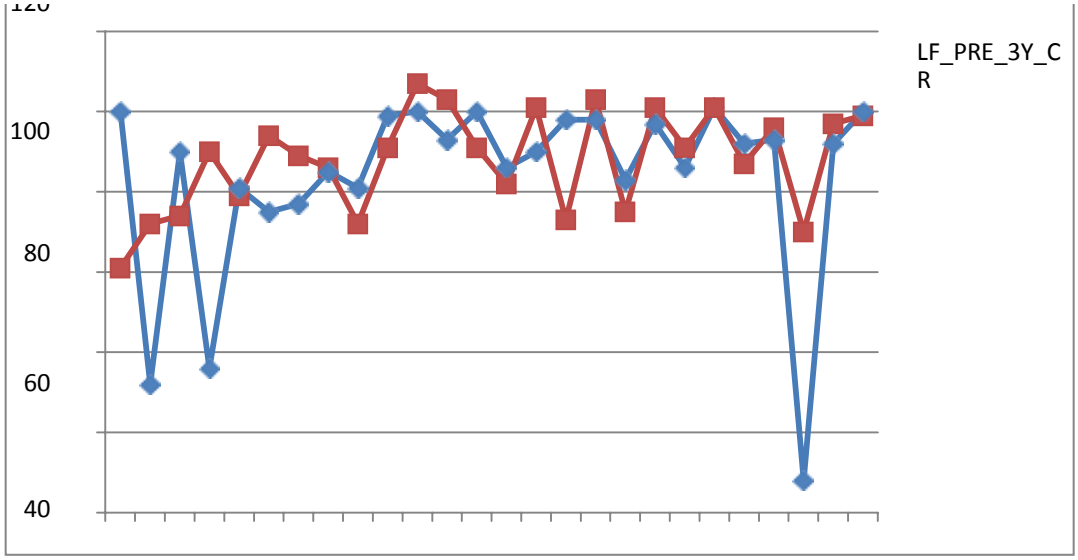


Figure 12 *Level of Formality of 3rd Year Control Group in Pre and Post Tests.*



As displayed in table16, the mean value for the aspect of correct expressions was 75, 6(SD= 14, 58) in the pre-test and 82, 38 (SD=10, 83) in the post-test, resulting in a mean difference of 6, 69. This difference is statistically significant t (25) = -2, 27, $p< .05$, with a small effect size (d=0, 45). As for quality of information, the mean value was 78, 73 (SD=16, 69) in the pre-test while it was 84, 35 (SD=13, 50) in the post-test, with a mean difference of 5, 62. The value of t-test (-1, 74) is statistically non- significant and has a small effect size (d=0, 34). Likewise, the mean value for the choice of strategies was 52, 54 (SD=8, 26) in the pre-test and 50, 65 (SD=9, 15) in the post-test, yielding a mean difference of 1, 89, which indicates that there is no significant difference. Ultimately, and insofar as the level of formality is concerned, the mean value of the pre-test was 83, 58 (SD=23, 15) while it was 87, 88 (SD=12, 54) in the post -test, with a mean difference of 4,31. Hence, the t-value (-1, 03) is non- significant, and the effect size is small (d=0, 20).

Table 24

Pre and Post Test Scores of the Experimental Group (License Students)

Aspects of Appropriacy	Pretest (n= 27)		Posttest (n= 27)		MD		T- Value	Df	Effect size "d"
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*					
Correct Expressions	90,62	7,78	96,27	5,42	5,65		** 3,46	25	0,68
Quality of Information	96,73	7,73	99,65	8,20	2,92		1,48	25	0.29
Choice of Strategies	69,12	4,80	78,54	6,99	9,42		** 5,91	25	1.16
Level of Formality	98,23	6,57	103,19	6,98	4,96		*2,96	25	0.50

**** P < 0.01 ; ** P < 0.001***

Figure 13 *Correct Expressions for 3rd Year Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests.*

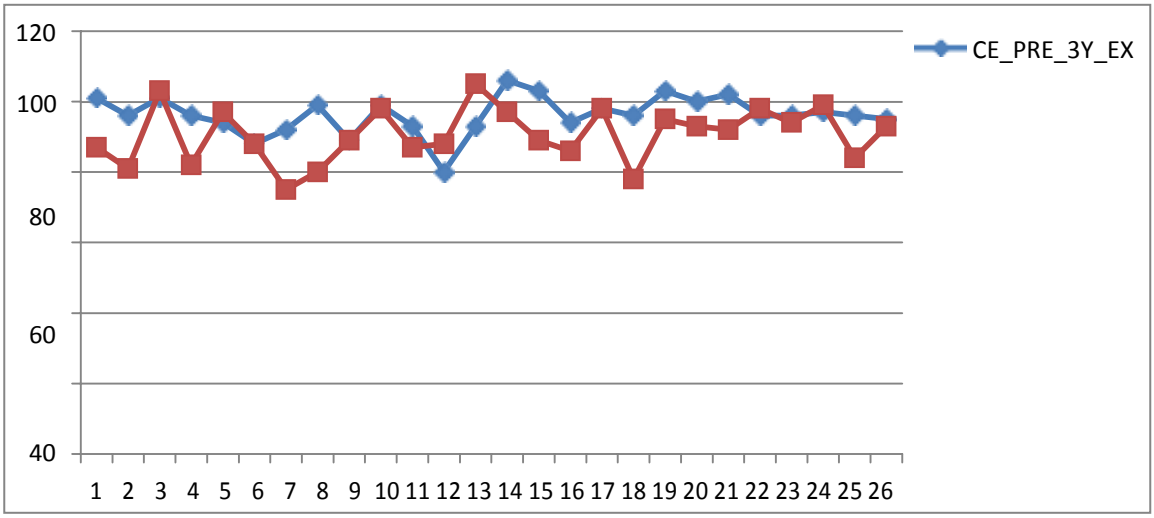


Figure 14 *Quality of Information for 3rd Year Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests.*

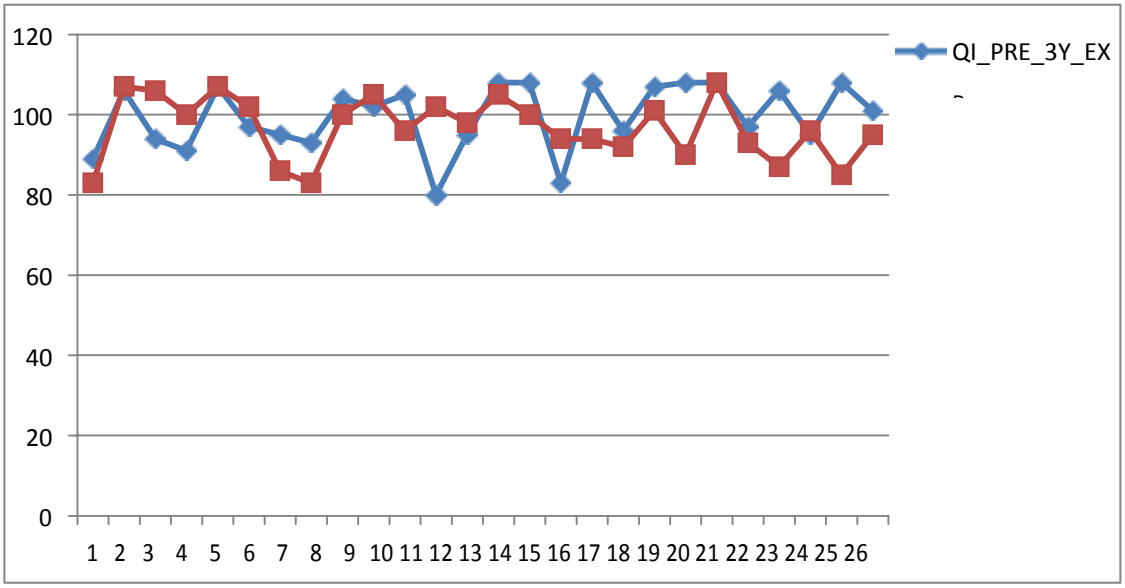


Figure 15 *Choice of Strategies of 3rd Yea Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests.*

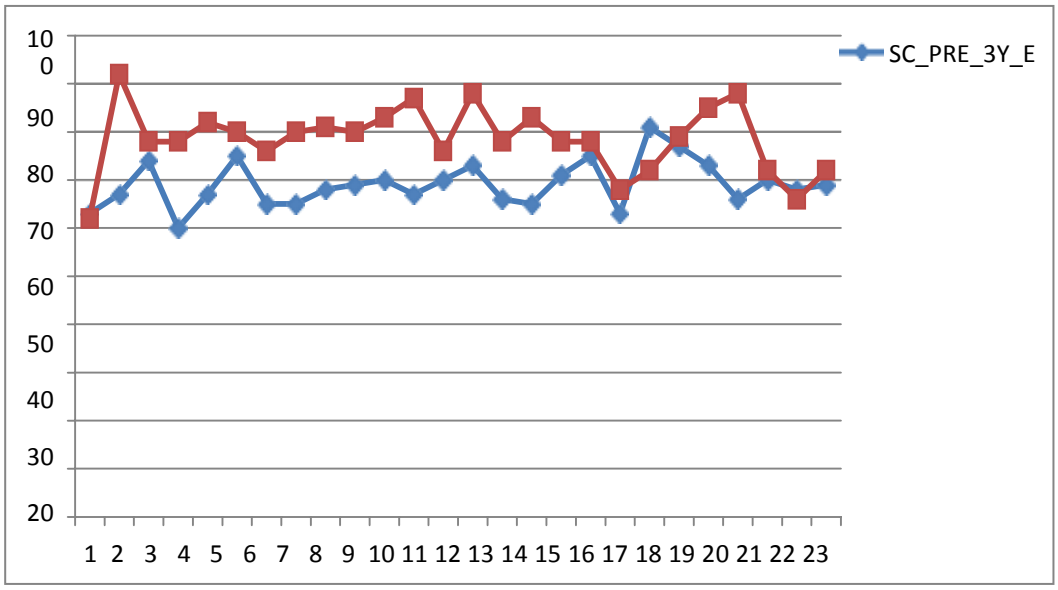
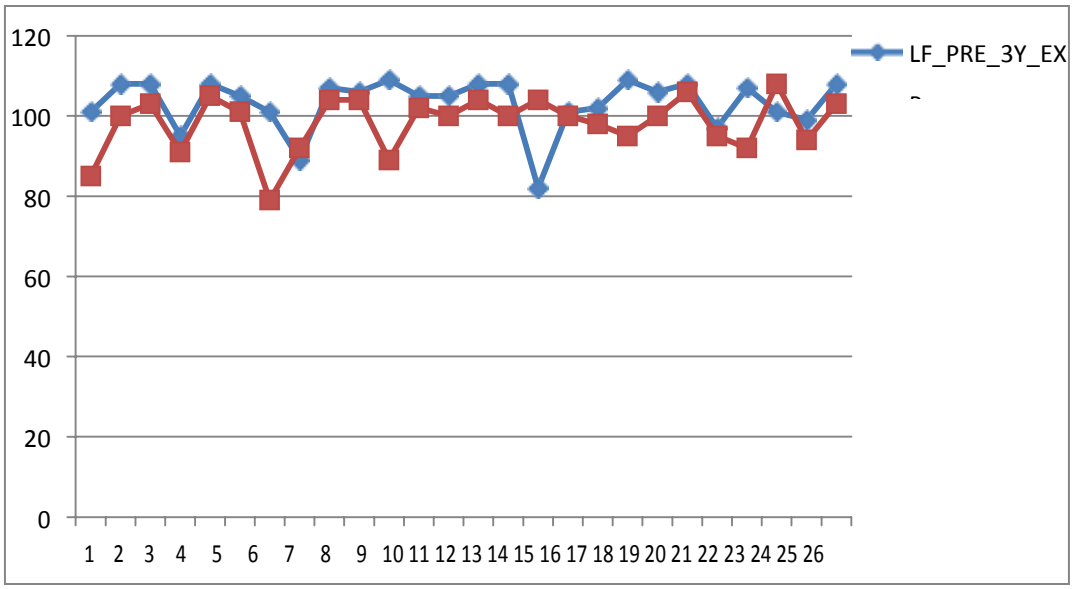


Figure 16 *Level of Formality of 3rd Year Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests*



As table 24 expounds, the mean value for the aspect of correct expressions was 90, 62 (SD=7,78) in the pre-test and 96, 27 (SD=5,42) in the post-test, with a mean difference of 5,65. Hence, this difference is statistically significant t (25) = 3, 46, p<.05, with a medium effect size (d=0,68). In quality of information,

however, no statistical difference is reported (MD=2, 92, t-value=1,48) since the mean value of the pre-test was 96, 73 (SD=7,73) while it was 99, 65 (SD=8,20) in the post-test. Moreover, the mean value for the choice of strategies was 69, 12 (SD= 4, 80) in the pre-test and 78, 54 (SD=6, 99) in the post-test, resulting in a mean difference of 9, 42. Ultimately, the mean value for the level of formality was 98, 23 (SD=6, 57) in the pre- test while it was 103, 19 (SD=6, 98) in the post-test, yielding a mean difference of 2,96. This difference is statistically significant t (25) =2, 96,* p < 0.01, with a medium effect size (d=0,50).

4.1.1 Comparison between the Post-test Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups

The t-test was deployed to examine whether there is a statistically significant difference between the post-test scores of the EG and CG. The results are presented infra:

Table 25

Comparison between the Post-test Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups.

	Control (n= 27)		***Experimental*** (n= 27)					***Effect size "d***
	M	***SD***	***M***	***SD***	***MD***	***T-Value***	***Df***	***size "d"***
Correct expressions	**82.38**	**10.83**	**90.62**	**7.78**	**8.23**	**3.15***	**50**	**0 .87**
Quality of information	**84.35**	**13.50**	**96.73**	**7.73**	**12.39**	**4.06****	**39.80**	**1.13**
Choice of Strategies	**50.65**	**9.15**	**78.54**	**6.99**	**27.89**	**12.35****	**50**	**3.42**
Level of formality	**87.88**	**12.54**	**98.23**	**6.98**	**10.35**	**3.68****	**39.13**	**1.02**

As table 25 illustrates, in the aspect of correct expressions, the mean value of the control group was 82, 38 (SD=10, 83), while it was 90, 62 (SD=7, 78) for the experimental

group. Hence, the comparison between the two means indicates a significant difference t (50) = 3, 15, * p < .01, with a large effect size (d=0, 87). This implies that the experimental group outperformed the control group in the aspect of correct expressions. In quality of information, the mean value for students in the experimental group was 96,73 (SD=7,73), and it was 84,35 SD=13,50 for students in the control group, resulting in a significant difference t(39,13)=3,68 ,** p < .001. As regards choice of strategies, a significant difference, with a large size effect (d=3, 42), is found between the control group and the experimental one, (mean= 50, 65, SD=9,15) and (mean=78, 54, SD=6, 99), respectively. In the last aspect, level of formality, a significant difference is noticed in the post-test scores of both groups. The post-test mean score was 87, 88 (SD=12, 54) for the control group, while it was 98, 23 (SD=6,98) for the experimental group, yielding a mean difference of 10, 53, with a large size effect (d=1, 02). This entails that the experimental group outperformed the control group as regards level of information by having higher post-test scores

4.2 Quantitative Analysis of the Discourse Completion Tasks (MA Students)

Table 26

Pre and Post Test Scores of the Control Group (MA Students)

Aspects of Appropriacy	***Pretest (n= 21)***		***Posttest (n= 21)***					
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	***MD***	***T-Value***	***Df***	***Effect size "d"***
Correct expressions	84,73	8,45	83,38	10,78	1,35	0,88	25	0.17
Quality of information	92,96	10,50	94,12	9,25	-1,15	-0,63	25	0.12
Strategies choices	40,12	7,06	43,23	7,14	-3,12	-1,89	25	0.37
Level of formality	91,38	10,49	92,65	9,33	-1,27	-0,86	25	0.17

Figure 17 *Correct Expressions of M1 Control Group in Pre and Post Tests.*

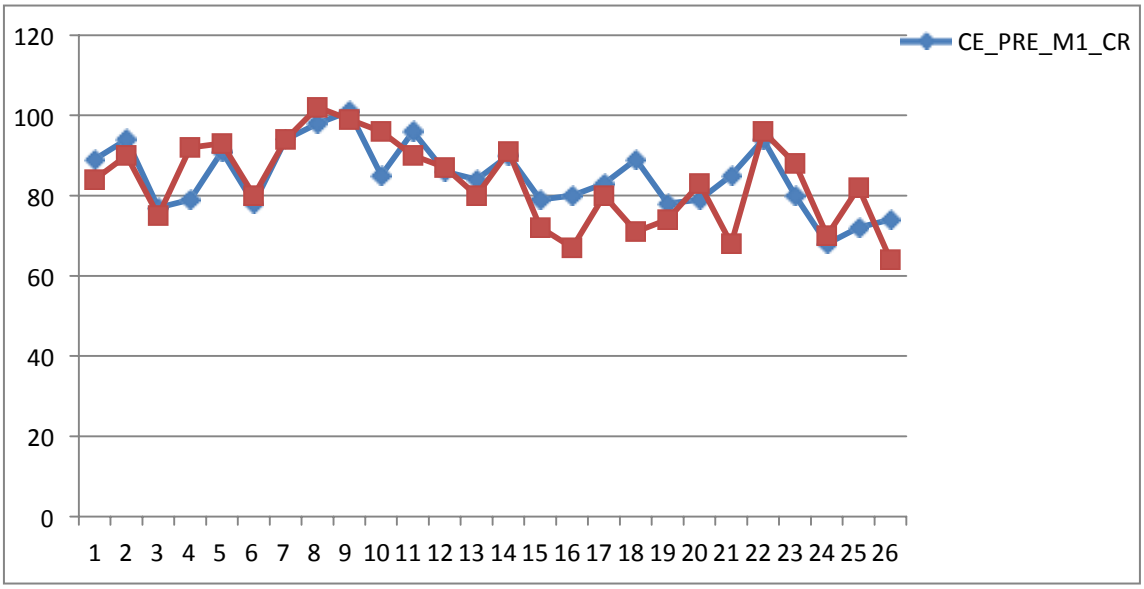


Figure 18 *Quality of Information for M1 Control Group in Pre and Post Tests.*

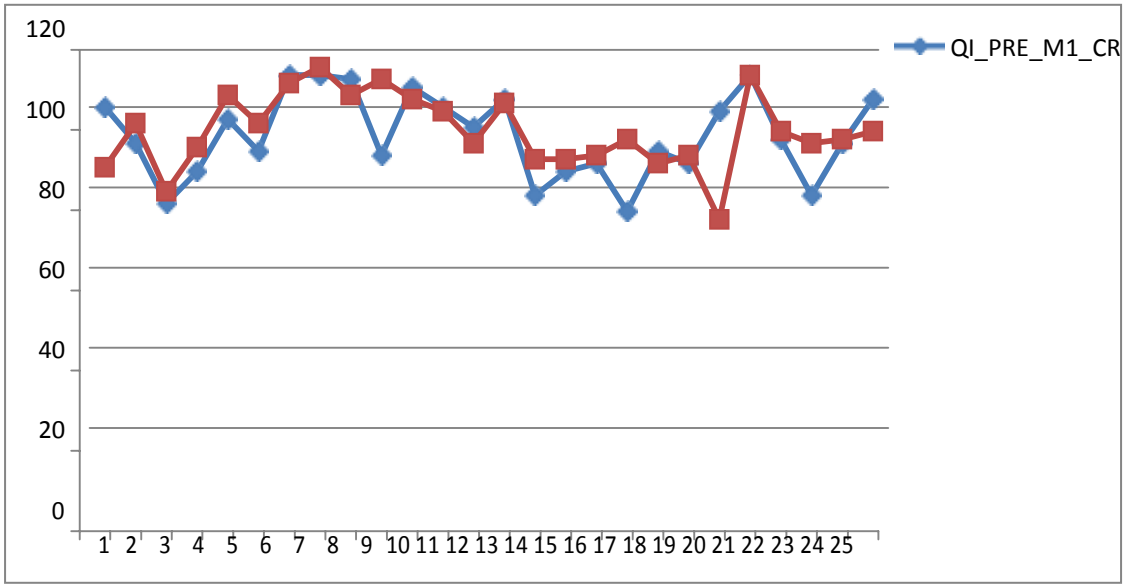


Figure 19 *Choice of Strategies of M1 Control Group in Pre and Post Tests.*

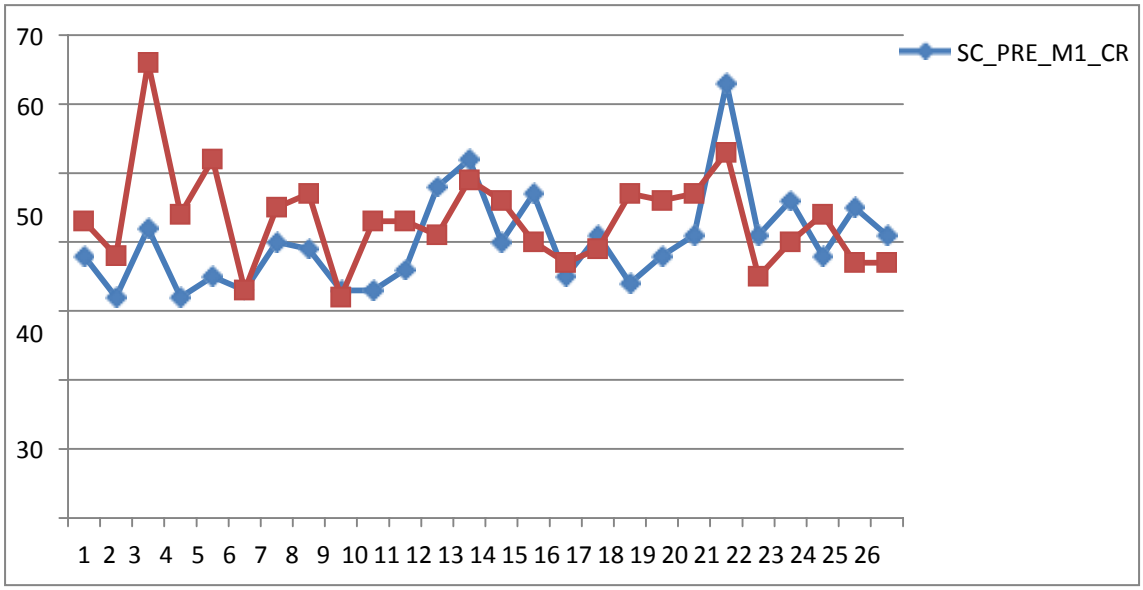
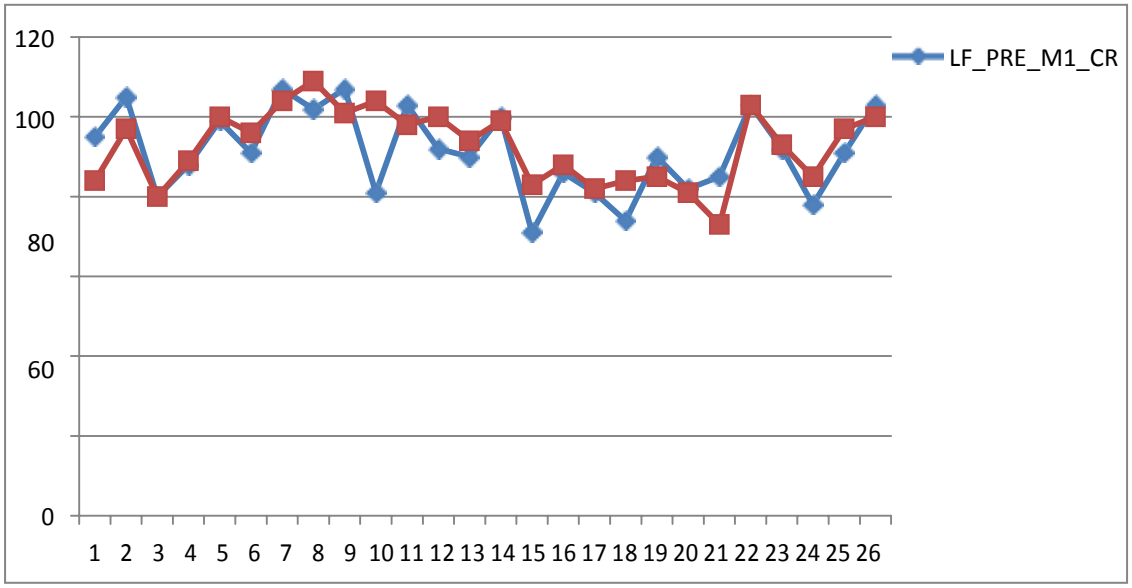


Figure 20 *Choice of for M1 Control Group in Pre and Post Tests.*



According to table 14, there was a mean difference of 1,35 between the pre- test and post-test for the aspect of correct expressions, which had mean values of 84,73 (SD=8,45) and 83,38 (SD=10,78), respectively. This difference has no effect size (d=0,17) < 0,20 and is statistically

non-significant (t (25) = 0,88, p.05). The mean value for information quality was 92,96 (SD:10,50) before the test and 94,12 (SD: 9,25) after the test, representing a mean change of 1,15. The result of the t-test, which is -0,63, is not statistically significant. As a result, the effect size (d=0,12) < 0,20 is not particularly obvious. Compared to the pre-test, the mean value for the strategies choices was 40,12 (SD=7,06) and the post-test was 43,23 (SD=7,14), yielding a mean difference of -3,12, indicating that there is no significant difference. Throughout the end, and in the level of formality, the mean value of the pre-test was 91,38 (SD=10,49), and the mean value of the post-test was 92,65 (SD=9,33), with a mean difference of 1,27. The t-value (-0,86) is, therefore, not significant, and the effect size (d=0,17) is negligible < 0,20.

Table 27

Pre and Post Test Scores of the Experimental Group

Aspects of Appropriacy	***Pretest (n= 27)***		***Posttest (n= 27)***					***Effect size "d"***
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	***MD***	***T- Value***	***df***	
Correct expressions	88,67	8,25	98,76	5,95	-10,10	**-6,37	20	1.39
Quality of information	90,29	14,73	98,91	7,60	-8,62	**-3,25	20	0.71
Strategies choices	41,76	7,63	73,43	10,37	-31,67	**-10,66	20	2.33
Level of formality	91,76	9,65	101,76	8,34	-10,00	**-4,80	20	1.05

***** P <0.001***

Figure 21 *Correct Expressions of M1 Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests.*

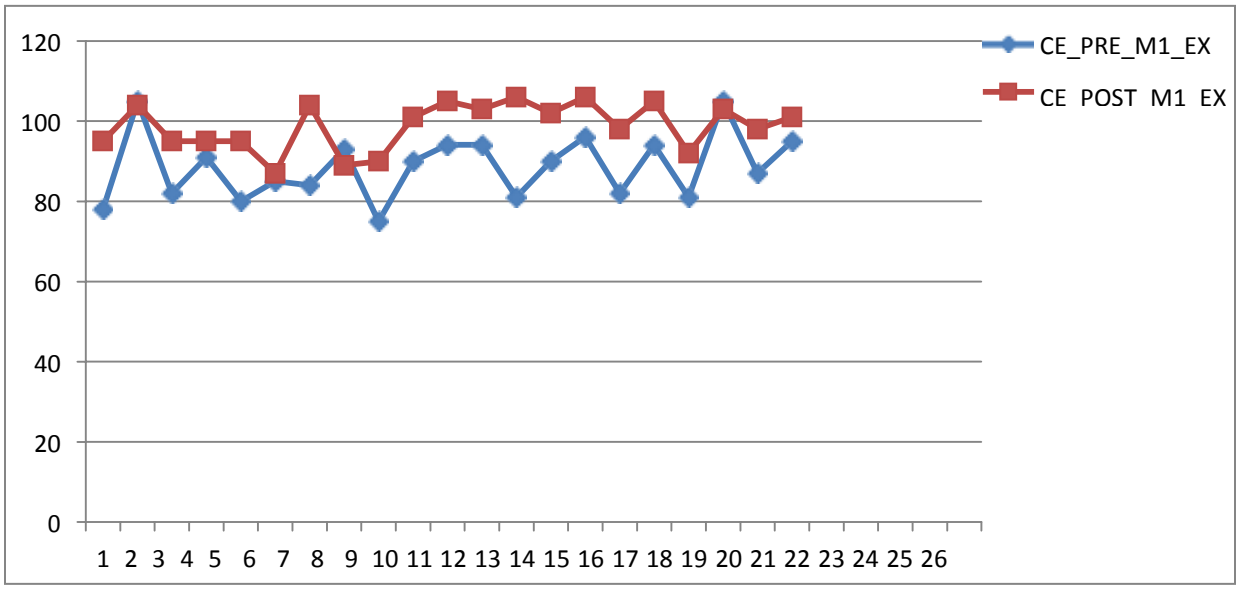


Figure 22 *Quality of Information of M1 Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests.*

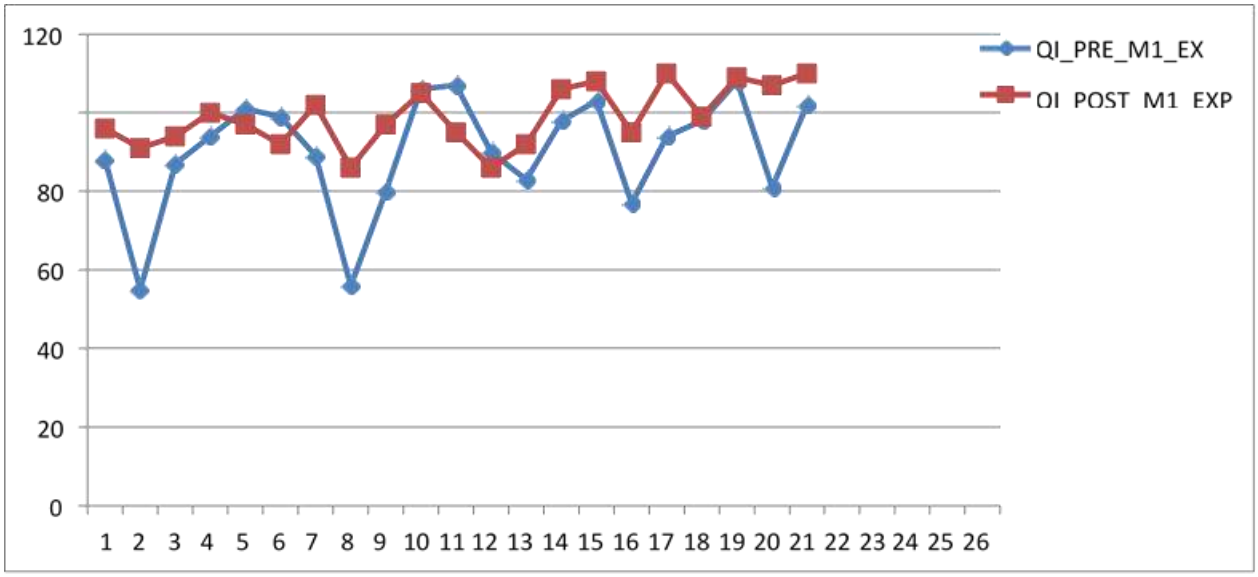


Figure 23 *Choice of Strategies for M1 Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests.*

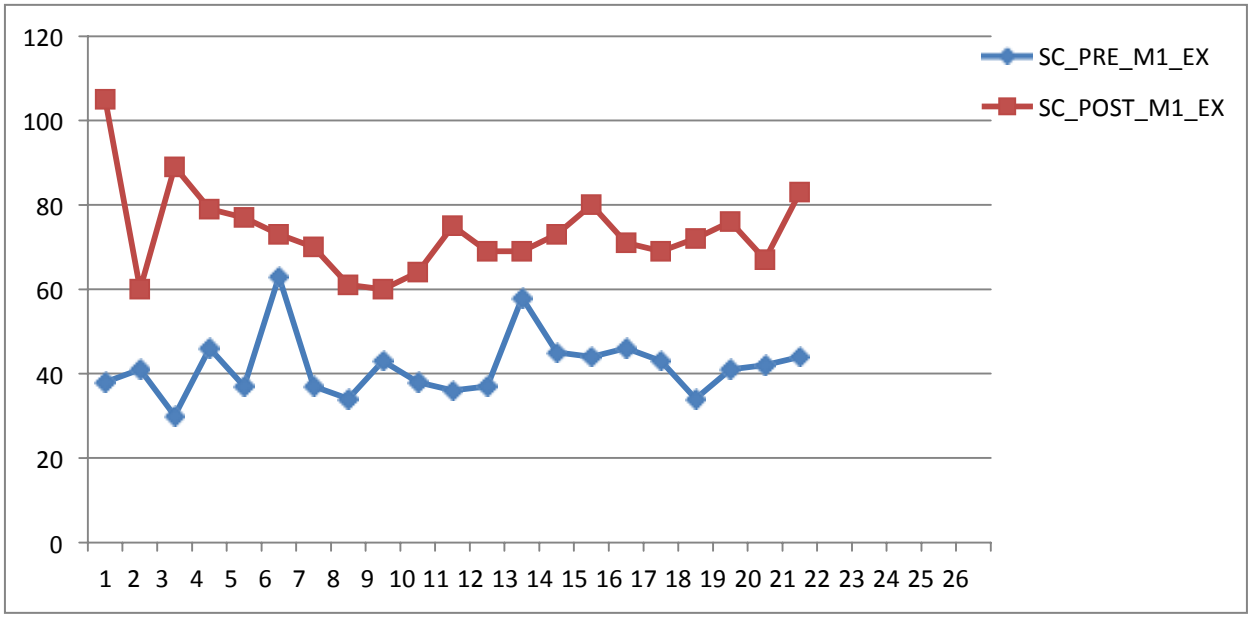
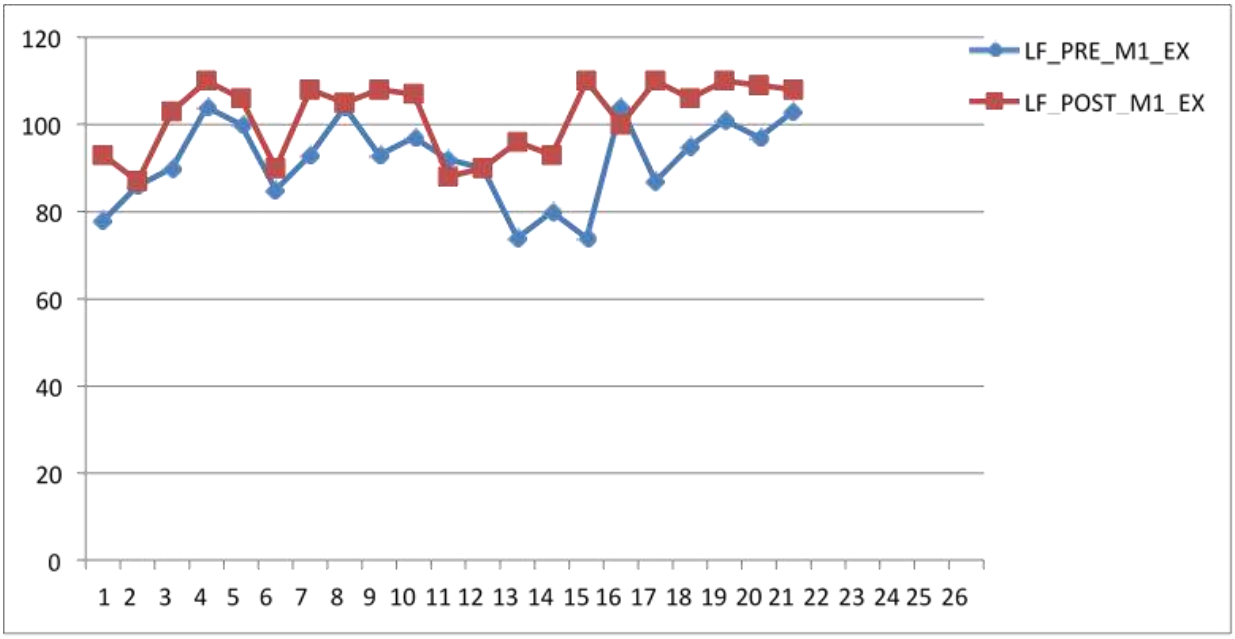


Figure 24 *Level of Formality for M1 Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests.*



As shown in table 27, the mean value for the aspect of correct expressions was 88.77 (SD= 8,25) in the pre-test and 98.76 (SD= 5.95) in the post-test, accumulating a mean difference of -10.10 between the two tests. This change has a large effect size (d=1.39>0,80) and is statistically significant (t (20) =-6.37< p=0,001). The mean value for information quality was 90.29 (SD=14.73) in the pre-test and 98.91 (SD=7.60) in the post-test, with a mean difference of -8.62. The t-test result (-3.25) is statistically significant. Therefore, it exhibits a discernible medium effect size (d0.71). In the same way, the mean value for the choice of strategies was 41,76 (SD=7.63) in the pre-test and 73.43 (SD=10.37) in the post-test, attaining a mean difference of -10.66, signifying that there is a significant difference. In closing, and in the level of formality, there was a mean difference of -10.00 between the pre-test and post-test, with the pre-mean test's value being 91,76 (SD=9.65) and the latter's being 101,76 (SD=8.34). The t-value (-4,80) is therefore significant, and the effect size (d=1.05>0,80) is large.

4.2.1 Comparison between the Post-test Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups

Table 28

Comparison between the Post Test Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups

Aspects of	***Control (n= 21)***		***Experimental (n= 27)***				***Effect***
Appropriacy	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	***T- Value***	***df***	***size "d"***
Correct expressions	**83.38**	**10.78**	**98.76**	**5.95**	**6.20****	**40.25**	**1.72**
Quality of information	**94.12**	**9.25**	**98.90**	**7.60**	**1.91***	**45**	**0.56**
Strategies choices	**43.23**	**7.14**	**73.43**	**10.37**	**11.80****	**45**	**3.46**
Level of formality	**92.65**	**9.33**	**101.76**	**8.34**	**3.49****	**45**	**1.02**

**** P < .05; ** P < .001***

Figure 25 *Correct Expressions of 3 rd Year Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests.*

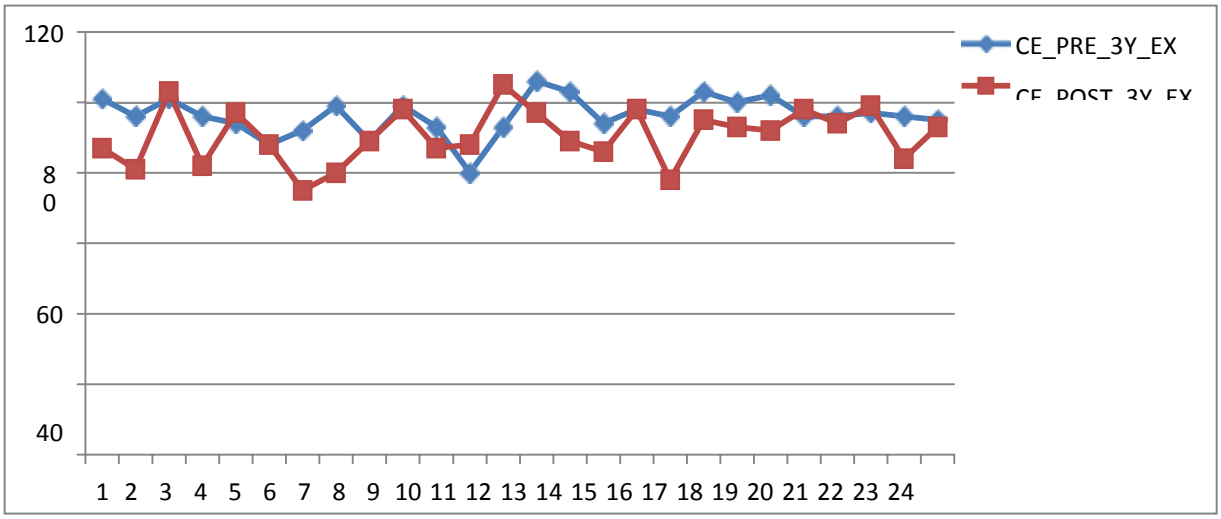


Figure 26 *Quality of Information for 3rd Year Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests.*

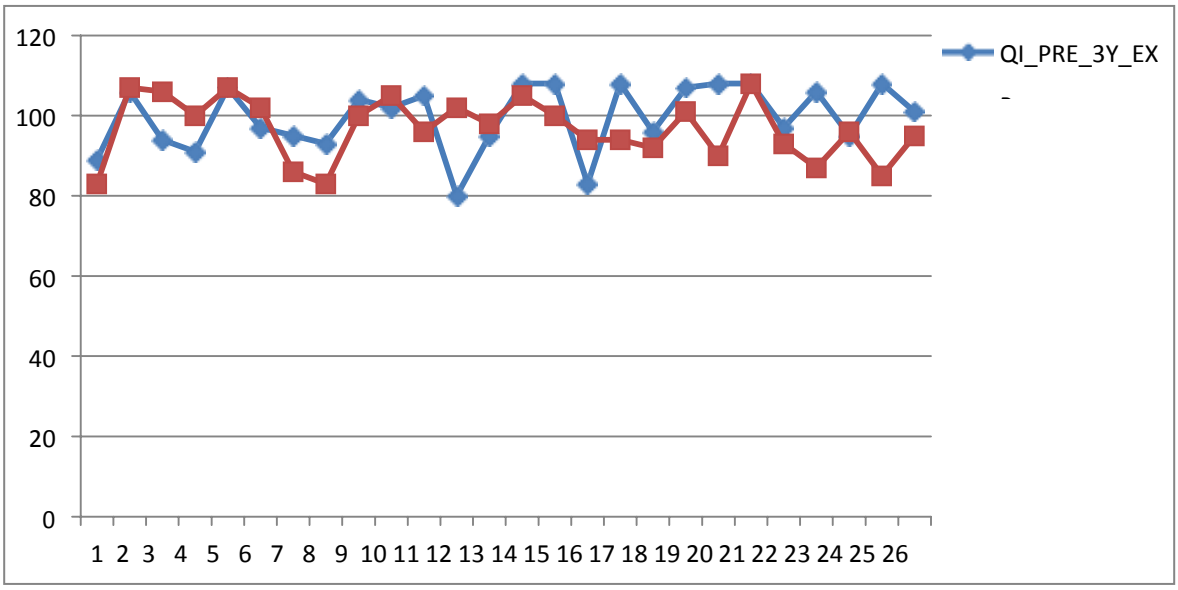


Figure 27 *Choice of Strategies of 3rd Year Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests.*

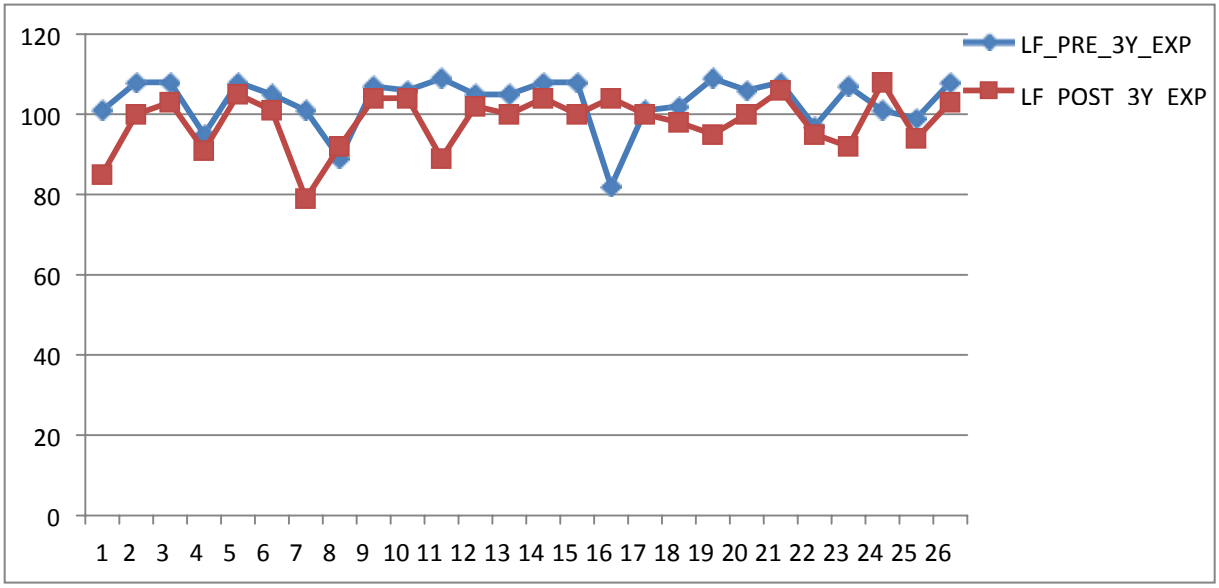
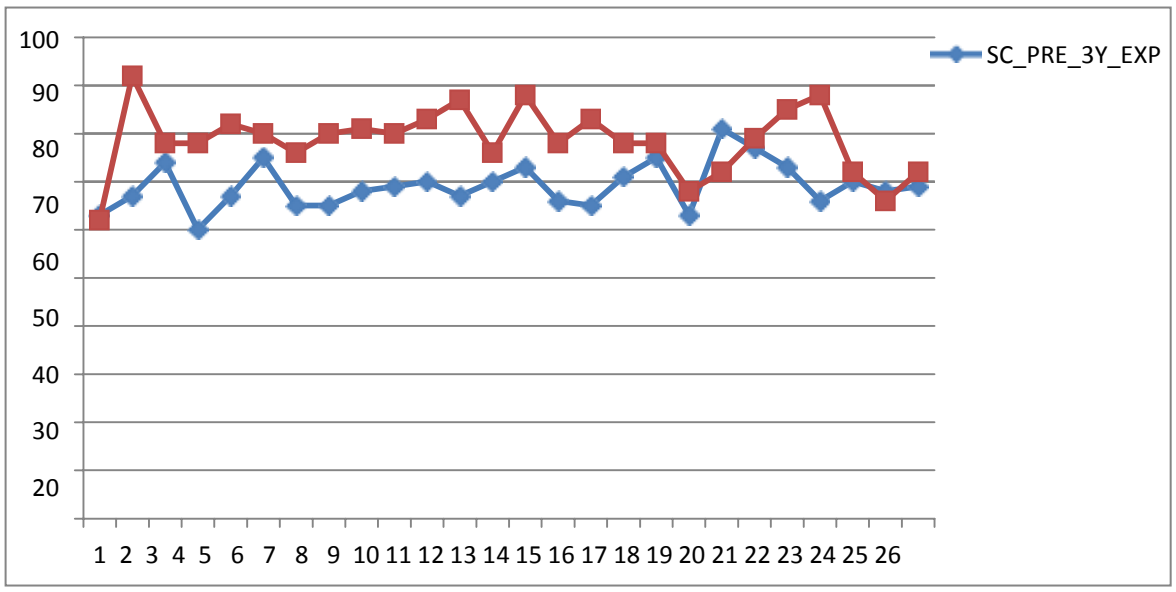


Figure 28 *Level of Formality of 3rd Year Experimental Group in Pre and Post Tests.*



According to table 28, the experimental group's mean value for the aspect of correct expressions was 98.76 (SD=5.95) and the control group's mean value was 84.38 (SD=10.78). This difference has a large effect size (d=1.72) and is statistically significant (40.25) = 6.20. In terms of information quality, the control group's mean value was 94.12

(SD=9.25), while the experimental group's was 98.90 (SD=7.60). T- test result (6.20) has statistical significance. It therefore has a discernible effect size (d=1.72). In addition, the mean value for the choice of strategies was 73.43 (SD=1 0.37) in the experimental group and 43.23 (SD=7.14) in the control group. And when it comes to formality, the experimental group's mean value was 101.76 (SD=8.34), compared to the control group's mean value of 92.65 (SD=9.33). Consequently, the t-value (3.49), which has a large effect size (d=1.02), is significant. However, the data shown in the table indicates that there is a substantial difference between the experimental group's and control group's outcomes. Thus, the treatment's implementation had a significant influence on the experimental group's performance.

4.3 Qualitative Analysis of Role Plays (License Students)

Third year students were given six situations to act out role-plays with four female lecturers. The situations were as follow: a) The interviewer 's office, b) At the campus, c) In the classroom, d) Professor giving a lecture, e) The university cafeteria, f) The professor 's office. Participants' performance in the pre and the post test was evaluated under the concept of relevance to the given situation. Hence, the analysis is based on the three aspects of relevance theory as follow: Relevance and cognition (c1), relevance and communication (c2), relevance and comprehension (c3). The role plays were analyzed using relevance theory by examining how the participants in the role play use language to convey information and make their intended meaning clear to one another. Here are the patterns in which relevance theory was applied to analyze data collected from role plays:

1. Identify the communicative goals of the participants: The first step in analyzing a role play using relevance theory is to identify the communicative goals of the participants. This involves understanding what each participant is trying to achieve through their use of requests or refusals in the role play. To accurately identify the communicative goals of the participants, it is essential to have more contextual information regarding the specific role play scenario. Communication goals can vary depending on the situation, individuals involved, and the purpose of the interaction. This pattern was very visible when comparing the pre and posttest of participants 1, 2, and 3 as follows:

Example 1: Situation one: The interviewer's office

Pre test

Participant 1: *"oh, the problem is in the afternoon. I can't come in the afternoon"*

Post Test

Participant 1: *"well, I am afraid I can't make it because I have something to do in the morning, so how about the afternoon?"*

In this example, we can notice the difference between the utterances made by the same participant in the same situation. Participant 1 had a well-elaborated refusal regarding the situation in the post test. For instance, in the pretest the participant was not aware of the sociopragmatic factors that should be taken into consideration to perform an appropriate refusal (the interview office) that appertains to the given situation, whereas in the post test after receiving the instructional treatment, the participant became acquainted with the target context, in which the utterance changed in terms of the choice of words and strategies

(well, I am afraid I can't make it) in the post test compared to the pretest (I can't come in the afternoon). Moreover, an explanation through which the participant indicated why he rejected the refusal was added (I have something to do in the morning) along with an alternative (so how about the afternoon?).

More examples that support the aforementioned findings are presented infra:

Example 2: Situation one: The interviewer's office

Pre test

Participant 2: *"afternoon (..)I am really interested about that, but I have a part time job"*

Post Test

Participant 2: *"I'm sorry actually I can't in this afternoon. If it's not a troublous for you, you, please, change it to the morning because I will not come in the afternoon"*

Example 3: The Professor's office

Pre test

Participant 3: *"I really want, but I (???)"*

Post Test

Participant 3: *"I am really interested with this, but I have another work, so I cannot. I am really sorry"*

2. Analyze the linguistic clues used to convey meaning: Relevance theory suggests that people use a variety of linguistic clues to convey meaning, these clues include

• Literal Meaning: The literal meaning of words and sentences forms the basis of communication. It refers to the surface-level, explicit information being conveyed.

• Implicature: Implicatures are additional meanings conveyed indirectly, beyond the literal meaning of the words. They rely on the listener's ability to infer implied information based on contextual and background knowledge. Implicatures can be categorized as conventional (based on shared cultural or linguistic conventions) or conversational (derived from the specific communicative context). In the field of speech acts, they are indirect speech acts.

Thus, by analyzing the language used in the role play, you can identify these different types of clues and determine how they contribute to the overall meaning of the communication.

Example 1: Situation six: The Professor's office

Pre test

Participant*:* *"//yes, I know. I am really interested. // I would like to come. It would be a great pleasure, but I didn't finish my research yes. I still have a lot of things to do about it, and I don't have free time or any time left because I have to present"*

Post test

Participant: *"I really like to, but I have other commitments. I have an appointment at the doctor, and I can't come"*

According to this example, in the pretest the participant refused the professor's offer to attend a conference by providing lengthy utterances repeating the same explanations (*I didn't finish my research … I still have a lot of things to do .. I don't have free time or any*

time left) as for why he could not attend the conference, while in the post test the participant rebuffed the professor's offer using a statement of want (*I really like to)* followed by an explanation (*but I have other commitments. I have an appointment at the doctor)* which can be understood from the literal meaning of the words. This might be related to the fact that the focus of the instructional treatment was on how to formulate refusals that comply with native speakers' norms.

Example 2: Situation one: The interviewer's office

Pre test

Participant: *"I really appreciate this, but I am sorry; I cannot because I have other things to do can we (XYZ) postpone it?"*

Post test

Participant: *"Okay. I would like to attend with you, but I am very sorry because I have another work"*

Interviewer: *"so, at what time you would like to have the interview?"*

As for this example, in the pretest the participant asked to postpone the interview explicitly by saying (can we postpone it?) which was clear to the interviewer that the participant was asking for another meeting that suits his availability. Contrariwise, in the post test the request through which the participant was asking for a second interview was implicit, as the participant did not ask for another meeting directly, instead the request was formed using an expression of wish (I would like to attend with you) followed by an expression of apology (but I am very sorry) and a reason (because I have another work).

The participant employed a mild hint to make the interviewer arrange another meeting which indicates the aspect of implicature as a sign of politeness.

Example 3: Situation four: Professor giving a lecture

Pre test

Participant: *"I really was busy. I have part time job, and I always--I didn't finish early, that's why I am late in presenting"*

Professor: *"okay, so for how long is the extension?"*

Post test

Participant: *"I am fine. Thank you. I just wanna ask you about more time- an extension because I haven't finished my job"*

It is clear in this example that the participant changed the linguistic clues used in requesting an extension from the professor. In the pretest, although the request was implicit (I really was busy. I have part time job, and I always--I didn't finish early, that's why I am late in presenting) , the professor deduced that the participant was asking for a deadline extension (okay, so for how long is the extension?), whereas in the post test the participant asked for an extension in an explicit way (I just wanna ask you about more time- an extension because I haven't finished my job"). The participant used native-like utterances without the waffling that was obvious in the pretest.

3. Evaluate the cognitive effort required to process the communication: Relevance theory suggests that people seek to optimize the relevance of the information they receive by balancing the cognitive effort required to process the information with the potential

benefits of understanding it. In analyzing a role play, you can evaluate how the participants use language to minimize the cognitive effort required to understand their meaning, while still conveying the information they intend to communicate.

Example 1: Situation four: Professor giving a lecture

Pre test

Participant: *"Actually I want to ask for more time because I gathered a lot of information, and I cannot collect--well, actually I need some more time to bring- "*

Professor: *"//well, I always insist that you submit your papers in due time//"*

Participant: *"//yeah, I know//--yes, I know you already put a deadline, but actually I had a lot of information. I cannot collect them. So messy; it's just like a mess to collect them well, so I need –"*

Post test

Participant: *"I actually was going through too hard times and some issues at the home, and I need a couple of days to complete it. Would you please give it to me? I need it badly"*

Professor: *"two days"*

Participant: *"yeah"*

In this example, the participant was asking for a deadline extension to submit the assignment. It was noticed that the participant was waffling and providing many excuses (*I*

just wanna ask you about more time- an extension because I haven't finished my job) in order to request a deadline extension from the Professor, while in the post test the request was concise and clear to the Professor. The participant managed to convey the message effectively with less effort through deploying the strategies being taught in the treatment, namely willingness (*Would you please give it to me?*), reason *(I actually was going through too hard times and some issues at the home),* and politeness marker (*please*). Other examples are demonstrated as follows:

Example 2: Situation Three: In the classroom

Pre test

Classmate: *"I heard that you were absent"*

Participant: *"yes, unfortunately, I didn't want to miss that lecture, but actually everything goes wrong, and: (..) yeah"*

Classmate: *"how can I help you?"*

Participant: *"can I, please (with emphasis), take your notes, take some notes from you? (xyz)"*

Post test

Classmate: *"//yes, I heard about your sickness that you missed the class//"*

Participant: *"//yes. Actually, that's why I would like to ask you for your notes. Would you please lend them to me? //"*

Classmate: *"ah, of course, yes. Here they are"*

As the abovementioned example (situation three: in the classroom) expounds, the difference in the utterance length is apparent in the participant's ability to produce a clear and concise message to borrow her friend's notes compared to the one in the pretest where she overused unnecessary words to form a request. Furthermore, the participant deployed an expression of wish (I would like to ask you for your notes) along with an expression of willingness (Would you please lend them to me?)

4. Consider the context and background knowledge of the participants: Finally, relevance theory suggests that people rely on their background knowledge and the context of the communication to understand the intended meaning. When analyzing a role play, it is important to consider the context and background knowledge of the participants that unfolds language use, level of detail, assumption and references, and ostensive communication (non-verbal cues), as this will influence how they interpret and respond to the language used in the communication.

The following examples are analyzed with regard to the use of appropriate language and providing the necessary explanations or clarifications that facilitate a better understanding of the context and minimizing the cognitive efforts:

Example 1: Situation one: The interviewer's office

Pre test

Participant: *"Monday afternoon? I am actually busy on the afternoon; I have a parttime job, and I need to go"*

Post test

Participant: *"Monday afternoon? Sorry, I am not free Monday afternoon. What about Sunday (ALL CAPS) morning?"*

When given the task of making a refusal, the participant in the pretest could not formulate an appropriate refusal due to the unfamiliarity with the given context (the interviewer's office), as evidenced by the utterance (*I am actually busy on the afternoon; I have a parttime job, and I need to go*). It is, hence, clear that the utterance (I have a part-time job) should not be used in such a context as it is deemed to be irrelevant when applying for a job. However, in the post test and after being involved in a similar situation (job interview) during the treatment phase, this enabled the participant to possess pertinent and adequate background knowledge regarding the context, as illustrated by saying: (*Sorry, I am not free Monday afternoon. What about Sunday (ALL CAPS) morning*?) which is regarded as appropriate. The participant provided an expression of apology (sorry), a suggestory formula (What about Sunday (ALL CAPS) morning?). Followed by a question with the intonation and facial expressions of a question which indicates that the participant now can express his request for another meeting just through ostensive communication (*monday afternoon?*)

Example 2: Situation one: The interviewer's office

Pre test

Participant: *"Monday afternoon?? I am really sorry, I can't come in the afternoon"*

Post test

Participant: *"well, I am afraid I can't make it because I have something to do in the morning, so how about the afternoon?"*

As shown in this example, in the pretest the participant made a direct refusal without any explanations while in the post test the student made her refusal using an expression of apology *(well, I am afraid I can't make it),* stated a reason for why she cannot make it on that day (*can't make it because I have something to do in the morning*), then she gave an alternative using a suggestory formula (*so how about the afternoon?).* Hence, the refusal is said to be appropriate as it contains all the necessary elements of an appropriate refusal (an expression of apology, a detailed explanation and an alternative).

Overall, applying relevance theory to the analysis of role plays can provide insights into how people use language to convey meaning and optimize the relevance of their communication.

The interpretation of the role plays exhibits the significant difference in participants 'performance between the pre and posttests. It is highly noticed that participants have improved the manifestation of the relevance aspects after being exposed to the treatment. The choice of words in each situation was highly clear to be more effective with less effort, more reliance on cognitive context and ostensive communication.

4.4 Qualitative Analysis of Role Plays (MA Students)

MA students' performance was evaluated using relevance theory by examining how the participants in the role play perform requests and refusals and make their intended meaning clear to one another based on the following patterns:

1. Identify the communicative goals of the participants: The first step in analyzing a role play using relevance theory is to identify the communicative goals of the participants. This involves understanding what each participant is trying to achieve through their use of language in the role play, interlocutors' relationships, context of the situation and the purpose of the interaction.

Example 1: Situation one: The interviewer's office

Pre test

Participant: "uh, if you so know I work pm shift, and I missed today's shift and I can't miss

the work next time."

Post Test

Participant: "*No, I'm sorry. I have something to do at that time. How about the morning?"*

We can see how different the utterances produced by the same participant in the exact same situation are in this case (The interviewer's office). In the post test, participant 1 made a well-explained refusal about the situation at hand. For instance, the participant in the pretest lacked the necessary context knowledge (the interview office) to formulate an appropriate refusal that applied to the given situation, whereas in the post test, following the instructional intervention, the participant gained familiarity with the target context (I'm sorry. I have something to do at that time. How about the morning?), resulting in a different utterance in terms of word choice (expression of apology: I'm sorry, a reason: *I have*

something to do at that time, and a statement of alternative: *How about the morning?)* compared to the pretest (if you so know I work pm shift). In addition, the participant started the refusal with a flat "no" followed by an expression of apology (I am sorry) , then she rendered a rationale for refusing(I have something to do at that time) and an alternative (How about the morning?).

Further examples that support the aforementioned conclusions are provided below:

Example 2: Situation one: The interviewer's office

Pre test

Participant: *"eh I will try to attend, but I have a job in the afternoon. Could I please get it in the morning?"*

Post Test

Participant: *"Actually, I am afraid to say that I am not available on afternoons. Would you make it possible to have it on mornings?"*

Example 3: The Professor's office

Pre test

Participant: *"Ehh sorry i can't attend because (silence).. I can't attend because ehh I have an appointment."*

Post Test

Participant: *"another interview tomorrow afternoon (…) I'm so sorry. I'm so busy. I can't. Would you please delay it into another time?"*

2. Analyze the linguistic clues used to convey meaning: Relevance theory suggests that people use a variety of linguistic clues to convey meaning, including literal meaning, implicatures, and presuppositions. By analyzing the language used in the role play, you can identify these different types of clues and determine how they contribute to the overall meaning of the communication.

Example 1: Situation six: The Professor's office

Pre test

Participant: *"i eh i was leaving now and I have a personal commitment and I eh. It was really eh(smiles) I really wanted to attend with you. Is there another way(interrupted)"*

Post test

Participant: *"I wish to attend, but I'm sorry my mother was sick. I have to take her to the doctor."*

In this example, the participant declined the professor's invitation to attend a conference in an indirect and implicit manner by providing explanations for why he was unable to do so, whereas in the post test, the participant explicitly refused the professor's invitation, which is clear from the literal meaning of the words (wish statement: *I wish to attend,* an expression of apology and a reason: *but I'm sorry my mother was sick)*. This may be due to the instructional treatment's emphasis on how to form refusals that conform native speakers' norms.

Example 2: Situation one: The interviewer's office

Pre test

Participant: *"//I am free in the mornings if you have any time to make this happen//"*

Post test

Participant: *"I'm so sorry. I can't attend because I'm busy"*

Interviewer: *"How about Saturday afternoon?"*

In the present scenario, the participant explicitly requested that the interview should be postponed during the pre-test by asking, (*if you have any time to make this happen?*). The interviewer understood that the participant was requesting a different meeting time that suited his availability. Contrarily, in the post test, the participant did not explicitly request a second meeting; instead, the interviewer inferred this utterance to be a request for a second meeting because the participant used other expressions to convey the meaning of scheduling a second meeting using an expression of apology (*I'm so sorry*) and a reason (*I can't attend because I'm busy*), denoting participants' awareness of the aspect of implicature which is reflected through indirect speech acts to express the communicative objective of request politely.

Example 3: Situation four: Professor giving a lecture

Pre test

Participant: *"yes, normally, it is for today, but unfortunately, I have--yesterday I was sick and I couldn't finish it. What if you!"*

Professor: *"//you need extra time? //"*

Post test

Participant: *"I'm really sorry. I couldn't finish it today. Could you please give me an extension?"*

In this example, it is obvious that the participant altered the verbal cues used to ask the professor for an extension. The participant overused the explanation strategy in the pretest (*but unfortunately I have--yesterday I was sick and I couldn't finish it*), however, in the post test, the participant used conventionally indirect requests, namely expression of apology (*I'm really sorry*) and a query preparatory (*Could you please give me an extension?*) which are native-like strategies with appropriate length of utterances.

3. Evaluate the cognitive effort required to process the communication: Relevance theory suggests that people seek to optimize the relevance of the information they receive by balancing the cognitive effort required to process the information with the potential benefits of understanding it. In analyzing a role play, you can evaluate how the participants use language to minimize the cognitive effort required to understand their meaning, while still conveying the information they intend to communicate.

Example 1: Situation four: Professor giving a lecture

Pre test

Participant: *"yes, but actually I didn't make my research paper"*

Professor: *"what' the problem ?"*

Participant: *"hum; I had some problems"*

Professor: *"so, what are you asking for?"*

Participant: *"I am asking to extend my--to have another chance to give it to you"*

Professor: *"for how long?"*

Participant: *"three or four days"*

Post test

Participant: *"yes, but during the current circumstances, I couldn't finish my work. So, could you please give me some extra time?"*

Professor: *"for how long?"*

Participant: *"a couple of days maybe"*

Professor: *"okay, if for a couple of days, it's okay.I will be waiting for the assignment"*

In the present example, the participant was requesting an extension of the due date for submitting the assignment. When asking the professor for a deadline extension, it was seen that the participant was waffling by offering numerous justifications, in contrast to the post-test, where the request was straightforward and simple with an appropriate length and less efforts (*yes, but during the current circumstances, I couldn't finish my work. So, could you please give me some extra time?")*. The participant used the techniques given in the treatment to successfully and efficiently perform the request. The following situations serve as more examples:

Example 2: Situation Three: In the classroom

Pre test

Participant: *"yes. I was late, so I couldn't make it"*

Classmate: *"okay. hum"*

Participant: *"hum could you please--uh can I attend-"*

Classmate: *"//you mean my notes ? //"*

Participant: *"can you borrow me your notes ?"*

Classmate: *"yes, of course ? No problem. Here they are"*

Post test

Participant: *"ah, yes, of course. I need your notes to copy what you have dealt with "*

Classmate: *"yes, of course. Here they are"*

As the preceding example (*situation 3: in a classroom*) illustrates, the participant's ability to compose a clear and short message to borrow her friend's notes contrasts favorably with the one in the pretest, where she overused unnecessary words.

4.Consider the context and background knowledge of the participants: Finally, relevance theory suggests that people rely on their background knowledge and the context of the communication to understand the intended meaning. When analyzing a role play, it is important to consider the context and background knowledge of the participants, as this will influence how they interpret and respond to the language used in the communication.

The use of appropriate language, supplying the required explanations or clarifications that assist a better grasp of the situation, and minimizing cognitive efforts will be examined in the context of the following examples:

Example 1: Situation one: The interviewer's office

Pre test

Participant: *"Actually there is a problem about that, I can't make it in the afternoon it's a pause of my part time job aaahhh."*

Post test

Participant: *"No, I can't. I apologize. I have emergency work to do. I really appreciate it if you make it in the afternoon."*

Due to unfamiliarity with the task's setting (*the interviewer's office*), the pretest participant who was required to make a refusal was unable to do so, as shown by the utterance (*I can't make it in the afternoon it's a pause of my part time job aaahhh..*). It follows that the statement should not be utilized in a situation as it is considered irrelevant for a job application. However, in the post test and after taking part in a situation such to this (*a job interview*) throughout the treatment phase, this enabled the participant to have appropriate and sufficient background information regarding the context, as demonstrated by saying (*No, I can't. I apologize. I have emergency work to do. I really appreciate it if you make it in the afternoon?*). The refusal started with a flat "no" and negative ability *(I can't*) followed by a reason (*I have emergency work to do*) and an alternative (*I really appreciate it if you make it in the afternoon?*)

Example 2: Situation one: The interviewer's office

Pre test

Participant: *"I'm so sorry. I can't attend."*

Post test

Participant: *"Actually, sorry, I am afraid to say that I am not available on afternoons I'm very busy. Would you make it possible to have it on mornings?"*

As demonstrated in this example, in the pretest the participant made a direct refusal without providing any justification (*I'm so sorry. I can't attend*), whereas in the post test the student performed her refusal using an expression of apology (*sorry, I am afraid to say that I am not available on afternoons*), provided an explanation for why she cannot make it on that day (*I'm very busy*), and then she provided an alternative (*Would you make it possible to have it on mornings?*). As a result, the refusal is deemed appropriate because it includes all the necessary components (*an expression of apology, a justification, and an alternative*) in this specific situation.

The interpretation of the role plays (MA students) reveals a notable change in the ability of the participants to effectively perform requests and refusals with the relevant contextual information between the pre and posttests. After receiving the treatment, participants' oral production through role plays improved significantly regarding the notions of manifestness, effort, and effect concepts of Relevance Theory. It was abundantly evident which utterances to use in each situation in order to communicate effectively and infer the intended meaning with less effort.

4.5 Quantitative Analysis of Pragmatic Awareness Test (License Students)

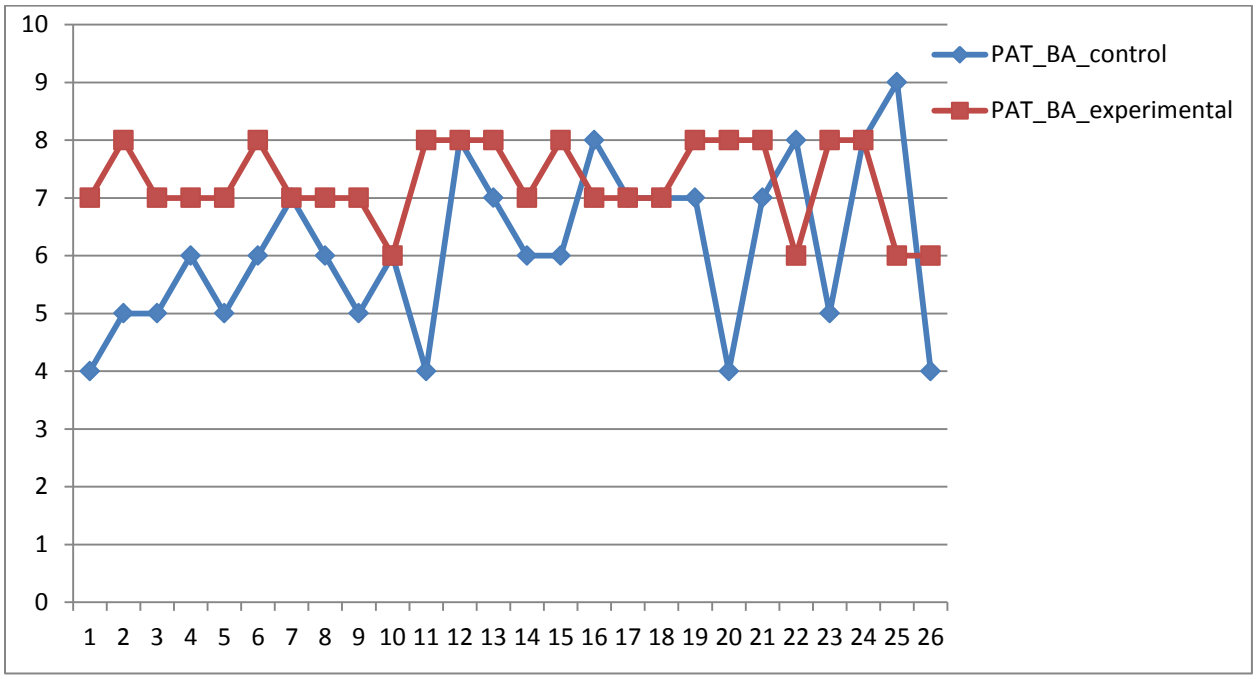
Table 29

Comparison between Control and Experimental Group (License Students)

Dependent variable	*Control (n= 27)*		*Experimental (n= 27)*		*T- Value*	*Df*	*Effect size "d"*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*			
Awareness of appropriate requests and refusals	6.15	1.43	7.27	0.72	3.54**	36.98	0.98

P<0.001

Figure 29 *Comparison between Control and Experimental Group in the Post Test (License Students)*



As table 29 illustrates, the mean value of the control group is 6,15 (SD=1, 43), while the mean value of the experimental group is 7,27 (SD=1,42). Hence, the difference between the groups is statistically significant and has a large effect size (d=0, 98).

4.5.1 Qualitative Analysis of the Justifications Provided by License Students

4.5.1.1 Experimental Group (Pre -Test)

In situation 1, 25 (93%) students viewed the refusal as appropriate, while 2 (7%) of them perceived it as inappropriate. The justifications range between: a reason behind refusing (17 students) and polite refusal (6 students). However, 4 students did not provide a rationale behind their answers.

In situation 2, the highest percentage 93% represents the students who considered the refusal as inappropriate. They provided the following justifications: impolite request (18 students) and suggestion of an alternative (7 students). Conversely, the residue 7% refers to those who described it as appropriate.

As for situation 3, a significant proportion that accounts for 93% refers to the students who viewed the refusal as appropriate. Their justifications are as follows: need for politeness (19 students), suggestion of an alternative (5 students). Contrariwise, a small proportion 7% represent the students who stated that the refusal was not appropriate.

In situation 4, the highest percentage 93% represents the students who perceived the refusal as appropriate, providing the following rationales: polite refusal (8 students), polite apology (4 students), a reason behind refusing (5 students), suggestion of an alternative. However, the lowest percentage 7% refers to the ones who viewed it as inappropriate. It is worth mentioning that 4 students did not justify their answers.

In situation 5, all the research participants agreed that the refusal was inappropriate. They provided the following justifications: need for politeness (12 students), impolite request (8 students), and suggestion of an alternative (7 students).

As for situation 6, 18 (67%) students stated that the refusal was appropriate, while 9 (33%) of them viewed it as inappropriate. The justifications are as follows: a reason for refusing (8 students), criticizing the hearer (5 students), appropriate way of refusing (2 students), social distance (1 student) and need for politeness (5 students). It is worth noting that 6 students did not justify their answers.

In situation 7, all the students agreed that the refusal was appropriate. They provided the following rationales: polite request (20 students) and suggestion of an alternative (7 students).

In situation 8, the highest percentage (85%) represent the students who viewed the refusal as inappropriate. They rendered the following justifications: need for politeness (10 students), informal request (6 students), and suggestion of an alternative (5 students). Contrariwise, the residue (15 %) refers to those who described the refusal as appropriate. Thus, their justifications are as follows: formal request (3 students) and social distance (1 students).

As per situation 9, all the students viewed the refusal as appropriate. They rendered the following justifications: polite refusal (15 students), a reason for making the request (10 students). However, 2 participants did not provide a rationale behind their answers.

In situation 10, the majority of students 93% stated that the refusal was appropriate. Their justifications are as follows: polite refusal (15 students), a promise to perform the action in

the future (3 students), and high social distance (3 students). Contrariwise, 7% of them viewed the refusal as inappropriate. Ultimately, only 3 research participants did not provide a justification for their answers.

Table 30

Justifications Provided by License Students in the Pretest.

Situations	Appropriate	Inappropriate
	25	**2**
Situation 1	a reason for refusing17 Polite Refusal 6 No Justification 2	No justification 2
	2	**25**
Situation 2	Formal request 1 a reason behind requesting 1	Impolite request 18 Suggesting an alternative 7
	25	**2**
Situation 3	Need for politeness 19 Suggestion of an alternative 5	No justification 2
	25	**2**
Situation 4	Polite Refusal 8 Polite Apology 4A reason behindrefusing 5 Suggestion of analternative 5 No answer 2	No justification 2
	0	**27**
Situation 5		Need for politeness 12 Impolite request 8 Suggestion of an alternative 7

Situations	**Appropriate**	**Inappropriate**
	18	**9**
Situation 6	A reason forrefusing 8 Criticize the hearer 5 Appropriate way ofrefusing 2 Social Distance 1 No answer 2	Need for politeness 5 No reason 4
	27	**0**
Situation 7	Polite request 20 Provide a reason for refusing +suggestion ofan alternative 7	
	4	**23**
Situation 8	Formal Request 3 Social Distance 1	Need for politeness 10 Suggestion of Alternative 5 Informal request 6 No answer 2
	27	**0**
Situation 9	Polite Request 15 A reason for making the request 10 No answer 2	
	25	**2**
Situation 10	Polite refusal 15 Suggestion of an alternative 2 A promise to perform the action in the future3 High social distance 3No answer 2	Informal refusal 1 No answer 1

4.5.1.2 Experimental Group (Post-test)

In situation 1, the highest percentage (96%) accounts for the students who viewed the refusal as appropriate, while the lowest percentage (4%) refers to the student who considered it as inappropriate. The justifications are as follows: high status of the speaker (13 students), a reason behind refusing (5 students), high social distance (2 students), high degree of imposition (7 students). However, the research participant who stated that the refusal was inappropriate did not provide a rationale.

In situation 2, 21 (78**%**) students stated that the refusal was inappropriate, whereas 6 (22**%**) of them viewed it as appropriate. The justifications provided by the students who considered the refusal as inappropriate are as follows: high social distance (10 students), need for politeness (3 students), high degree of imposition (3 students), and suggestion of an alternative (2 students). Nonetheless, the remaining students stated that the refusal is appropriate since there is an equal social status between the interlocutors.

As per situation 3, all the research partakers agreed that the refusal is appropriate. They backed up their choice with the following rationales: a reason behind refusing (10 students), high status of the speaker (8 students), high social distance (5 students), high imposition of the speaker over the hearer (4 students).

In situation 4, the students who viewed the refusal as appropriate represent 89%. The residue 11%, in turn, refers to the ones who considered it as inappropriate. The most common justifications range between a reason behind refusing (11 students), high status of the speaker and low status of the hearer (6 students), and polite refusal (4 students). Moreover, only two students did not justify their answers.

As for situation 5, all the research participants perceived the refusal as inappropriate. Their justifications are as follows: impolite refusal (10 students), high social distance (13 students), high degree of imposition (4 students).

In situation 6, a significant proportion that accounts for 85% represents the students who viewed the refusal as appropriate. The rationales range between low social distance (23 students) and low degree of imposition (2 students). Conversely, a small proportion 15% refers to those who deemed the refusal as appropriate. They stated that the refusal needs to be more polite.

In situation 7, all the research participants agreed that the refusal was appropriate. The rationales are as follows: high social distance (15 students), polite request (7 students), high degree of imposition (3 students), and reason behind the request (2 students).

As for situation 8, the highest percentage 85% refers to the students who deemed the refusal as inappropriate. They ascribed their answer to the low power of the speaker. Contrariwise, the lowest percentage 15 % represents those who stated that the refusal was appropriate due to the existence of a close relationship between the interlocutors.

In situation 9, all the students stated that the refusal was appropriate. The justifications are as follows: low social distance (15 students), polite request (8 students), and low power of the speaker (4 students).

As per situation 10, the majority of students 93 % considered the refusal as appropriate. They rendered the following rationales: polite refusal (10 students), close social distance (10 students), and low degree of imposition (5 students). However, 7% of them viewed it inappropriate since there is a high social distance between the interlocutors.

Table 31

Justifications Provided by License Students in the Post Test

Situations	Appropriate	Inappropriate
	26	**1**
Situation 1	High Status of the Speaker 13 There is a reason behind refusing 5 High social distance 2 High degree of imposition 7 No answer 1	No answer 1
	6	21
Situation 2	Equal social status 6	High social distance 10 Need for politeness 3 Direct Request 3 High Degree of imposition 3 Suggestion of an alternative 2
	27	0
Situation 3	A reason behind refusing 10 High status of the speaker 8 High social distance 5 High imposition of the speaker over the hearer 4	
	24	3
Situation 4	Polite Refusal 4 A reason behind refusing 11 High status of the speaker and low status of the hearer 6 No answer 2	Direct Refusal 2 No answer 1
	0	27
Situation 5		Impolite Refusal 10 High social distance 13 High Degree of imposition 4
	25	2

Situation 6	Low Social Distance 23 Low degree of imposition 2	Need for politeness 1 Impolite refusal 1
	27	0
Situation 7	Polite and convincing request 7 High social distance 15 High degree of Imposition 3 A reason behind the request 2	
	4	23
Situation 8	Social Distance «Intimate » 4	Low Power of the speaker (from low to high social status)23
	27	0
Situation 9	Polite request 8 Low social distance 15 Low power of the speaker 4	
	25	2
Situation 10	Polite refusal 10 Close social distance 10 Low degree of imposition 5	High social distance 2

4.5.1. 3 Control Group (Pre-test)

In situation 1, the highest percentage 85% refers to the students who described the refusal as appropriate. They rendered the following justifications: irrelevant (12 students), explanation (4 students), social distance (7 students). However, the lowest percentage (15%) represents those who viewed it as inappropriate since it as irrelevant. Lastly, 4 participants did not justify their answers.

Fifty nine percent (59%) of students viewed the refusal as inappropriate in situation 2. They backed up their answers with the following justifications: impolite request (5 students) and an alternative (3 students). However, 41% of them decided that it was appropriate using the following rationales: irrelevant (6 students), explanation (2 students) , and social distance (1 student). It is worth noting that 10 students did not render a rationale.

As for situation 3, a significant proportion that accounts for 52% represents the students who described the refusal as inappropriate. The justifications are as follows: impolite request (5 students) and alternative (2 students). Conversely, a small proportion 48% refers to those who viewed the refusal as appropriate. They provided the following justifications: explanation (4 students), high degree of imposition (2 students), irrelevant (3 students), and social power (1 student). It is worth mentioning that 8 students did not justify their answers.

In situation 4, the majority of students 78% stated that the refusal was appropriate. They provided the following justifications: irrelevant (5 students), polite request (5 students) and explanation (5 students). However, 22% of them viewed the refusal as inappropriate. The justifications are as follows: irrelevant (2 students), explanation (3 students). 7 students did not provide a justification for their answers.

As for situation 5, the highest percentage 81 % accounts for the students who considered the refusal as inappropriate, while the lowest percentage 19% represents those who described it as appropriate. The justifications are as follows: impolite refusal (6 students), social power (4 students), alternative (4 students), explanation (2 students), irrelevant (1 student). It is worth noting that 10 students did not justify their answers.

In situation 6, 78% of students stated that the refusal was inappropriate using the following rationales: impolite refusal (7 students), alternative (5 students), irrelevant (3 students), and explanation (1 student). However, 22% of them viewed the refusal as appropriate, without providing any justifications.

As per situation 7, the majority of students 89% viewed the refusal as inappropriate. They rendered the following justifications: polite request (13 students), irrelevant (4 students), and explanation (3 students). However, only 3 students (11%) stated that the refusal was inappropriate without any justifications.

In situation 8, a significant proportion that accounts for 59 % represents the students who described the refusal as inappropriate. Their justifications are as follows: impolite request (5 students), social power (2 students), and alternative (2 students). Nonetheless, a small proportion 41% refers to those who viewed it as inappropriate. They provided the following rationales: social distance (2 students), polite request (1 student), irrelevant (2 students). It is worth mentioning that 12 students did not provide a rationale behind their answers.

As for situation 9, the highest percentage 74% refers to the students who considered the refusal as appropriate, while the lowest percentage 26% represents those who viewed it as inappropriate. The justifications are as follows: explanation (3 students) and alternative (5 students).

In situation 10, 78 % of the students stated that the refusal was appropriate. They provided the following justifications: Impolite refusal (10 students), explanation (5 students), irrelevant (2 students), silence (3 students), and alternative (1 student). However, 22 **%** of them viewed the refusal as inappropriate as it was irrelevant.

Table 32

Justifications Provided by License Students in the Pre-Test

Situations	Appropriate	Inappropriate
	23 (85%)	**4 (15%)**
Situation 1	Explanation 12 Social Distance 7 Unjustified 4	Irrelevant 4
	11(41%)	**16(59%)**
Situation 2	Irrelevant 6 Social Distance 1 Explanation 2 No justification 2	Impolite Request 5 Suggest an alternative 3 No justification 8
	13(48%)	**14(52%)**
Situation 3	Irrelevant 3 High Degree of Imposition 2 Explanation 4 Social Power 1 No justification 3	Give an Alternative 2 Impolite Request 5 Explanation 2 No justification 5
	21 (78%)	**6(22%)**
Situation 4	Irrelevant 5 Polite Request 5 Explanation 5 No justification 6	Irrelevant 2 Explanation 3 No justification 1
	5(19%)	**22(81%)**
Situation 5	Explanation 1 Irrelevant 1. No Justification 3	Alternative 4 Impolite Refusal 6 Social Power 4 Explanation 1 NO JUSTIFICATION 7
	6(22%)	**21(78%)**
Situation 6	No Justification 8	Irrelevant 3 Alternative 5 Explanation 1 Impolite Refusal 7 No justification 5
	24(89%)	**3(11%)**
Situation 7	Irrelevant 4 Polite Request 13	No Justification 3

	Explanation 3 No Justification 4	
	11(41%)	**16(59%)**
Situation 8	Explanation 1 Social Distance 2 Polite Request 1 Irrelevant 2 No justification 5	Impolite request 5 Alternative 2 Social Power 2 No justification 7
	20(74%)	**7(26%)**
Situation 9	Explanation 4 Polite Request 5 No justification 11	Explanation 3 Alternative 4
	21 (78%)	**6(22%)**
Situation 10	Impolite Refusal 10 Explanation 5 Irrelevant 2 Silence 3 Alternative 1	Irrelevant 6

4.5.1.4 Control Group (Post-test)

In situation 1, all the students agreed that the refusal was appropriate. They rendered the following rationales: high status of the speaker (15 students), high degree of imposition (5 students), a reason behind refusing (5 students), polite refusal (1 student), and need for politeness (1 student).

As for situation 2, the highest percentage 67 % represents the students who views the refusal as inappropriate for the following reasons: high social status of the speaker (8 students), high social distance (6 students), need for politeness (2 students), and suggestion of an alternative (2 students).

In situation 3, all the students agreed that the refusal was appropriate. They provided the following justifications: less formal request (8 students), high social status of the speaker (7

students), high social distance (5 students), high degree of imposition (5 students), and high social distance (7 students).

As per situation 4, the majority of students 81 % stated that the refusal was appropriate for the following reasons: high social status of the hearer and low status of the speaker (5 students), a reason behind refusing (10 students), a high degree of imposition (2 students), social distance (2 students), and polite refusal (1 student). However, 9% of them viewed it as inappropriate for the following reasons: high power of the speaker (1 student) and direct refusal (1 student). It is worth noting that 4 students did not justify their answers.

In situation 5, all the students agreed that the refusal was appropriate. They provided the following justifications: high status of the speaker and low status of the hearer (12 students), need for politeness (6 students), and polite refusal (7 students).

In situation 6, the majority of students (89%) stated that the refusal was appropriate since there was an equal social distance between the interlocutors. However, 8 % of them viewed it as inappropriate for the following reasons: impolite refusal (1 student) and need for politeness (1 student).

As for situation 7, the majority of students 92% described the refusal as appropriate. They provided the following justifications: high social distance (15 students), high degree of imposition (5 students) and polite request (5 students).

In situation 8, 67% of the students viewed the refusal as inappropriate for the following reasons: impolite request (10 students) and alternative (7 students). However, 33 % of them viewed it as inappropriate.

In situation 9, all the students agreed that the refusal was appropriate for the following reasons: low status of the speaker (14 students), high social distance (9 students) and polite refusal (4 students).

Table 33

Analysis of the Justifications Provided License Students in the Posttests

Situation 1	Appropriate	Inappropriate
	27 (100%)	**0**
Situation 1	A reason Behind Refusing 5 High Degree of Imposition 5 High Status of the speaker 15 Polite refusal 1 Need for politeness 1	
	9 (33%)	**18 (67%)**
Situation 2	Equal Social Status 5 Polite Request 1 Low Social Distance 1 No reason 1	Need for politeness 2 High Social Status of the speaker 8 Suggestion of an alternative 2 High Social Distance 6

	27(100%)	**0**
Situation 3	High Degree of Imposition 5 High Social Status of the Speaker 7 High Social Distance 7 Providing an excuse for making a less formal request 8	
	22(81%)	**5(9%)**
Situation 4	A reason for refusing 10 High Status of the hearer and Low power of the speaker 5 High degree of imposition 2 An alternative is provided 1 Social Distance 2 No justification 1 Polite refusal 1	High power of the speaker 1 Unjustified 3 Direct Refusal 1
	27 (100%)	**0**
Situation 5	High status of the speaker and low status of the hearer 12 High degree of imposition 2 Need for Politeness 6polite Refusal 7	
	25 (92%)	**2(8%)**
Situation 6	Equal Social Distance « Friends » 25	Impolite refusal 1 Need for politeness 1
	25 (92%)	**2(8%)**
Situation 7	High Degree of Imposition 5 Polite request 5 High social distance “strangers” 15	No justification 2
	9 (33%)	**18 (67%)**
Situation 8	Social distance 9	Impolite request 11 Alternative 7
	27 (100%)	**0**
Situation 9	Polite refusal 4 Low status of the speaker 14 High Social distance 9	
	24(89%)	**3 (11%)**

Situation 10	Low status of the speaker 11 Social distance 13	Unjustified 3

As for situation 10, 89% of the students viewed the refusal as appropriate for the following reasons: low status of the speaker (11 students) and social distance (11 students). However, the lowest percentage (11%) refers to those who described it as inappropriate without justifying their answers.

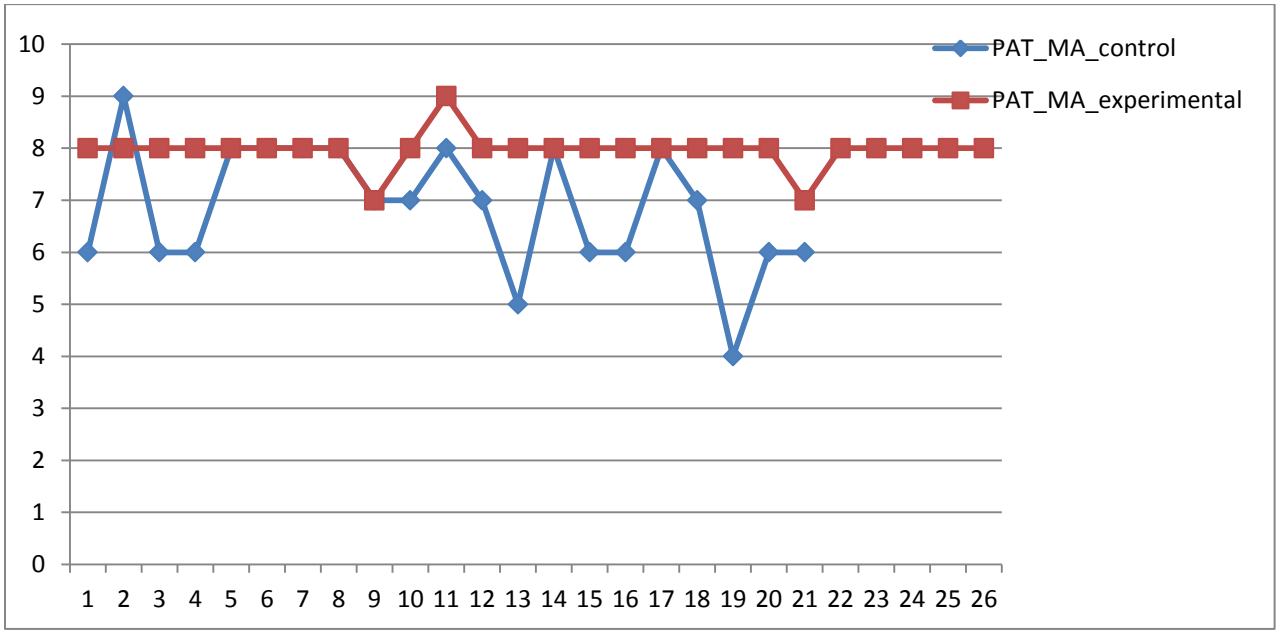
4.6 Analysis of Pragmatic Awareness Test (MA Students)

Table 34

Comparison between Experimental and Control group in the Post Test (MA Students).

Dependent variable	***Control (n= 21)***		***Experimental (n= 27)***		***T- Value***	***Df***	***Effect size "d"***
	M	***SD***	***M***	***SD***			
Awareness of appropriate requests and refusals	6.86	1.24	7.96	0.34	** 3.97	22.51	1.28

Figure 30 Comparison between Experimental and Control group in the Post Test (MA Students).



The mean value of the control group is 6,86 (SD=1,24), whereas the mean value of the experimental group is 7,96 (SD= 0,34). Therefore, the difference between the two groups has a large effect size (d=1,28) and is statistically significant.

4.6.1 Analysis of the Justifications Provided by MA Students

4.6.1.1 Experimental Group (Pre-test)

Table 35

Justifications Provided by MA Students in the Pre-Test

situations	**Appropriate**	**Inappropriate**
s1	25 (92.5%)	2 (7.5%)
	explanation 14 polite refusal 10 distance 1	explanation 1 informal sorry 1
s2	4 (15%)	23 (85%)
	alternative 1 explanation 2 polite refusal 1	impolite request 11 suggestion 5 explanation 5 social distance 2
s3	14 (52%)	13 (48%)
	social distance 3 explanation 11	impolite request 5 alternative 6 explanation 2
s4	22 (81.5%)	5 (18.5%)
	explanation13 polite refusal 9	explanation 3 alternative 2
s5	0 (0%)	27 (100%)
		impolite refusal 14 explanation 4 impolite refusal+ alternative 7 distance 1 alternative1
s6	14 (52%)	13 (48%)
	explanation 9	explanation 4

	social distance 3 explanation+ social distance 1 alternative+ explanation1	explanation+ alternative 2 impolite refusal 3 impolite refusal+ alternative 1 alternative 3
s7	26 (96%)	1 (4%)
	explanation 9 polite request 16 suggestion 1	explanation 1
s8	7 (26%)	20 (74%)
	explanation 6 social distance 1	impolite request +social distance 4social distance 1 impolite request 6 alternative 6 social distance + alternative 2explanation1
s9	21 (78%)	6 (22%)
	explanation 14 polite request 7	impolite request 2 explanation 4
	23 (85%)	4 (15%)
	explanation 13 polite refusal 6 distance 1 no answer 1 polite refusal+ social distance	explanation 3 impolite refusal+ alternative 1 social

The table discusses the results of the experimental group pre-test of M1 students with regard to the pragmatic awareness test. As a start, 27 M1 students were given a pragmatic awareness test containing 10 different situations with different pragmatic aspects. Moreover, to comprehend an illocutionary act correctly, interlocutors need to analyze the context in which the utterance is made. Therefore, the given pragmatic awareness test was given in order to test the students' ability to correctly infer an interlocutor 's intended meaning. For the completion of the test students were asked to analyze 10 different situations in which they classify each situation

whether it is appropriate or inappropriate with providing a justification to give grounds for the selection.

As the table demonstrate that the answers were ranging according to the situation and to the student's pragmatic competence. For instance, in situation one; 92.5% of the students decided that this situation was appropriate according to the given justifications as follows: 14 students (explanation), 10 students (polite refusal), 1 student (distance). Whereas a small number of students 7.5% picked inappropriate due to explanation (1 student), informal sorry (1 student).

Situation two was highlighted by 85% of the students selecting inappropriate (impolite request 11 students, suggestion 5 students, explanation 5 students, and social distance 2 students), and 15% went to appropriate (alternative 1 student, explanation 2 students, polite refusal 1 student).

As for situation three, the percentages ranged between 52% for appropriate (social distance 3 students, explanation 11 students), and 48% for inappropriate (impolite request 5 students, alternative 6 students, explanation 2 students). Following situation four in which 81.5% were in favor to appropriate (explanation 13 students, polite refusal 9 students), while inappropriate got the share of 18.5% (explanation 3 students, alternative 2 students).

In the case of situation five, there was a sovereignty of the choice of students in which they have selected inappropriate 100% to the given justifications (impolite refusal 14 students, explanation 4 students, impolite refusal+ alternative 7 students, distance 1 student, alternative1 student).

Situation six was identified as appropriate by 52% of the students (explanation 9, social distance 3, explanation+ social distance 1, alternative+ explanation1), and inappropriate by 48%

of the students (explanation 4, explanation+ alternative 2, impolite refusal 3, impolite refusal+ alternative 1, alternative 3).

Situation seven was indexed by the majority of students 96% as an appropriate situation (explanation 9 students, polite request 16 students, suggestion 1 student), and only one student has identified the situation as an inappropriate one (explanation).

Students graded situation eight as appropriate 26% (explanation 6, social distance 1), and inappropriate 74% (impolite request +social distance 4, social distance 1, impolite request 6, alternative 6, social distance + alternative 2). The majority of students 78% in situation nine have selected appropriate (explanation 14 students, polite request 7 students), whereas only 22% classified the situation as inappropriate (impolite request 2 students, explanation 4 students).

Furthermore, situation ten was monopolized by the choice of 85% of the students who chose to indicate the situation as appropriate (explanation 13, polite refusal 6, social distance 1, no answer 1, polite refusal+ social distance 2), albeit the low number of students 15% that have preferred inappropriate (explanation 3 students, impolite refusal+ alternative 1 student).

4.6.1.2 Experimental Group (Posttest)

Table 36

Analysis of the Justifications Provided by MA Students

situation	Appropriate	Inappropriate
s1	25 (92.5%)	2 (7.5%)
	explanation 11 polite refusal 5 social distance+ explanation 3 social distance 6	explanation 2
s2	4 (15%)	23 (85%)

	explanation 2 social distance 1 irrelevant 1	impolite request 9 social distance 3 explanation 4 alternative 4 impolite request+ alternative 3
s3	17 (63%)	10 (37%)
	explanation 9 social distance 7 explanation+ alternative 1	impolite request 8 suggestion 2
s4	27 (100%)	0 (0%)
	polite refusal12 explanation 14 polite refusal+ social distance 1	
s5	0 (0%)	27 (100%)
		impolite refusal 14 explanation 2 explanation+ social distance 2 social distance3 social distance+ explanation 1 impolite

The results of the pragmatic awareness post-test for M1 students are discussed in the table below. Twenty-seven M1 students were first given a pragmatic awareness test, which consisted of 10 various situations with various pragmatic features. Interlocutors must also consider the context of a speech in order to accurately understand an illocutionary act. The provided pragmatic awareness test was designed to assess students' ability to accurately infer the meaning intended by an interlocutor. As we can notice there is a change of choice of the appropriateness in addition to the justifications given by the students, this is due to the exposure to the treatment in which student acquired the ability to distinguish the appropriateness of different pragmatic aspects.

According to the table, the responses varied depending on the question, the context, and the student's pragmatic competency. For instance, in situation one, 92.5% of the students determined that it was appropriate based on the following justifications: 11 students (explanation), 5 (polite refusal), and 3 student (social distance+ explanation), and 6 students (social distance) while just two students (7.5% of students) chose "inappropriate" owing to (explanation).

Eighty five percent (85%) of the students chose inappropriate in situation two (unpolite request from 9 students, social distance 3, explanation 4, alternative 4, impolite request+ alternative 3), whereas 15% chose appropriate (explanation 2 students, social distance 1 student, irrelevant 1 student).

The percentages for situation three varied from 63% for appropriate (explanation 9 students, social distance 7 students, explanation+ alternative 1 student), to 37% for inappropriate (impolite request 8 students, suggestion 2 students).

Following scenario four, 100% of the students' decision (polite refusal 12 students, explanation 14 students, polite refusal+ social distance 1 student). In the fifth scenario, the students' selections were their own, and they made 100% of the inappropriate according to the provided reasoning (impolite refusal 14 students, explanation 2 students, explanation+ social distance 2 students, social distance 3 students, social distance+ explanation 1 student, impolite refusal + social distance 5 students).

Situation six was identified as appropriate by 45% of the students (explanation 4 students, social distance 7 students, irrelevant 1 student), and inappropriate by 55% of the students (impolite refusal 7 students, alternative 3 explanation 5).

Situation seven was indexed by the whole number of students 100% as an appropriate situation (polite request 7 students, explanation 15 students, social distance 2 students, no answer 1 student, explanation+ social distance 2 students).

Students graded situation eight as appropriate 22% (social distance 2, polite request + social distance 1, explanation 3), and inappropriate 78% (impolite request 8, impolite request+ social distance 2, explanation 3, social distance 5, impolite request+ alternative 1, alternative 2).

The majority of students 92.5% in situation nine have selected appropriate (polite request 5,explanation 17, social distance 1, explanation+ social distance 2), whereas only 7.5% classified the situation as inappropriate (explanation 1, social distance1).Furthermore, situation ten was monopolized by the choice of 100% of the students who chose to indicate the situation as appropriate (polite refusal 13 students, explanation 13 students, explanation and social distance 1 student), in which we indicate a difference between the pre-test and the post-test choices of appropriateness, that is to mean the raise of students‘ pragmatic awareness.

4.6.1.3 Control Group (Pre-Test)

Table 37

Justifications Provided by MA Students in the Pre-Test

	Appropriate	**Inappropriate**
sit1	23 (92%)	2 (8%)
	explanation 17 polite refusal 6	impolite refusal 1 explanation1
sit 2	8 (32%)	17 (68%)
	explanation 2 distance 3 polite request 3	explanation 5 distance 1 impolite request 10 alternatives 1
sit3	10 (40%)	15 (60%)

	explanation 9 distance 1	impolite request 11 explanation 3 suggestion 1
sit4	22 (88%)	3 (12%)
	polite refusal 17 explanation 5	explanation 3
sit5	1 (4%)	24 (96%)
	alternative 1	impolite refusal 18 distance 2 explanation 4
sit6	8 (32%)	17 (68%)
	social distance 2 explanation 6	impolite refusal 7 explanation/ reason 9 suggestion 1
sit7	25 (100%)	0 (0%)
	explanation 10 polite request 14 no answer 1	
sit 8	4 (16%)	21 (84%)
	explanation 4	reason 2 impolite request 8 distance 11
sit9	21 (84%)	4 (16%)
	polite request 10 explanation 10 irrelevant 1	impolite request 1 alternatives 1 reason 2
sit10	22 (88%)	3 (12%)
	explanation 10 polite refusal 12	impolite refusal 1 explanation 1 suggestion 1

The following table discusses the results of the control group pre-test of M1 students in regards to the pragmatic awareness test. As a start, 25 M1 students were given a pragmatic awareness test containing 10 different situations with different pragmatic aspects. Moreover, to comprehend an illocutionary act correctly, interlocutors need to analyze the context in which the utterance is made. Therefore, the given pragmatic awareness test was given in order to test the students' ability to correctly infer an interlocutor's intended meaning. For the completion of the

test students were asked to analyze 10 different situations in which they classify each situation whether it's appropriate or inappropriate with providing a justification to give grounds for the selection.

As the table demonstrates, that the answers were ranging according to the situation and to the student's pragmatic competence. For instance, in situation one; 92% of the students decided that this situation was appropriate according to the given justifications as follows: 17 students (explanation), 6 students (polite refusal). Whereas a small number of students 8% picked inappropriate due to explanation 1 student (impolite refusal), 1 student(explanation). Situation two was highlighted by 68% of the students selecting inappropriate (impolite request 10 students, explanation 5 students, and social distance 1 students, alternatives 1 student), and 32% went to appropriate (explanation 2, distance 3, polite request 3).

As for situation three, the percentages ranged between 40% for appropriate (explanation 9, distance 1), and 60% for inappropriate (impolite request 11, explanation 3, suggestion 1). Following situation four in which 88% were in favor to appropriate (polite refusal 17, explanation 3), while inappropriate got the share of 22% (explanation 5).

In the case of situation five, there was a sovereignty of the choice of students in which they have selected inappropriate 96% to the given justifications (impolite refusal 18, distance 2, explanation 4) while only one student chose appropriate for alternatives.

Situation six was identified as appropriate by 32% of the students (social distance 2, explanation 6), and inappropriate by 68% of the students (impolite refusal 7, explanation/ reason 9, suggestion 1). Situation seven was indexed by the whole number of students 100% as an appropriate situation (explanation 10, polite request 14, no answer 1). Students graded situation

eight as appropriate 16% (explanation 4), and inappropriate 84% (reason 2, impolite request 8, distance 11).

The majority of students 84% in situation nine have selected appropriate (polite request 10, explanation 10, irrelevant 1), whereas only 16% classified the situation as inappropriate (impolite request 1, alternatives 1, reason 2).

Furthermore, situation ten was monopolized by the choice of 88% of the students who chose to indicate the situation as appropriate (explanation 10, polite refusal 12), albeit the low number of students 12% that have preferred inappropriate (impolite refusal 1, explanation 1, suggestion 1).

4.6.1.4 Control Group (Post test)

Table 38

Justifications Provided by MA Students in the Post Test

Situation	**appropriate**	**inappropriate**
sit 1	25 (100%)	0 (0%)
	criticism 4	
	polite refusal 9	
	explanation 8	
	social distance 4	
sit2	4 (16%)	21 (84%)
	polite request 4	suggestion 1
		impolite request 12
		explanation 5
		social distance 1
		criticism of the speaker 2
sit3	2 (8%)	23 (92%)
	clear request 1	criticism of hearer 1
	polite request 1	criticism of speaker 3
		suggestion of polite request 3
		impolite request 9

		social distance 1
		odd 1
		explanation 5
sit4	24 (96%)	1 (4%)
	polite refusal 18	impolite refusal 1
	explanation 5	
	criticism of the speaker1	
sit5	0 (0%)	25 (100%)
		impolite refusal 16
		impolite request 12
		criticism of the speaker 2
		funny refusal1
		social distance 3
		suggestion 2
sit6	19 (76%)	6 (24%)
	explanation 5	impolite refusal 5
	distance 7	suggestion 1
	criticism of the speaker 2	
	criticism of the hearer 5	
sit7	25 (100%)	0 (0%)
	polite request19	
	polite refusal 4	
	explanation2	
sit8	2 (8%)	23 (92%)
	polite request 2	explanation 7
		impolite request 7
		distance 6
		suggestion 3
sit9	22 (88%)	3 (12%)
	explanation 13	alternatives 3
	polite request 7	
	distance1	
	unclear 1	
sit10	22 (88%)	3 (12%)
	explanation 4	alternatives 3
	polite refusal 14	
	criticism of the	

speaker 1	
no answer 1	
distance 2	

The results of the pragmatic awareness post-test for M1 students are discussed in the table below. 25. M1 students were first given a pragmatic awareness test, which consisted of 10 various situations with various pragmatic features. Interlocutors must also consider the context of a speech in order to accurately understand an illocutionary act. The provided pragmatic awareness test was designed to assess students' ability to accurately infer the meaning intended by an interlocutor. As we can notice there is a change of choice of the appropriateness in addition to the justifications given by the students, this is due to the exposure to the treatment in which student acquired the ability to distinguish the appropriateness of different pragmatic aspects. as table... Show that the responses varied depending on the question, the context, and the student's pragmatic competency. For instance, in situation one, 100% of the students determined that it was appropriate based on the following justifications:(criticism 4, polite refusal 9, explanation 8, social distance 4).

Eighty four percent (84%) of the students chose inappropriate in situation two (suggestion 1, impolite request 12, explanation 5, social distance 1, criticism of the speaker 2), whereas 16% chose appropriate (polite request 4).

The percentages for situation three varied from 8% for appropriate (clear request 1, polite request 1), to 92% for inappropriate (criticism of hearer 1, criticism of speaker 3, suggestion of polite request 3, impolite request 9, social distance 1, odd 1, explanation 5). Following scenario four, where appropriate received 96% of the students' decision (polite refusal 18, explanation 5, criticism of the speaker1), but only one student selected inappropriate (impolite refusal). In the

fifth scenario, the students' selections were their own, and they made 100% of the inappropriate according to the provided reasoning (impolite refusal 16, impolite request 12, criticism of the speaker 2, funny refusal 1, social distance 3, suggestion 2). Situation six was identified as appropriate by 76% of the students (explanation 5, distance 7, criticism of the speaker 2, criticism of the hearer 5), and inappropriate by 24% of the students (impolite refusal5, suggestion 1). Situation seven was indexed by the whole number of students 100% as an appropriate situation (polite request19, polite refusal 4). Students graded situation eight as appropriate 8% (polite request 2), and inappropriate 92% (explanation 7, impolite request 7, distance 6, suggestion 3). The majority of students 88% in situation nine have selected appropriate (explanation 13, polite request 7, distance1, unclear 1), whereas only 12% classified the situation as inappropriate (alternatives 3). Furthermore, situation ten was monopolized by the choice of 88% of the students who chose to indicate the situation as appropriate (explanation 4, polite refusal 14, criticism of the speaker 1, no answer 1, distance 2) while only 12% chose inappropriate as alternatives.

It is clear that there is no significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test choices of appropriateness, that is to mean the fact that the control group have not been exposed to the target knowledge endowed in the treatment which did not harness their pragmatic awareness regarding which of the given situations would be appropriate and which would not.

4.7 Analysis of Course Feedback Questionnaire (License Students)

4.7.1 Analysis of Validity and Reliability

Table 39 illustrates the extent to which the current research instrument is reliable. The observed value of the Cronbach alpha is p=0,70 which indicates that the questionnaire is reliable. Analysis of Validity and Reliability Tests Reliability

Table 39

Results of Reliability Test

Cronbach's Alpha	**N of items**
0,70	13

Validity

Validity refers to the extent to which the research instrument measures what it exactly purports to measure. Accordingly, the internal validity of the current research tool was gauged by calculating the Spearman Correlation coefficient.

Table 40

Results of Validity Test

	Correlation	***significance***
internal validity of the Tool	**0,70**	**0.01****
****Significant at the *p* =0.01 level**		

The internal validity of the current research tool was measured by calculating the Spearman Correlation coefficient. The validity index of the questionnaire is 0.70 which indicates that it is valid.

Item 1: What is your overall impression of our lessons on pragmatics and speech acts? What did you like, what did you not like?

Students revealed positive attitudes towards the whole intervention, and they expressed satisfaction towards the usefulness of the course in developing their speaking skills and social interaction skills, which denotes that they perceived the pragmatics instruction as an enjoyable experience. However, some students could not attend all the lectures since the timing was not suitable for them. This is exemplified by the following quotes:

Student One: —*They were really helpful, what I liked the most is after the whole study we all get to try and perform what we have studied, but I expected more participation from the whole class".*

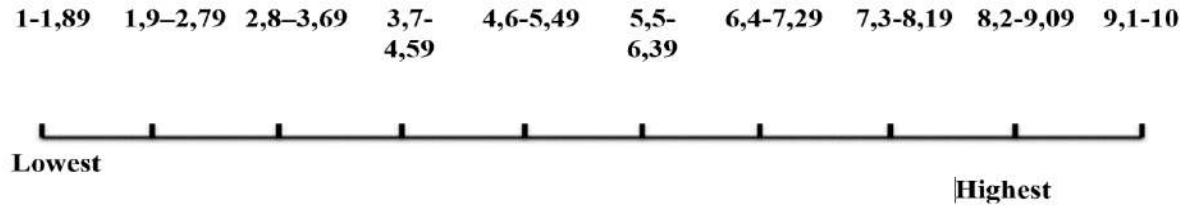
Student Two: —*Pragmatics and speech acts are very interesting topics to learn about because these topics helped me to develop my speaking skills. I liked how to make requests and refusals and the various strategies to achieve that".*

Student Three: —*I found our lessons on Pragmatics and speech acts very knowledgeable and interesting".*

Student Four: *"I liked the request and refusal strategies that we learned in class; however, I did not like the timing that is why I did not attend all the lectures"*

Student Five: —*Well, I liked all the lessons. They were so beneficial for me to improve my speech in requesting and refusing, but I did not like the timing of the session".*

Student Six: **—***The lessons were very helpful. I learned how to ask for what I want from*



different persons and when to use the formal and the informal expressions".

Item 2 : On a scale from 1 to 10 with ten being the highest , how much do you think these lessons have improved……

Table 41

The Improvement of License Students' Speaking and Social Interaction Skills

Statement	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Level	Rank
Your overall speaking skills	27	3,00	9,00	6,29	1,65	Somewhat high	2
Your social interaction Skills	27	4,00	10,00	6,68	1,93	High	1
Total Q2	27	3,50	9,00	6,48	1,56	High	//

Figure 31 *The Improvement of License Students' Speaking Skills and Social Interaction Skills.*

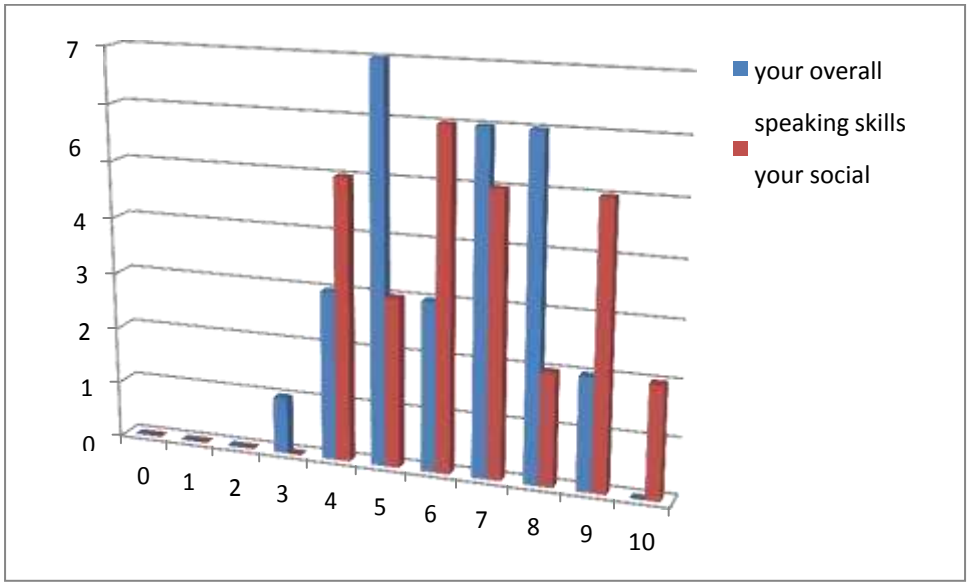


Table 41 portrays the extent to which students believe that their speaking skills and social interaction skills improved after the intervention. The highest mean value (6,68) accounts for the students who deemed their social interaction skills as high, while the lowest mean value (6,29) refers to the ones who considered their speaking skills as somewhat high. Hence, students declared, with a mean value of 6, 48, that both skills improved after receiving the treatment. This result is congruent with the result of Glaser (2014).

Item 3: How relevant did you find what we did with regard to your speaking skills? please check.

Table 42

The Usefulness of the Strategies with Regard to License *Students' Speaking Skills.*

Statements	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Level	Rank
Request Strategies	27	2,00	4,00	3,54	0,64	Very Useful	2
Refusal Strategies	27	3,00	4,00	3,75	0,44	Very Useful	1
Video Taping and Individual	27	2,00	4,00	2,96	0,79	Quite Useful	4

Figure 32 *The Usefulness of the Pragmatic Strategies with Regard to* License *Students' Speaking Skills.*

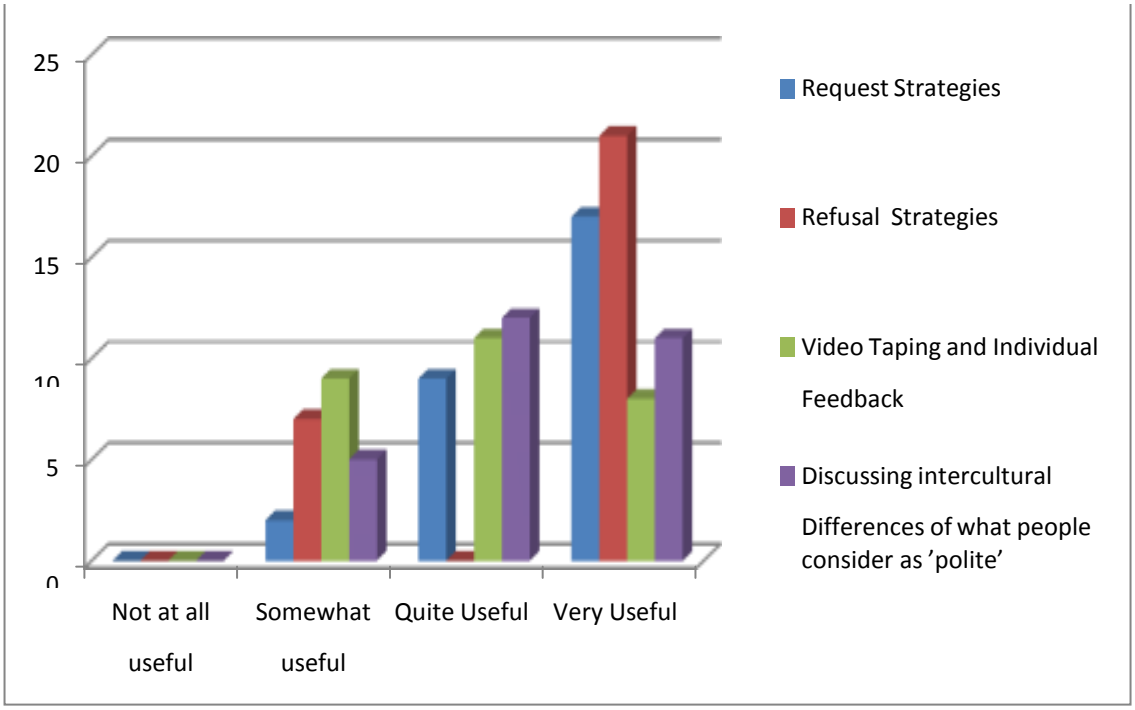


Table 42 demonstrates the extent to which the strategies covered during the intervention phase were useful with regard to students' speaking skills. The strategies fluctuate proportionally between _very useful 'and _quite useful '. They range in ascending order as follows: videotaping

and individual feedback (mean value= 2, 96), discussion of intercultural differences as regards what people perceive as polite (mean value=3, 21), request strategies (mean value = 3, 54), refusal strategies (mean value=3, 75). Thus, it can be deduced that the highest mean values were assigned to the request and refusal strategies. This might pertain to the fact that these strategies were the main concern of the intervention. Overall, students agreed, with a mean value of 3, 29, that the aforementioned strategies were very useful insofar as their speaking skills are concerned.

Item4: What did you miss? What did you expect to do and learn that we did not do?

Student One: *"I did not miss anything. Thanks to the examples that our teacher gave us, I learnt everything related to requests and refusals".*

Student Two: *"I thought that we would practice enough but time was the problem".*

Student Three: *"I miss watching native speakers forming requests and refusals. I wish I had the chance to watch more videos and learn how to form requests and refusals exactly as natives do".*

Student Four: *"I expected that we will interact and participate more".*

Student Five: *"Well, I think that we tackled interesting and useful strategies. I do not think that we missed much".*

Student Six: "*I expected that we will have more practice".*

Student Seven: *"I expect that we will practice more, but I really learned new things"*

Based on the excerpts presented supra, the research participants disclosed their satisfaction and positive attitudes towards the intervention in general and the refusal and request

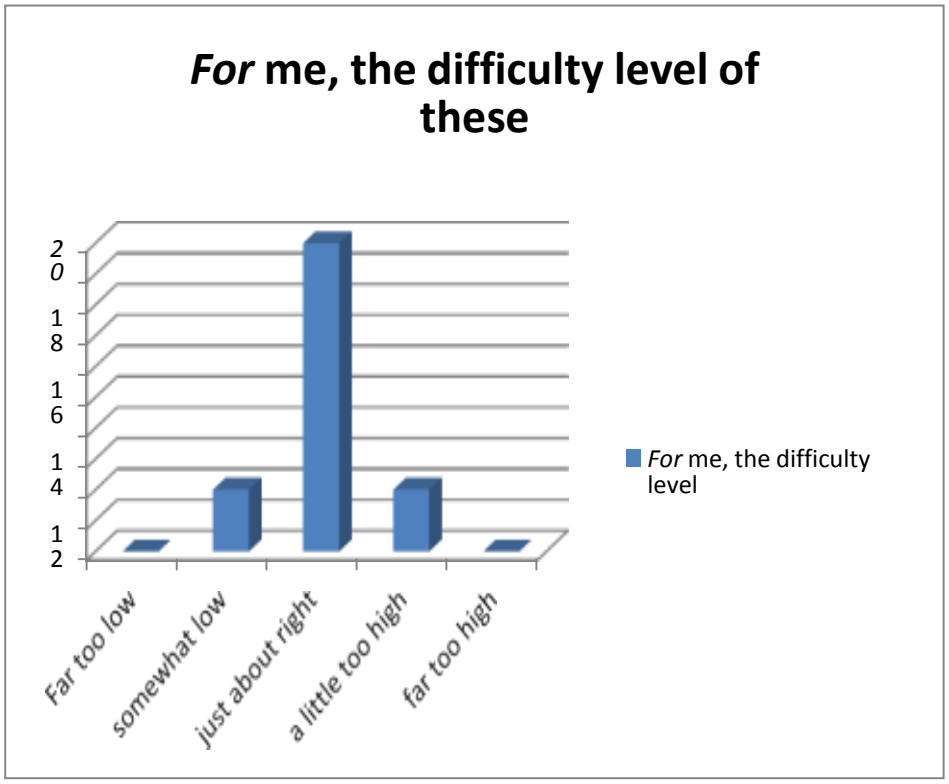
strategies in particular. However, due to time constraints, students asked for more interaction and practice opportunities to have a thorough understanding of the lessons presented in class.

5: For me, the difficulty level of these lessons was…

Table 43 *The Difficulty Level of the Lessons*

Statement	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Level	Rank
For me, the difficulty level of these lessons was	27	2,00	4,00	3,00	0,54	Just about right	//

Figure 33 *The Difficulty Level of Lessons.*



As table 43 expounds, the strategies were not difficult for students to understand since the highest mean value stands for the _just about right' category. Hence, it can be concluded that students perceived the lessons' difficulty level as appropriate. This finding contradicts the finding of Glaser (2014).

Item 5: Here are some of the face-saving strategies we dealt with in this course. For each of them, please indicate how difficult you find them to do; 0- not difficult at all 5- very difficult.

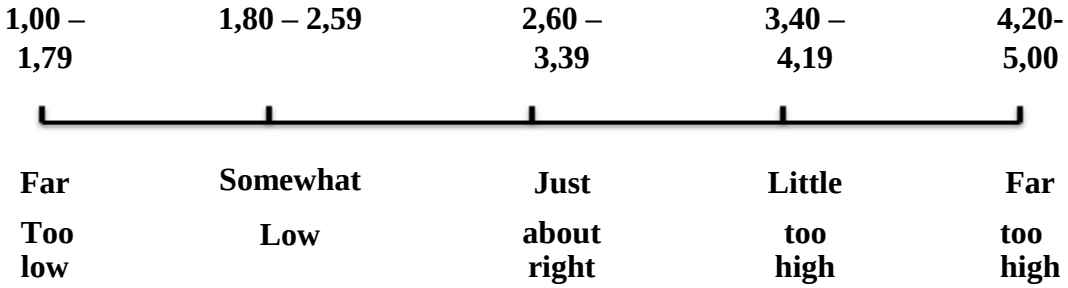


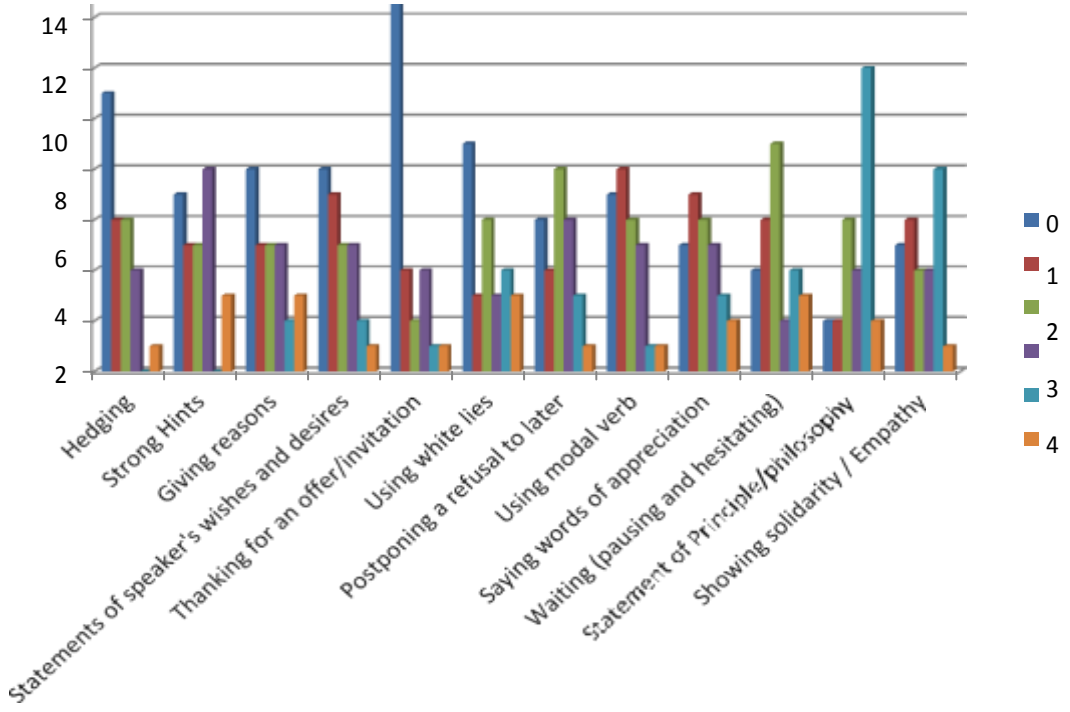
Table 44

The Difficulty Level of the Face-Saving Strategies

Statements	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Level	Rank
Hedging (well, actually, I think etc.)	27	0,00	5,00	1,25	1,32	Somewhat	**11**
Strong Hints	27	0,00	5,00	1,93	1,59	Moderate	**7**
Giving reasons	27	0,00	5,00	1,89	1,69	Moderate	**8**
Statements of and desires speaker's wishes	27	0,00	5,00	1,61	1,45	Moderate	**9**
Thanking for an offer/invitation	27	0,00	5,00	1,04	1,48	Somewhat	**13**
Using white lies	27	0,00	5,00	1,96	1,77	Moderate	**5**

Postponing a refusal to later	27	0,00	5,00	1,96	1,43	Moderate	**5**
Using modal verbs	27	0,00	5,00	1,57	1,35	Somewhat	**10**
Saying words of appreciation	27	0,00	5,00	2,00	1,52	Moderate	**4**
Waiting (pausing and hesitating)	27	0,00	5,00	2,18	1,57	Moderate	**3**
Statement of principle/philosophy	27	0,00	5,00	3,00	1,39	Difficult	**1**
Showing solidarity / empathy		0,00	5,00	2,25	1,60	Moderate	**2**
Total Q6		0,50	3,33	1,89	0,87	Moderate	//

Figure 34 *The Difficulty Level of the Face Saving Strategies*



The table illustrates the difficulty level of the face-saving strategies covered during the course. The highest mean values range between ―difficult‖ and ―moderate‖. Accordingly ,the

strategies are listed in descending order as follows: statement of principle/philosophy (mean value=3), showing solidarity/empathy (mean value=2,25), waiting (mean value= 2,18), postponing a refusal and using white lies (1,96 equally), using strong hints (mean value=1,93), giving reasons (mean value=1,89), using statements of speaker‘s wishes and desires (mean value=1,61), using modal verbs (mean value= 1,57), hedging (mean value=1,25), thanking for an offer/invitation (mean value=1,04). Therefore, statement of principle, in which the refuser resorts to directness and moral beliefs to rebuff a request, was rated as the most difficult face-saving strategy. This may be because Algerians generally turn down requests in a more indirect way than native speakers do. Furthermore, the diversity of the answers regarding the difficulty level of each strategy can be imputed to students' different levels of proficiency. That is, students, with a high level of proficiency, may find the strategies easy to understand, whereas the ones, who have a low level of proficiency, may grapple with them.

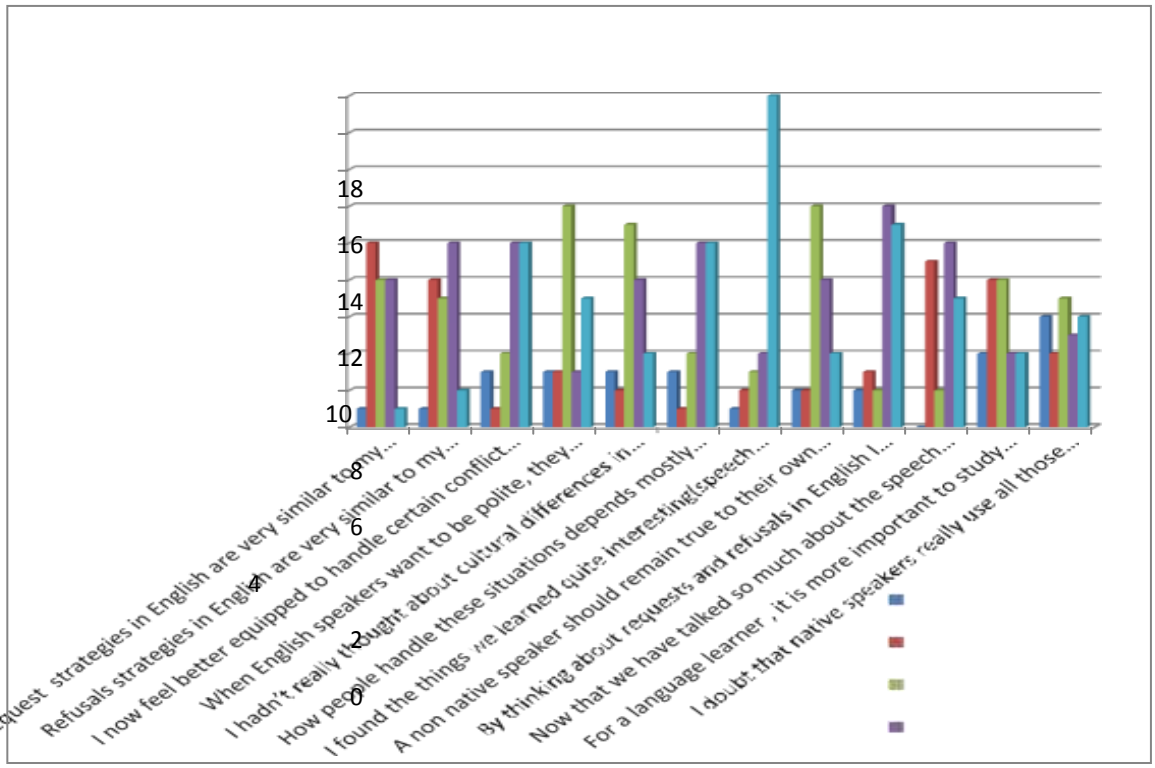
Item 6: Here are some comments that you may have thought of after the course, please indicate for each how much it reflects your personal opinion. You can comment on any statement in the extra space below if you like

Table 45

License Students' Comments on the Course.

Statements	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Level	Rank
Request strategies in English are very similar to my mother tongue	27	1,00	5,00	2,93	0,98	**Neutral**	11
Refusals strategies in English are very similar to my mother tongue	27	1,00	5,00	3,14	1,04	**Neutral**	9
I now feel better equipped to handle certain conflict situations in English	27	1,00	5,00	4,04	1,14	**Agree**	2
When English speakers want to be polite, they somehow overdo it. They should just say what they mean more Directly	27	1,00	5,00	3,29	1,27	**Neutral**	7
I had not really thought about cultural differences in requesting and/or refusing before.	27	1,00	5,00	3,29	1,15	**Neutral**	7
How people handle these situations depends mostly on their personality rather than on cultural norms	27	1,00	5,00	3,82	1,28	**Agree**	4
A non-native speaker should remain true to their own cultural norms, even in the foreign language.	27	1,00	5,00	3,36	1,06	**Neutral**	6
By thinking about requests and refusals in English I have learned a lot about myown culture	27	1,00	5,00	3,89	1,26	**Agree**	3
Now that we have talked so much about the speech acts, I feel more insecureabout my English skills.	27	2,00	5,00	3,54	1,20	**Agree**	5
For a language learner, it is more important to study grammar and vocabulary than to learn about speech acts.	27	1,00	5,00	2,86	1,27	**Neutral**	12
I doubt that native speakers really use all those strategies we talked about.	27	1,00	5,00	3,04	1,45	**Neutral**	10
Total Q7	**27**	**2,17**	**4,58**	**3,46**	**0,56**	**Agree**	//

Figure 35 License Students' Comments on the Course



The table demonstrates the agreement and disagreement of the research participants towards the provided comments that may emanate after attending the course. Students agreed with a mean value of 4, 29, that the content of the lessons was intriguing. Moreover, they expressed strong agreement with the third statement *„I now feel better equipped to handle certain conflict situations in English"* with a mean value of 4, 04. However, they remained neutral about the remaining statements.

Item 8: Here you can comment on anything (else) about the questions or the lessons.

At the end, students were welcomed to add any comments about the questions or the content of the lessons covered during the treatment phase. They disclosed that the course was informative and useful in developing their social interaction skills and speaking skills. Moreover, one of the participants suggested that the course should be taught over a long span of time to

ensure a full grasp of the request and refusal strategies. It is worth mentioning that only ten students (out of 27) answered this question. The answers are presented infra:

Student One: *"I enjoyed learning these lessons and learning more about speech acts and how native speakers use these ways in refusing an offer or in using requests. The lessons helped me a lot and made me want to work more on my speaking and social skills".*

Student Two: *"We have learned a lot during a small period of time. There is so much to remember in a period of twenty days, so I suggest that the course should be taught over a long period of time".*

Student Three: —*The idea of this course is simply great. It is very useful. I really like this lecture and its effect on my speaking skills".*

Student Four: *"I have a positive impression on the lessons because I liked the way they improved my English speaking skills and the way these lessons were delivered".*

Student Five: —*I like all the lessons. I feel very happy because I have much more knowledge.*

The remaining answers were similar to the aforementioned ones, as they revolve around the same idea which is about the usefulness of the course and its impact on students' speaking skills and social interaction skills.

4.8 Analysis of the Course Feedback Questionnaire (MA Students)

Item 1: What is your overall impression of our lessons on pragmatics and speech acts? What did you like, what did you not like?

Students demonstrated favorable views about the intervention as a whole and expressed pleasure with the course's value in enhancing their communication and social skills, indicating that they had a pleasurable experience, in which they perceived wide range of different techniques and strategies regarding making requests and refusals. The following quotations serve as examples of this:

Student one: *It was a totally different experience with such a kind teacher. I've learnt. new polite techniques whether to make a request or refusal I figure out both cross cultural differens on between us and the Native speakers.*

Student two: *I really liked all of it! it is a great opportunity...to learn new ways and strategies of requests and refusals.*

Student three: *For me, these lessons sound so helpful to learn Speech acts because It enlarges my knowledge about request / refusals strategies..*

Student four: *It was ay good experience for me and a helpful one, the lessons were clear and well understood I liked the part of formulating requests and refusals in our mother tongue and analyzing them according to the principles of requests and refusals strategies*

Student five: *Pragmatics lessors provided were very useful and very interesting. what I like about them is that they helped me to widen my range. about the two types of speech acts [*

refusals / request]. and provide a diversity of ways how to apply them. There is nothing. I did not like.

Item 2: On a scale from 1 to 10 with ten being the highest, how much do you think these lessons have improved?

1-1,89 1,9–2,79 2,8–3,69 3,7-4,59 4,6-5,49 5,5-6,39 6,4-7,29 7,3-8,19 8,2-9,09 9,1-10

Lowest **Highest**

Table 46

MA Students' Speaking Skills and Interaction Skills

Statement	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Level	Rank
your overall speaking skills	27	2,00	10,00	6,39	1,89	Somewhat high	2
your social interaction skills	27	2,00	10,00	7,07	1,72	High	1
Total Q2	**27**	**2,00**	**10,00**	**6,73**	**1,68**	High	//

Figure 36 *The Improvement of MA Students' Speaking Skills and Social Interaction Skills.*

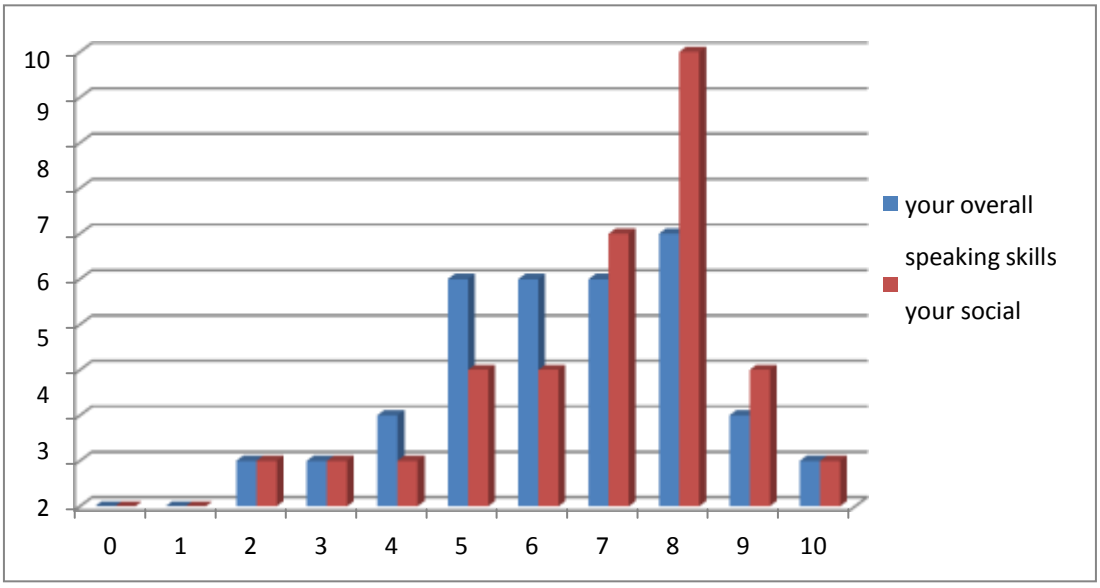


Table 46 shows how much the students regard their speaking and social skills have improved as a result of the intervention. The students who reported that their social interaction skills had improved had the greatest mean value (7,07), while those who thought their speaking abilities were rather high have the lowest (6,39). Therefore, they concluded that both skills had improved following the treatment, with a mean value of (6,73).

Item 3: How relevant did you find what we did with regard to your speaking skills? Please check.

1,00 – 1,74	1,75 – 2,49	2,50 – 3,24	3,25 – 4,00
Not at all useful	**Somewhat useful**	**Quite Useful**	**Very Useful**

Table 47

The Usefulness of the Pragmatic Strategies with Regard to MA Students' Speaking Skills

Statements	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Level	Rank
Request Strategies	27	2,00	4,00	3,43	0,63	Very Useful	3
Refusal Strategies	27	2,00	4,00	3,57	0,63	Very Useful	1
Video Taping and Individual Feedback	27	1,00	4,00	3,07	0,77	Quite Useful	4
Discussing intercultural Differences of what peopleconsider as 'polite'	27	2,00	4,00	3,54	0,69	Very Useful	2
Total Q3	**27**	**2,50**	**4,00**	**3,40**	**0,42**	**Very Useful**	//

Figure 37 *The Usefulness of the Pragmatic Strategies with Regard to MA Students' Speaking Skills.*

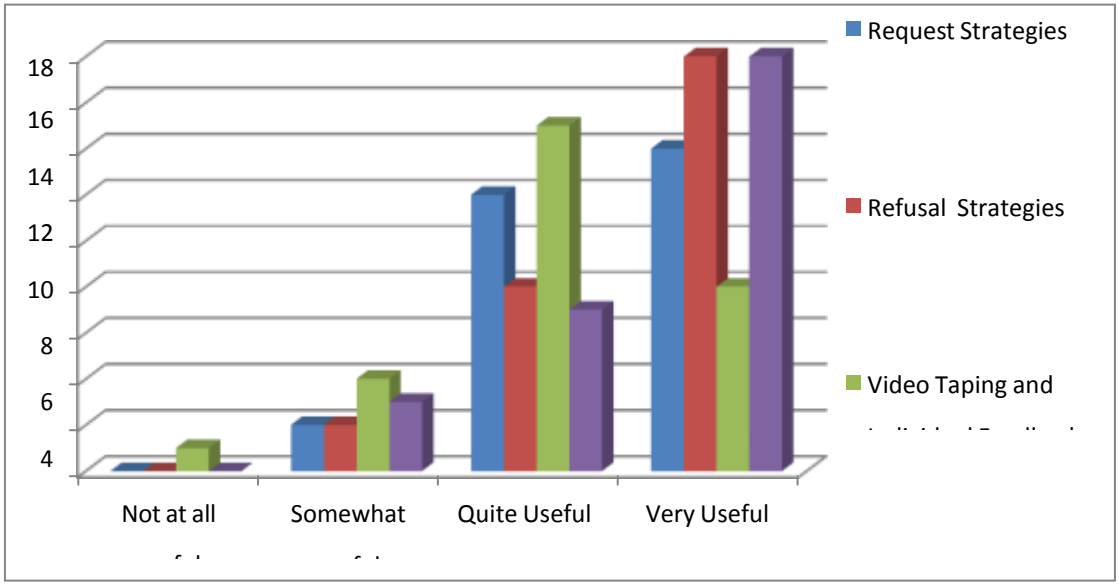


Table 47 shows how effective the speaking skills-related strategies discussed during the intervention phase were for students. They alternate between ―quite useful" and "very useful" with a high domination of "very useful". Ascending from lowest to highest value, they are as follows: videotaping and individual feedback (mean value= 3,07), request strategies (mean

value= 3, 43), discussion of intercultural differences as regards what people perceive as polite (mean value = 3, 54), and refusal strategies (mean value= 3, 57). Thus, with a mean score of 3, 40, students acknowledged that the above-mentioned strategies were helpful for improving their speaking and social interaction abilities.

Item4: What did you miss? What did you expect to do and learn that we did not do?

Student one: "*There wasn''t much that I missed. All the ideas were clear to me.. and. I was able to understand them easily I expected to have interactions with native speakers during the course of the lesson"*

Student two: "*I expected to practice more in the class...***"**

Student three: "*I expected to communicate with foreigners to get the appropriate feed-back and to notice the difference between the cultural differences when it comes to refusals and requests* **"**

Student four: "*Nothing really. I've gotten actually more than I had expected... to get the strategies in details. and types is the best way to grasp the whole thing***"**

Student five: "*The courses really exceeded my expectations, was enrichable and from my point of view we did everything and more* **"**

Student six: "*others type of speech. Act not only request or refusal.***"**

Student seven: "*I was expecting to talk with native speakers and apply my feedback of what I had learnt before* **"**

Student eight: "*I expected that all stages of the experiment will be a role-play as practical parts.***"**

Student nine: "*These courses were new for me so I didn't have an idea but it was a good experience, the only thing that I expected was that we will take more practice (role plays)* **"**

Student ten: "*I think we did not miss any relevant point concerning pragmatics. I expect that this module (pragmatics) will be easier since we have tackled almost all the points* **"**

Item 5: For me, the difficulty level of these lessons was…

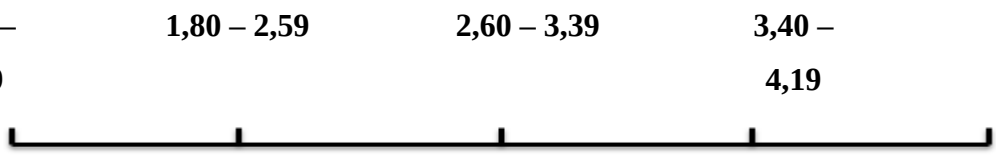
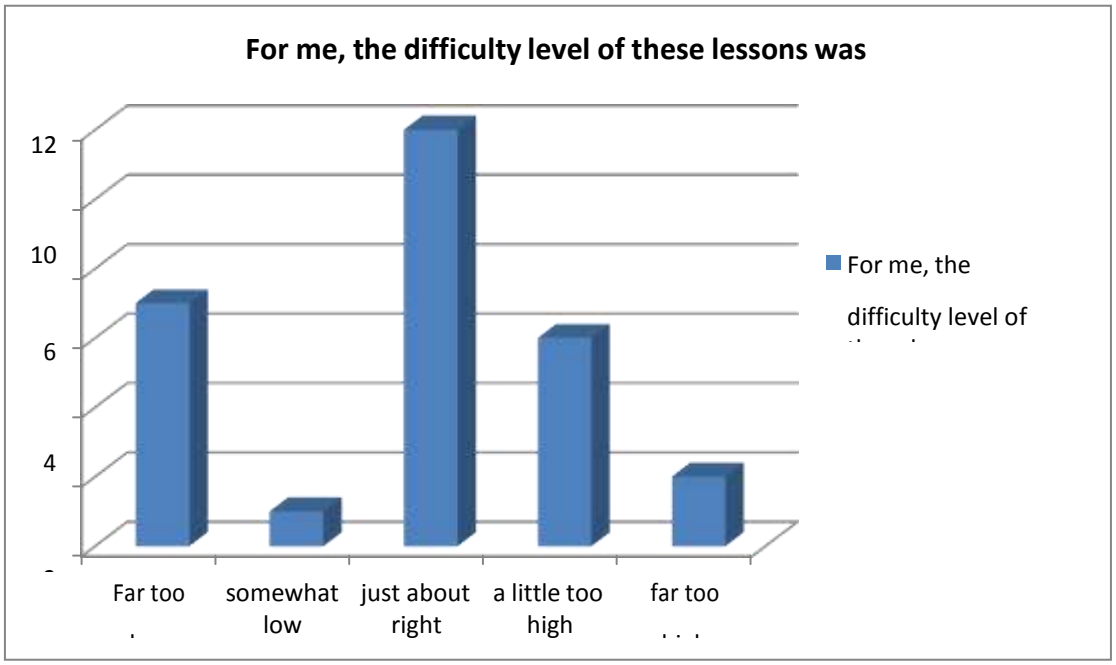


Table 48

The Difficulty Level of the Lessons

Statement	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Level	Rank
For me, the difficulty level of these lessons was	27	1,00	5,00	2,82	1,25	Just about right	//

Figure 38 *The Difficulty Level of the Lessons.*



As seen in table 48, students did not consider the techniques as challenging, , because the category with the greatest mean value is "just about right." Thus, it may be concluded that students deemed the lessons' degree of difficulty as adequate.

Item 6 : Here are some of the face saving strategies we dealt with in this course. For each of them, please indicate how difficult you find them to do; 0- not difficult at all 5- very difficult.

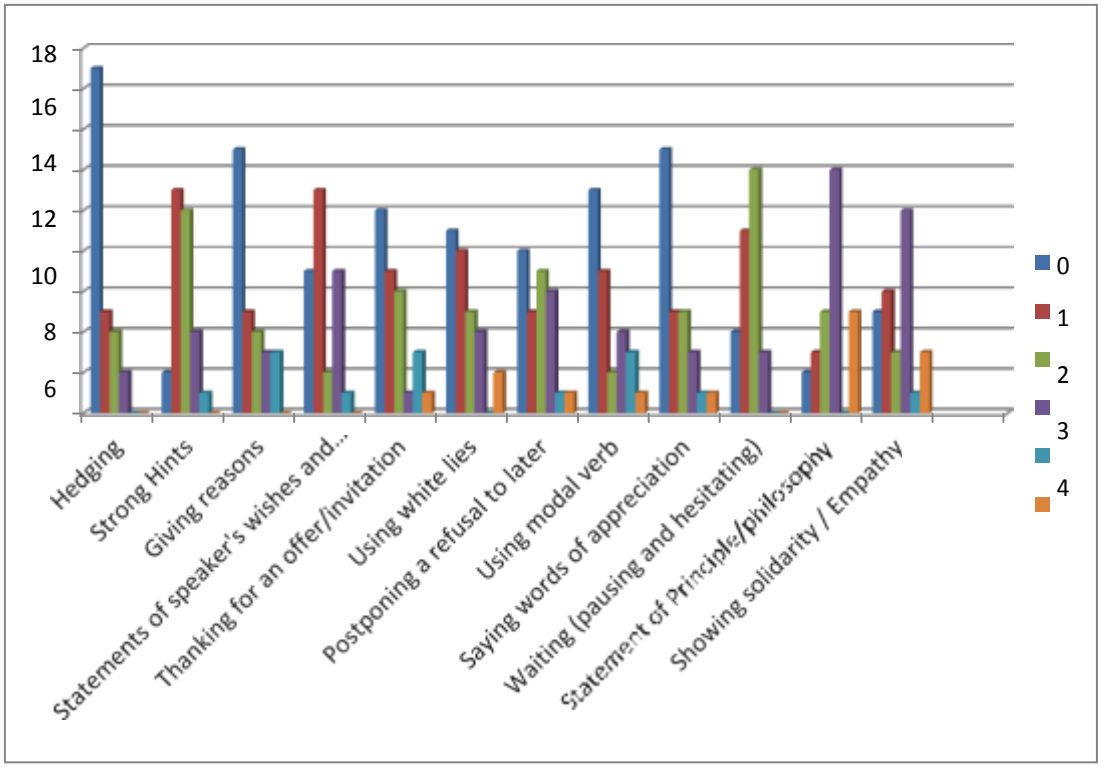
0,00 – 0,79	0,80 – 1,59	1,60 –2,39	2,40 – 3,19	3,20-4,00
Not difficult	**Somewhat**	**Moderate**	**difficult**	**Very difficult**

Table 49

The Difficulty Level of the Face-Saving Strategies

Statements	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Level	Rank
Hedging (well, actually, I think etc.)	27	0,00	3,00	0,68	0,98	Not difficult	12
Strong Hints	27	0,00	4,00	1,68	0,95	Moderate	3
Giving reasons	27	0,00	4,00	1,21	1,42	Somewhat	10
Statements of speaker's wishes and Desires	27	0,00	4,00	1,43	1,23	Somewhat	6
Thanking for an offer/invitation	27	0,00	5,00	1,39	1,47	Somewhat	9
Using white lies	27	0,00	5,00	1,43	1,45	Somewhat	6
Postponing a refusal to later	27	0,00	5,00	1,64	1,39	Somewhat	4
Using modal verbs	27	0,00	5,00	1,43	1,57	Somewhat	6
Saying words of appreciation	27	0,00	5,00	1,18	1,42	Somewhat	11
Waiting (pausing and hesitating)	27	0,00	3,00	1,50	0,88	Somewhat	5
Statement of Principle/philosophy	27	0,00	5,00	2,82	1,47	difficult	1
Showing solidarity / Empathy	27	0,00	5,00	2,18	1,57	Moderate	2
Total Q6	**27**	**0,08**	**3,42**	**1,55**	**0,82**	**Somewhat**	**//**

Figure 39 *The Difficulty Level of the Face Saving Strategies*



As table 49 depicts, the difficulty of the face-saving strategies covered in the course. The highest mean values range from "difficult" to "moderate," respectively. As a result, the following is a list of the strategies in descending order: statement of principle/philosophy (mean value=2,82), showing solidarity/empathy (mean value=2,18), strong hints (mean value= 1,68), postponing a refusal (mean value=1,64), waiting (mean value=1,50), using modal verbs, using white lies and statement of speaker's wishes and desires (mean value=1,43 equally),thanking for an offer/an invitation (mean value=1,39), giving reasons (mean value= 1,21), saying words of appreciation (mean value=1,18), hedging (mean value=0,68).

Item 7: Here are some comments that you may have thought of after the course, please indicate for each how much it reflects your personal opinion. You can comment on any statement in the extra space below if you like.

1,00 – 1,79 1,80 – 2,59 2,60 –3,39 3,40 – 4,19 4,20-5,00

Very disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Very agree

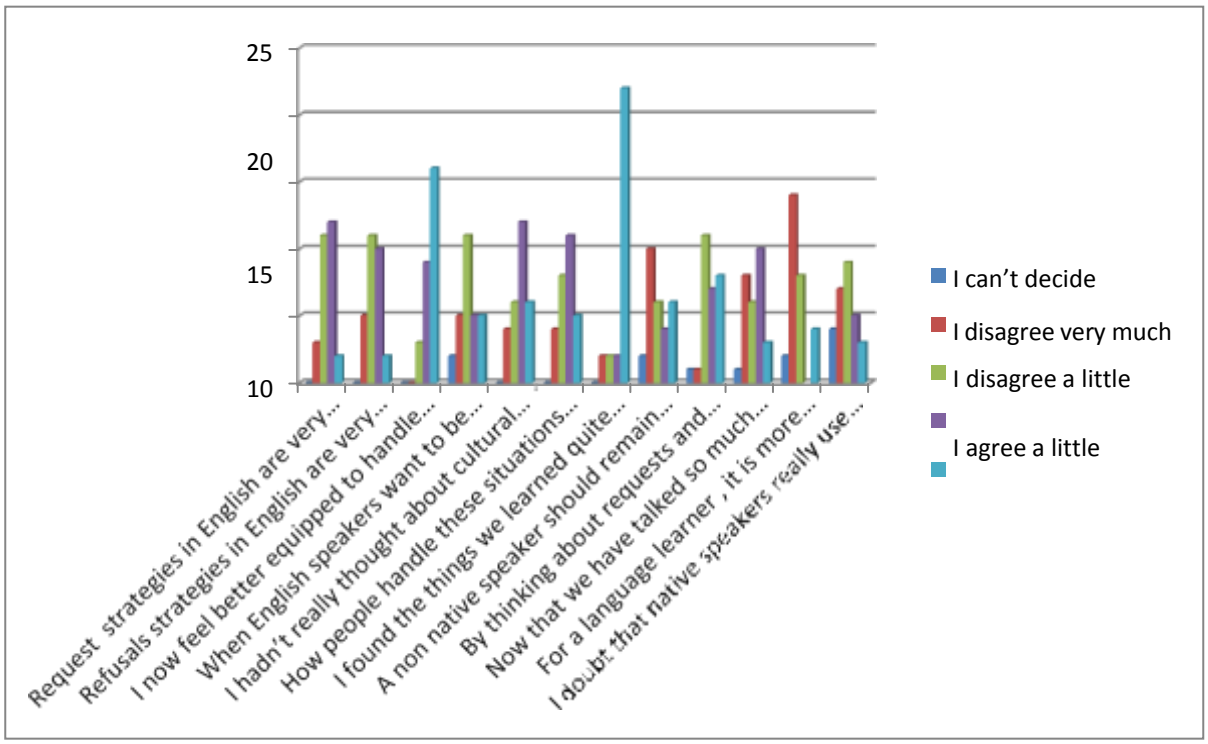
Table 50

MA Students' Comments on the Course.

Statements	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Level	Rank
Request strategies in English are very similar to my mother tongue.	**27**	**2,00**	**5,00**	**3,46**	**0,79**	**Agree**	**6**
I now feel better equipped to handle certain conflict situations in English	**27**	**3,00**	**5,00**	**4,46**	**0,69**	**Very agree**	**2**
When English speakers want to be polite, they somehow overdo it. they should just say what they mean more directly.	**27**	**1,00**	**5,00**	**3,21**	**1,17**	**Neutral**	**8**
I hadn't really thought about cultural differences in requesting and/or refusing before.	27	2,00	5,00	3,71	0,98	**Agree**	**3**
How people handle these situations depends mostly on their personality rather than on cultural norms	27	2,00	5,00	3,60	0,96	**Agree**	**5**
I found the things we learned quite interesting (speech acts, face saving strategies etc).	27	2,00	5,00	4,57	0,92	**Very agree**	**1**

A nonnative speaker should remain true to their own cultural norms, even in the foreign language.	27	1,00	5,00	3,07	1,30	**Neutral**	**10**
By thinking about requests and refusals in English I have learned a lot about my own Culture	27	1,00	5,00	3,71	1,05	**Agree**	**3**
Now that we have talked so much about the speech acts, I feel more insecure about my English skills.	27	1,00	5,00	3,21	1,10	**Neutral**	**8**
For a language learner, it is more important to study grammar and vocabulary than to learn about speech acts.	27	1,00	5,00	2,64	1,13	**Neutral**	**12**
I doubt that native speakers really use all those strategies we talked about.	27	1,00	5,00	3,04	,45	**Neutral**	**10**
Total Q7	**27**	2,17	4,58	3,46	0,56	**Agree**	//

Figure 40 *MA Students' Comments on the Course.*



The table depicts the level of agreement and disagreement among the research participants with regard to potential course-related comments. The overall mean for students' agreement on these statements was 4.08.

Item 8: **Here you can comment on anything (else) about the questions or the lessons.**

Student one: "The *lessons were interesting and useful, since I need them in studies***"**

Student two: "I *really liked the experience, it is a great opportunity to learn about speech acts, refusals, and requests! Thank you for this opportunity"*

Student three: "In *my L1 and especially in my family, we tend to make direct requests and direct refusals without giving reasons and justifications. So, taking that course really helps me to*

vary my ways in asking for things and favors. I'm trying to use the learnt strategies in my real life, and it became more easier to refuse"

Student four: "The *lessons were very beneficial, I learnt new things and new methods I haven't learnt before. To ask or to refuse politely, there were many expressions and strategies to do that. Expressions vary from one to another. I learnt how to ask directly and indirectly, how to use apologies and explanations, how to avoid…. Etc.***"**

Student five: "*The lessons of the courses overall were really great and am honored to participate in this experience. I collected from it huge amount of knowledge of a new information about the 6 Rs. The whole thing we did in the courses were beneficial and interesting that cleared many things for me about pragmatics and speech acts that will help me in my current as well as my future studies"*

Student six: " *I just want to say that the lessons were very beneficial for me. I learnt many strategies whether to request or to refuse. I am sure i will use them in the future. Also, the role plays was so good for us as English learners because it helped us in our speaking skills* **"**

Conclusion

This chapter provides an intricate overview of the findings generated from the deployed research instruments. Numerical data obtained from the pragmatic awareness test, DCTs and course feedback questionnaire were analysed and displayed in figures and tables, including the comparison of pre and post-test scores of control and experimental groups. Data collected from role-plays were analysed qualitatively.

Chapter Five
Discussion, Implications and Suggestions for Future Research

Chapter Five

Discussion, Implications and Suggestions for Future Research

Introduction……..... 332
5.1 Discussion of Findings…….……..……332
5.1.1 Instructional Effectiveness of the 6 Rs Regarding Written Production..... 332
5.1.2 Instructional Effectiveness of the 6 Rs Approach Regarding Oral Production..... 335
5.1.3 Instructional Effectiveness of the 6 Rs Approach Regarding Pragmatic Awareness..... 339
5.1.4 Students' Perceptions of the Pragmatic Instruction..... 344
5.1.5 Discussion of the Findings from the Perspective of Noticing, Cognition and Relevance.... 344
5.2 Pedagogical Implications and Recommendations 352
5.3 Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research..... 356
Conclusion 362
General Conclusion..... 364

Chapter Five

Discussion, Implications and Suggestions for Future Research

Introduction

In this chapter, the findings in relation to the reviewed literature, recommendations and pedagogical implications are provided. Thus, the discussions will be presented following this order: Instructional Effectiveness of the 6 Rs Regarding Written Production, Instructional Effectiveness of the 6 Rs Approach Regarding Oral Production, Instructional Effectiveness of the 6 Rs Approach Regarding Pragmatic Awareness, Students' Perceptions of the Pragmatic Instruction and Discussion of the Findings from the Perspective of Noticing, Cognition and Relevance.

5.1 Discussion of Findings

5.1.1 Instructional Effectiveness of the 6 Rs Regarding Written Production

The quantitative analysis of the DCTs was conducted through assessing students' written production with regard to requests and refusals to four stimulus types (suggestions, requests, offers, and invitations). Students' responses to the DCTs were, then, evaluated based on the four aspects of appropriacy, i.e. correct expressions, level of formality, quality of information, strategies choices. Hence, in order to answer the first research question (*What are the effects of the 6 Rs approach on Algerian License students of English pragmatic competence as regards oral and written production of requests and refusals*?), a comparative analysis was made based on the posttests' scores of the EG and CG using the t-test. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the post-tests of the experimental group and the control group (in favour of the EG). In the same vein, the findings demonstrated that the EG members managed to widen their repertoire of refusal and request strategies, as the choice of strategies aspect had the highest level of improvement. This improvement, as Khalid et al. (2022)

justifies, might be ascribed to the fact that refusal and request strategies were the main focus of the instructional treatment. However, this finding contradicts the results of Duan (2008) and Katchamat (2018) who reported that the choice of strategies aspect had the lowest rank when compared to the remaining aspects of appropriacy. In this regard, and as Duan (2008) explained, "students might be confused by the varieties of the patterns and were not sure in which situation they could use them. Therefore, their performances in strategies choices may be influenced" (p.156). To put it differently, students might feel unsure about when and how to use the different patterns they learned from the instructional treatment, which could lead to confusion. As a result, their ability to choose the appropriate strategies might be affected.

The second improvement was noticed in the aspect of correct expressions which appertains to the use of appropriate linguistic expressions without grammatical mistakes, i.e. linguistic accuracy. A possible reason for this improvement might be attributed to the emphasis on the grammatical correctness of linguistic expressions during the treatment phase. Hence, it seems that the instructional treatment proved to be effective in fostering students' pragmalinguistic competence. Moreover, it is worth pointing out that in the studies of Duan (2008) and Khalid et al. (2022) learners' grammatical accuracy did not improve after receiving the treatment. In this respect, Duan (2008) claims that her research participants found it challenging to determine the appropriate expressions to use when refusing suggestions, which is not the case for the current research partakers.

The level of formality, which is related to the degree of formality and the polite use of expressions, ranked the third. This finding is congruent with that of Katchamat (2018) who emphasised that this aspect was difficult for his learners since it is related to cultural differences. As Wierzbicka (as cited in Katchamat, 2018) stated, "speech acts are cultural specific

communicative routines" (p.9). In other words, speech acts are a culture specificity as people from different cultures use different norms to express requests and refusals. Ultimately, quality of information, which pertains to the length of expressions and the appropriateness of information provided by the participants, was the last approciacy aspect with the lowest level of improvement.

Overall, the improvement was noticed in the four aspects of appropriacy, but it was mostly apparent in the choice of strategies. It can be deduced that the instructional treatment proved its effectiveness in developing License students' pragmatic competence with regard to written production. Thus, the alternative hypothesis, which assumes the existence of significant differences in License students of English pragmatic competence as regards written production of requests and refusals, is confirmed. Likewise, the results of MA students disclosed that the EG outperformed the CG by having higher posttest scores. After conducting the comparative analysis of the pretest and post test scores of the EG, the order of the four aspects of appropriacy was as follows: choice of strategies, correct expressions, level of formality, and correct expressions. This order is similar to that of License students. It can be deduced that the general English proficiency level of the research participants (between upper-intermediate and advanced) did not affect their written production, which contradicts Duan's claim that the general English proficiency level and the complexity of patterns. Hence, the alternative hypothesis, which assumes the existence of a significant difference in MA students of English pragmatic competence with regard to written production of requests and refusals, is confirmed.

5.1.2 Instructional Effectiveness of the 6 Rs Approach Regarding Oral Production

Data regarding students' oral production were collected through role plays to address the first and second research questions *(what are the effects of the 6 Rs approach on Algerian License and MA students of English pragmatic competence as oral production of requests and refusals?)* and to confirm or reject the hypotheses which entail that the EG members' oral production would significantly improve after the instructional treatment. Thus, the research partakers were required to act out six communicative situations with four lecturers.

Findings of role plays revealed that the EGs members were able to perform appropriate refusals and requests taking into account the previously mentioned aspects of relevance theory (cf. chapter 3). The effectiveness of the instructional treatment was clearly noticed in the professor- student and interviewer-interviewee situations. Participants in the pretest could not ask for an extension of the paper deadline appropriately or another time for the job interview, but in the posttest they could perform their requests appropriately with the right linguistic cues, namely native-like strategies and appropriate utterance length, as evidenced by the following examples:

Example 1: Situation one: The interviewer's office

Pre test

Participant 1: *"oh, the problem is in the afternoon. I can't come in the afternoon"*

Post Test

Participant 1: *"well, I am afraid I can't make it because I have something to do in the*

morning, so how about the afternoon?"

Example 3: Situation four: Professor giving a lecture

Pre test

Participant: *"yes, normally, it is for today, but unfortunately, I have--yesterday I was sick and I couldn't finish it. What if you!"*

Professor: *"//you need extra time? //"*

Post test

Participant: *"I'm really sorry. I couldn't finish it today. Could you please give me an extension?"*

This finding goes in line with Felix-Brasdefer (2006)'s claim that "EGs participants could perform their speech acts effectively with less efforts after being equipped with the right linguistic and paralinguistic features of both refusals and requests, and aware of the sociopragmatic factors that surrounded both speech acts in all role play situations after the treatment" (p.19).

Furthermore, it was lucid that the EGs members could perform appropriate requests and refusals taking into consideration the cognitive environment of each situation. This finding aligns with Sperber and Wilson's argument (1995) that the contextual information serves as a cognitive environment that affect how participants understand and make sense of what is said. It also helps them in recognizing pertinent information and inferring what the speaker intends to convey.

Another aspect of relevance theory that was evident in students' performances is the use of paralinguistic features that can take various forms such as gestures, intonation and eye contact. This pragmatic aspect was explained and emphasized by Sperber and Wilson (1995) in relevance theory, which they called "ostensive-inferential communication". For instance, the ostensive communication was observed in one of the post-test role play videos where the participant refused to conduct the interview at the suggested timing using a paralinguistic clue (intonation). When the interviewer suggested to conduct the interview on Monday afternoon, the participant responded by saying; "Monday *afternoon??"*. In this case, the use of intonation may indicate reluctance, uncertainty and unavailability. Thus, based on this ostensive clue, the interviewer adjusted the timing of the interview, as he could infer that the suggested timing did not suit the interviewee's availability. This result corroborates Sperber and Wilson's assertion (1995) that communication is said to be effective when the listener succeeds in inferring the speaker's ostensive clues. This inference process involves the listener's ability to recognise and interpret the clues rendered by the speaker, taking into account the context and the pertinent background knowledge. In other words, the speaker provides ostensive clues and the listener infers the intended meaning based on these clues.

Insofar as refusal strategies are concerned, results revealed that most of the EGs members resorted to the use of indirect strategies to mitigate the impact of their refusals. In this vein, Felix-Brasdefer (2006) asserts that "by being indirect, learners expressed respect for the interlocutor and avoided conflict in situations of higher status. For most learners, being indirect when performing a refusal included being respectful and polite" (p.21). Hence, the EGs participants tended to be more indirect when addressing an

interlocutor with a higher social status as a way of showing respect and politeness (e.g. Sit 4, Sit 6). This finding can be further supported by Felix-Brasdefer's (2006) claim that "it is important to be indirect using reasons that reflect true intentions. Thus, the trend among these learners was to be indirect at the beginning of the interaction, and more direct towards the end in order to maintain the social relationship" (p.21). On the same account, participants showed a preference for the use of conventionally indirect strategy (reason) to rebuff a given request or offer. Their pre-test performances of refusals were characterized by the overuse of explanations, which may denote that they are aware of deploying indirect strategies to soften their refusals. Yet, they may lack the proper understanding of how to use these strategies appropriately. This can also be justified by De-Paiva's (2006) statement: "this "overuse" could suggest that learners have pragmatic awareness of the function of indirect strategies to express politeness and maintain social harmony, but did not know how they are distributed along the interaction. Another interpretation for this pattern could be an increase in overgeneralization based on the L2" (Barron, 2003, p. 47). However, in the post test participants could soften their refusals without the overuse of reasons. With regard to requests, the conventionally indirect categories, namely query preparatory, suggestory formula and the unconventionally indirect category, i.e., hints, were the mostly used strategies by the EGs members.

Overall, the results of the present study indicate that there was a significant improvement in the experimental groups' oral production with regard to the aspects of relevance theory, which denotes the effectiveness of the instructional treatment. Hence, the alternative hypotheses 1 and 2, which assume that there will be a significant

improvement in MA and License students' oral production after receiving the instructional treatment, are supported.

5.1.3 Instructional Effectiveness of the 6 Rs Approach Regarding Pragmatic Awareness

Data regarding learners' pragmatic awareness were gathered using a pragmatic awareness test PAT to address the third and fourth research question (*What are the effects of the 6 Rs approach on Algerian MA and License students of English pragmatic competence as regards awareness of appropriate requests and refusals?)* and to confirm or reject the third and fourth research hypotheses which assume that the EG members would improve their awareness of pragmatically appropriate requests and refusals after receiving the instructional treatment. The participants were instructed to determine the appropriateness of the given situations and render metapragmatic justifications that account for their choices.

The researcher was able to ascertain whether the instructional treatment affected students' overall awareness of pragmatically appropriate requests and refusals using t-test. The comparative analysis of the post tests of the CGs and EGs revealed a statistically significant difference with a substantial effect size (effect size=0,98 for License students; effect size= 1,28 for MA students), indicating an improvement in learners' pragmatic awareness after receiving the instructional treatment. Besides, analysing the pre and posttests, learners' justifications behind determining the appropriateness of requests and refusals in different situations were evaluated. The researcher counted the number of reasons rendered when the request or refusal form was deemed appropriate or inappropriate in each situation, and how many of these justifications were ascribed to sociopragmatic factors.

Example 1

Post-test

Situation 1

You are a university teacher teaching a foreign language course. You have scheduled a test on the first day of the following month, and one of your students, whom you have never met before, asks if he/she can take the test one day earlier so that he/ she can go on holiday with his/her family.

You refuse by saying:

Sorry, it is not possible, as all the students must sit for the exam on the scheduled date. I cannot make exceptions for you as then I would have to do so for everyone.

Student's Reason (License student from the EG)

"The speaker has power over the hearer. The professor has a higher status than the student".

In the aforementioned situation, there is a higher status relationship between the speaker and the hearer. The EG participant considered the refusal as appropriate, attributing his choice to the sociopragmatic factor influencing the situation (the professor has a higher status than the students)

Example 2

Post-test

Situation 6

You are a student. A friend of yours has invited you for dinner several times, but cancels just before you are supposed to meet every time. You have decided not to accept any more invitations from this friend. While you are studying in the library, this friend invites to dinner for that evening.

You refuse by saying:

You did not keep your promise before. I will not meet you again.

Student's Reason (License student from the EG)

"There is a low social distance between the speaker and the listener (close friends)".

In example 2, the EG member rated the refusal as appropriate because there is a low social distance between the speaker and the listener.

Example 3

Post Test

Situation 8

"You are applying for a scholarship, and you decide to ask professor X to write a recommendation letter for you. What would you say to get professor X to do this favour to you?

You say:

"I am asking for a recommendation letter, if it's possible"

Student's Reason (MA student from the EG)

"It is an impolite request. There is a high social distance between the student and the professor".

In example 3, the EG participant considered the request as inappropriate because there is a high social distance between the student and his professor. Therefore, the student should be more polite while asking for a recommendation letter from his professor.

Example 4

Post Test

Situation 10

You are a research assistant to a professor with whom you have a good relationship. At the end of the office hours, you are going to leave. The professor asks if you can stay him/her and help him/her with some papers?

You refuse by saying:

I am sorry, but I have an urgent appointment that I must attend. I can definitely help tomorrow.

Student's Reason (MA student from the EG)

"It is a polite refusal. The research assistant apologized, then he provided a reason and promised his professor to help him tomorrow".

In example 4, the refusal was deemed as appropriate by the EG participant since the research assistant apologized and provided a reason for not being able to help his professor.

Overall, the findings indicated that the instructional treatment was not only effective in developing learners' pragmatic awareness, but it was also useful in fostering their ability to provide metapragmatic rationales behind their choices. These results go in line with previous studies on the effectiveness of pragmatic instruction in developing learners' perception and comprehension of a given speech act (Bouton, 1994; Kubota, 1995). Additionally, the current findings corroborate the results of Martinez Flor's (2006) study that aimed to investigate the effects of pragmatic instruction on developing students' awareness of appropriate suggestions along with their ability to provide metapragmatic explanations to their answers. Findings of this study disclosed that the EG members developed a high pragmatic and metapragmatic awareness after being exposed to the instructional treatment. In the same vein, the current findings ascertain the effectiveness of pragmatic instruction in developing students' metapragmatic and pragmatic awareness. In the same regard, the current findings go in line with the results of Safont's (2001) study which was conducted to examine the role of a pragmatically-focused treatment of developing learners' production of requests and determine whether the pragmatic instruction on requests can help them in fostering their pragmatic awareness. Findings indicated a statistically significant difference in students' ability to recognize the appropriateness of request forms.

Drawing on the current findings, the alternative hypotheses three and four are supported, as the instructional treatment was shown to be effective in fostering learners' ability to identify pragmatically appropriate requests and refusals and provide metapragmatic rationales behind their choices.

5.1.4 Students' Perceptions of the Pragmatic Instruction

At the end of the intervention, a CFQ was administered to License and MA students of English at Sétif 2 University in order to elicit their perceptions of the pragmatics instruction. Therefore, the results entail MA and License students 'positive perceptions of the course. These results are similar to the ones found in quondam researches (Glaser, 2014, Pearson, 2006 & Chen, 2009), in which positive attitudes are expressed towards the pragmatics instruction. In this regard, Glaser (2014) reported, "the majority of learners perceived the pragmatic instruction as useful for their development of oral interaction skills in a foreign language" (p.412). In the current research, students disclosed that they enjoyed learning about refusal and request strategies. They also revealed that the course was informative and useful as far as their speaking skills and social interaction skills are concerned. According to Pearson (2006), it is "important to investigate learners 'perspectives about the usefulness and attractiveness of the lesson units that teach pragmatic concepts and strategies" (p.101). Lastly, teaching the course over a long span of time to ensure that the participants will have a good understanding of the pragmatic aspects being taught was highly recommended by one of the participants. In this respect, Chen (2009) reported that her research participants criticized the fact that there were so many lessons to be covered in a short period.

5.1.5 Discussion of the Findings from the Perspective of Noticing, Cognition and Relevance

The current study has been framed by a multi-model theoretical framework that combines *Noticing, Cognition, and Communication* (Schmidt, 1993; Bialystok, 1993; Wilson& Sperber, 1995) to understand the rich and complex processes of pragmatic development.

First, the results of the current study indicate that there was a significant improvement in experimental groups' pragmatic awareness after the intervention which confirms the

effectiveness of the instruction regarding pragmatic awareness. Participants of both experimental groups could recognize most of the pragmatic violations included in the PAT test, and more importantly, they could provide appropriate metapragmatic explanations that justify their decisions about the appropriateness of the given scenarios. In other words, the participants demonstrated a strong grasp of the relationship between the sociolinguistic factors (social power, social distance, and level of imposition) present in each scenario and the choice of the linguistic expressions. This enabled them to make accurate judgments regarding the appropriateness or inappropriateness of the suggested response. These results imply that students have been provided with enough opportunities to pay attention, i.e, *to notice* the target features under focus and the sociopragmatic factors that guide the appropriate choice of linguistic expressions to convey the communicative intentions. This is in line with the *Noticing Hypothesis* (1993), which states that exposure to input alone is not sufficient for pragmatic learning. Therefore, implementing a specific type of instruction may help learners notice the target pragmatic features, and possibly facilitate acquisition. In the present study that adopts the 6 Rs approach, step one; *Researching,* and two *Reflecting,* and step four, *Reasoning* aim at raising students' awareness to both the pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics of requests and refusals, there are ample activities (cf. appendix G) that help learners notice the target features and make them salient, then understand when to say what with whom. Most interventional ILP studies hold the view of noticing hypothesis as their theoretical framework, e.g. Rose and Ng (2001), Takahashi (2001), Tateyama (2001), Yoshimi (2001), Fukuya and Zhang (2002), Silva (2003), Alcon (2005), Takahashi (2005), Martinez-For and Fukuya (2005) and Koike and Pearson (2005), and they have provided evidence that high levels of attention-drawing activities are more helpful for pragmatic learning than exposure to positive evidence. (Alcon Soler & Martinez-Flor, 2008).

However, the degree of retention, specifically whether the salient input has become an intake (Schmidt, 1993), was not measured as it was not possible to administer a delayed posttest.

The second theoretical perspective that framed the current study to understand learners' pragmatic development is Bialystok's (1993) *Two-Dimensional Model (Knowledge and Control)*. The notable progress observed in the Experimental Groups (EGs), after the treatment and compared to Control groups (CGs), in terms of their ability to generate requests and refusals in this study, can be supported by Bialystok's perspective (1993) on two cognitive elements of language processing: knowledge analysis and processing control. As the EGs participants received explicit instruction on both the accuracy and appropriateness of requests and refusals to the fou r stimulus types, it is likely that their pragmatic knowledge was developed in terms of metalinguistic awareness and understanding the connections between linguistic forms and their appropriate usage. However, the participants revealed in the Course feedback Questionnaire (CFQ) that the treatment period was not enough to practice all the requests and refusals strategies in different situations, and gain control over the pragmalinguistic knowledge they received in the instruction.

Nonetheless, the participants expressed through the course feedback questionnaire CFQ that the duration of the treatment phase was insufficient for them to adequately practice the various requests and refusals in diverse situations. They also mentioned that they were unable to fully internalize and apply the pragmalinguistic knowledge imparted during the instructional period.

"but it was a good experience, the only thing that I expected was that we will take more practice time (role plays)"

"*I expected to practice more in the class...***"**

"I was able to understand them easily I expected to have interactions with native speakers during the course of the lesson and more time to practice"

"There is so much to remember, so I suggest that the course should be taught over a long period of time".

Based on the aforementioned statements, it can be inferred that the analysis of pragmatic knowledge, comprehension of metapragmatic explanations, and the correct implementation of strategies were comparatively simpler for the students. However, the challenge lays in attaining mastery over this knowledge through extensive practice, which required a longer duration of time. In this regard, and as thoroughly clarified in chapter2, Bialystok (1993), explains that the acquisition of knowledge holds relatively limited significance for adult second language (L2) learners in the realm of pragmatics. It is acknowledged that they need to acquire a certain level of knowledge, specifically an increasingly explicit comprehension of L2 pragmatic features. Yet, adult learners' fundamental challenge is gaining command over directing their attention toward their knowledge. The reason behind their tendency to generate inappropriate utterances is not due to deviant knowledge but rather because they struggle to promptly access and utilize it when required, i.e., they lack rapid access to knowledge, so that they can use it at the right time. In other words, their challenge is automaticity and pragmatic fluency. In this vein, Hassall (2008) confirms through empirical data that, unlike native speakers, adult second language (L2) learners do not possess the ability to carry out basic verbal planning tasks automatically and

unconsciously. Such tasks require significant mental effort on their part, thus utilizing a substantial portion of their language processing ability. As a result, they face difficulty in devoting sufficient attention to pragmatics, as it would lead to cognitive overload and may need more time and practice.

The third theoretical perspective utilized to comprehend participants' pragmatic development is relevance theory developed by cognitive scientists Sperber and Wilson (1995). As explained in Chapter 2, it is a pragmatic framework that seeks to explain the process of communication and comprehension. It posits that communication is a cooperative effort between speakers and listeners, where speakers aim to provide relevant information and listeners strive to derive the intended meaning from the available clues. In the current study, relevance theory is applied to analyze the six role plays and understand how the participants employ the principle of relevance to effortlessly and effectively comprehend and convey their intentions during communication in each role play scenario.

Results of the role plays indicate that the majority of EGs participants could perform appropriate requests in (Sit 1, Sit 3, Sit 4) and refusals (Sit 2, Sit 5, Sit 6) taking into consideration the three sociopragmatic factors emphasized in the intervention, namely social power P, social distance D, and the rank of imposition R. Moreover, in their interactions it was clearly seen that they could infer the speaker’s intended meaning using the cognitive environment in each situation. The results support the argument of Sperber and Wilson (1995) that the contextual information serves as a cognitive environment which influences participants' interpretation of utterances, helps individuals identify relevant information and infer the speaker's intended meaning.

Another aspect of relevance theory that was apparent in participants' performances is their verbal and non-verbal features. Notable advancements were observed in the process of transcribing role plays, coding and analyzing data, comparing the results of experimental groups' pretests and posttests, and comparing the posttests of experimental groups (EGs) to control groups (CGs). These advancements pertained to linguistic behavior, namely the selection of strategies, the length of utterances, the use of politeness strategies, and the incorporation of paralinguistic features like gestures, intonation, hesitation, silence, posture, and eye contact. For instance, in situations 1, 4, and 6 where the speaker is lower in position than the listener P- , distance D-, and the rank of imposition is high R+, EGs participants used native-like strategies as they were the focus of the instruction like giving reasons , explanation, gratitude, positive feeling , regret or apology for refusals. Regarding requests, the strategy mostly used by the EGs participants was CAT II, the conventionally indirect category, namely strategy2 preparatory which is in line with Trosborg's results (1995) who concludes that "all learners recognized the importance of preparatory conditions in requestive behaviour" (p. 234). She adds that her Danish participants' choice of strategy 2 (preparatory) were in agreement with NSs' of English request strategies, acknowledging that polite request formulations were required by the situational constraints.

Likewise, EGs participants' paralinguistic features in Relevance theory terms; ostensive stimuli, improved significantly in the posttests, and compared to control groups which indicate the effectiveness of instruction, as in phase 5 *Rehearsing* of the 6Rs approach (cf. worksheet 5 and 6 in appendix G) students were instructed to watch film scenes that included requests and refusals speech acts and fill out an observation worksheet that focuses on pointing out all the

interactional and contextual features including the non-verbal cues: the instruction in the worksheet asked them :

Step 3. Provide additional aspects regarding their non-verbal behavior (tone of voice, body language, attitudinal behavior, facial expressions, and so on) (appendix G). Then, the participants were required to act out different role play scenarios with varied contextual factors and received teacher's and peers' feedback.

The impact of this instructional phase was evident in the outcomes, aligning with the principles of relevance theory emphasized by Sperber and Wilson (1995) concerning ostensive-inferential communication. According to their theory, communication involves a process of providing clues to guide listeners' attention towards a specific meaning. In role plays, participants utilize gestures, intonation, and specific language choices to enhance communication and facilitate their interlocutors' understanding.

Moreover, the outcomes of the role plays demonstrated comparable findings to De-paiva's (2006) research on requests in Brazilian Portuguese, and they also align with Sperber and Wilson's Relevance theory, specifically in terms of cognitive effort. In the posttest role plays, participants of the experimental groups (EGs) exhibited active involvement in inferencing and reasoning processes to comprehend the intended meaning using contextual and linguistic cues to achieve their communicative objectives. De Paiva (2006) stressed the need to account for noticing constraints with insights from Relevance Theory, where the acquisition of pragmatic competence is seen as a question of selecting information amidst an input of grammatical, textual, discoursal and social factors, then concepts in RT such as relevance and the notions of 'manifestness' and 'cognitive context' have a contribution to make.

Sperber and Wilson (1995) explain that what becomes manifest to the speaker or hearer is what they are capable of understanding or representing at a specific moment. When a language learner tries to comprehend an utterance in a new language, assumptions that have been frequently accessed in previous interactions (particularly in the context of their first language and expectations of interaction) quickly enter their cognitive context and become readily manifest. However, it is worth noting that the assessment of cognitive effort was qualitative in nature, relying solely on observations of the role play videotapes rather than quantitative measurements.

The two last aspects of Relevance theory that were notable in the posttest's role plays' performances of both experimental groups were implicature and mutual cognitive environment. The first aspect was clearly seen in appropriate choice Native-like indirect refusals and requests strategies by most of the experimental groups participants as explained previously. The second aspect pertains to the creation of a shared cognitive environment, where the participants demonstrated the ability to effectively refuse and make requests in various scenarios while considering different sociopragmatic factors. This observation supports the claims made by Sperber and Wilson (1995) and is consistent with the findings of Trosborg (1995), De-Paiva (2006), and Glaser (2014). Following the instruction, a significant number of participants in the experimental groups (EGs) were able to engage in mutual inferencing, utilizing their background knowledge, cultural assumptions, and situational context to comprehend and produce appropriate requests and refusals. This aligns with Sperber and Wilson's (1995) assertion that Relevance theory highlights the active role of listeners in deriving meaning, and role plays provide an opportunity for participants to enhance their inferential and interpretive abilities.

To sum up the above discussion of the findings in relation to the range of theoretical frameworks (Schmidt's noticing hypothesis, Bialystok's two-dimensional model and Sperber and

Wilson's Relevance theory), it can be concluded that this combination could offer insights about pragmatic development from different angles and explain some processes involved in communication and comprehension, but this combination could not account for all aspects of pragmatic development and offer quantitative results, such as the concept of least effort and the control of processing. Moreover, EGs participants expressed a need for more practice and interactions with native speakers to further enhance their pragmatic skills.

5.2 Pedagogical Implications and Recommendations

The results of the present study reveal that the implementation of the 6 Rs approach (Researching, Reflecting, Receiving, Reasoning, Rehearsing, Revising) in the EFL classroom can greatly enhance the pragmatic competence of learners. The implications of these findings extend to various educational stakeholders, including researchers, teachers, learners, administrators, and decision-makers, providing valuable recommendations for practice and decision-making.

First, this study has shown that instructional pragmatics can help EFL learners in improving their pragmatic abilities, since the EFL context has been characterized by the majority of ILP studies as an impoverished context to provide learners with real life language, and what is portrayed in the materials is either largely incongruent with naturally occurring conversation or depicts the social reality of communicative encounters as grossly oversimplified (Glaser, 2014). Moreover, most of the emphasis has been put on the linguistic aspects of the language, while the pragmatic aspects have not received enough attention. This underrepresentation is mainly noticed in textbooks that are not a reliable source of pragmatic input for language learners in the classroom as concluded by the different scholars mentioned in (chapter 2 section 2.2.4.1) (Vellenga, 2004; Gilmore, 2004; Glaser, 2014). Thus the 6 Rs Approach can be incorporated

effortlessly into existing curricula in order to supplement the lack of pragmatic information in language textbooks in terms of requests and refusals which is the main focus of the current study, and the course may be extended to other speech acts and pragmatic features.

Second, this research has exhibited the development and structure of tailor-made lessons specifically designed for third year and master level students of English at Setif 2 university, with the aim of incorporating instructional rather than theoretical pragmatics into a university course. However, we firmly believe that teaching speech acts and other pragmatic aspects of the target language through the 6Rs Approach (Researching, Reflecting, Receiving, Reasoning, Rehearsing, Revising) is applicable and advisable across all levels and disciplines within the university setting such as medical, biology, law, psychology, computer science, engineering students. Moreover, we also believe that implementing the comprehensive pedagogical course of teaching speech acts through the 6 Rs approach should start at earlier educational levels, specifically primary and secondary education. This is because, in the Algerian educational system, teaching English in the current syllabi at those levels primarily focuses on the sequential teaching of grammatical structures rather than language functions and explicit teaching of pragmatic aspects of the target language. Our claim is based on children's first language acquisition process, since they start first acquiring how to use the language appropriately and communicate their goals and intentions before learning the grammatical rules and structures of their mother tongue. Therefore, teaching the pragmatics of a second/foreign language should start at an early age and go hand in hand with the teaching of structural and formal aspects of the language (Tateyama, 2001).

The third teaching implication refers to the EFL context and its shortcomings compared to the ESL context. As previously indicated in Chapter 2, learners in a foreign language context

lack opportunities for rich exposure to authentic input or to interact and practice with the native speakers of the target language (Martinez-Flor, 2004). Taking these limitations into consideration, through the 6 Rs Approach (Researching, Reflecting, Receiving, Reasoning, Rehearsing, Revising), learners are provided with the three necessary instructional components for effective pragmatic learning, namely input, interaction and output, feedback (Kasper, 1996, 2001), a detailed explanation is provided in Chapter 2 (section 2.2.4). This research offers both teachers and learners a comprehensive course that comprises pertinent input through authentic conversations from different film scenes and sitcoms (Washburn, 2001; Rose, 2001) with varied awareness-raising activities that aim at raising learners' pragmatic awareness about the pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics of requests and refusals well-presented and made salient in the first four steps; *Researching*, *Reflecting*, *Rehearsing* and *Reasoning*. All these steps aim at raising students' awareness to the targeted features and this relates to the concepts of noticing and input salience (Schmidt, 1990, 1995) Then, step five is *Rehearsing*, it offers opportunities for communicative practice provided through different activities, mainly, role plays to help learners practice and produce appropriate requests and refusals, this step relates theoretically to Bialystok Two Dimensional Model and Relevance Theory (Bialystok, 1993; Sperber & Wilson, 1996) . The third component necessary for pragmatic learning is feedback, in our course, *Revising* is the last step in the 6 Rs Approach, and consists of implicit and explicit feedback from the teacher and peers in the classroom. By providing feedback, learners may notice their gaps regarding the pragmatic knowledge of the target language and reformulate their utterances appropriately.

The fourth pedagogical implication concerns the teaching approach and the theoretical framework behind any ILP study to teach a specific pragmatic feature. The present study adopts

the explicit inductive approach based on a multi-model theoretical framework that combines noticing, cognition and communication (Schmidt, 1993; Bialystok, 1993; Sperber & Wilson, 1995) resulting in a comprehensive pedagogical model called the 6Rs approach (designed by Martinez-Flor (2006). We adapted the current study to the Algerian context, and particularly to License and MA students of English in the department of English, at Mohamed Lamine Debaghine University to teach requests and refusals. The present study has demonstrated through a twelve weeks course that the explicit inductive approach to teaching the pragmatic awareness and production of both speech acts is affirmative and effective. Thus, it is advisable and desirable for EFL teachers, curriculum developers, syllabus designers, and policy makers to implement this course in the Algerian EFL textbooks and classrooms across all the educational levels, streams and disciplines and it could be extended to the teaching of other speech acts and pragmatic aspects of English.

The fifth and final pedagogical implication concerns both data collection methods and the different instructional activities and techniques used during pre, treatment, and post phases of the study to collect data and to teach the targeted pragmatic features. Referring to prior research on research methodology and pragmatic pedagogy (Bardovi-Harlig, 1990; Trosborg, 1995; Kasper, 1996, 2001; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Martinez-Flor, 2004, 2008; Ishihara & Cohen, 2010; Glaser, 2014; among others), we specifically adapted and elaborated four distinct test types for the current study and incorporated various activities to address the wide range and complexity of pragmatic development in the EFL classroom. During the choice and the design of all these teaching and assessment materials, we took into consideration the learners' proficiency levels, their language background, the setting where they were studying (university), and people with whom they may interact (e.g., classmates and professors…). The aims behind all the tools and

activities incorporated in the present research were: collecting data, teaching, and assessing learners' pragmatic awareness regarding perception and comprehension, learners' pragmatic oral and written production, and learners' affective perception and evaluation of the course. Thus, we hopefully contributed to advancing knowledge about the pedagogical models, activities, and techniques for the teaching of speech acts, through a consciousness-raising approach, interaction, and production activities that have significant pedagogical value and could be implemented by teachers and curriculum developers in different contexts with the aim of developing learners' pragmatic competence.

In conclusion, the Comprehensive Pedagogical Framework: The 6Rs Approach in acquisitional Interlanguage Pragmatics may be considered as an effective practical course for teachers, students, curriculum developers, policymakers, and researchers in primary, secondary, and higher education.

5.3 Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

Despite the affirmative findings, the current study is subject to certain limitations that need to be addressed in future research.

Regarding methodological limitations, the major criticism in most ILP studies (Martinez-Flor, 2004; Ishihara and Cohen, 2010; Glaser, 2014) concerns DCTs and Role plays; the two speech elicitation methods employed in the current study to collect written and oral pragmalinguistic data. Their main shortcoming is the inability to produce authentic and naturalistic data. These methods necessitate participants to imagine (DCTs) or simulate (role play) their responses in a fictional scenario (details about the advantages and disadvantages of DCTs and role plays have been discussed in Chapter 3, sections 3.12.2 and 3.12.3). DCTs lack authentic interaction and turn-taking where interlocutors may need to negotiate meaning

especially with refusals that require more face-saving strategies. Likewise, role plays depict artificially elicited conversations that necessitate the participants to imagine the given situation and its surrounding context (Glaser, 2014).

Thus, these observations suggest the use of multiple-turn DCT that offers the interactant several turns for more production. Future studies also should first distinguish between "essentially single-turn speech acts" e.g., (requests, suggestions, compliments) for which the traditional DCT is suitable, and intrinsically negotiative acts that require several turns for face-saving issues e.g., (refusals, apologies, complaints) (p465). Regarding role plays' limitations, scholars (Kasper,2001, Martinez-Flor, 2004, Glaser, 2014) in the field of cross-cultural pragmatics and interlanguage pragmatics suggest gathering naturally occurring data (discussed in Chapter 2, section 2.5) although the immense challenges of this latter.

However, as explained in Chapter 2, all data-collection techniques have shortcomings, and there is no ideal data-collection instrument. Researchers can only endeavor to choose the possible data collection methods that match the goals of the study, design tools attentively, and triangulate their data as much as possible. In this vein, one of the strongest points in the current study is that we collected data through both DCTs and role plays, this combination helped approaching students' pragmatic development from different angles to complement the weaknesses of each instrument. (Glaser, 2014)

The second limitation is connected to the research design, precisely, the sample and the sampling technique which should be taken into account when interpreting the findings of the current study. Given that random selection of the sample was not possible due to students' different schedules, administrative constraints, and national strikes (al hirak, 2018), we opted for convenience sampling technique. Thus, four intact classes participated in the present study; two

third-year groups and two master I groups. The non-random selection of the study's sample excluded the possibility of conducting true experimental research and might have minimized the external validity of the study, i.e., the generalizability of the findings. Consequently, future research may replicate the study with a random selection of the sample to verify our results and maximize its external validity. Moreover, gender has been claimed as an intervening variable in ILP research and affects speech acts performance (Martinez-Flor, 2004), in our study we could not control for this variable, the sample consisted of males and females but not with equal proportions. Thus, future research is invited to take individual variables into consideration in the case of an interventional study, namely gender, age, working memory, cognitive orientations, language anxiety, motivation, and proficiency as they may affect learners' receptivity (Nguyen, Thi Phamb & Minh Phamb, 2015).

Another drawback of the present research project lies in the absence of role play data from native speakers, resulting in the NS DCT data serving as the baseline for both the written and spoken performance of the learners. As mentioned in Chapter 3, during the design of the current study, it was planned that the role plays would be dyads of (NS-NNS), given the national troubles during 2018 (strikes; al hirak), it was not possible to collect data from native speakers except for DCTs as they filled out the written DCTs online, and for the role plays expert teachers from the department of English at Setif 2 university were invited to act out the role plays with the students instead of the native speakers (this was the suggestion of Ishihara after spending a long time looking for native speakers to participate in our study). Therefore, Glaser (2014) asserts that this approach appears questionable in retrospect if we consider the observed differences in speech behavior across the various data collection methods, and the study would have undoubtedly benefitted from including role-play data from native speakers. Unfortunately,

the constraints of the current research project rendered this unfeasible. However, it is a valuable suggestion to consider for future research in the field of ILP.

A further limitation of the study pertains to the absence of delayed posttests to supplement the immediate posttests, which were scheduled shortly after the treatment period to test the long-term effect of the instruction and thus measure students' intake. It should be noted that including a delayed posttest was initially intended as part of the research procedure. However, due to the substantial time required for the pre and posttest role plays (from October till June; pre, treatment, and posttests, with students' strikes in that year), scheduling a delayed posttest in the subsequent academic year of 2019 was not feasible. Additionally, because not all participants from the third-year level passed to the Master's level, and those who did reach Master II level had only one semester remaining to commence their Master's research, conducting a delayed posttest was not possible. Delayed posttests are significant in ILP research to test whether noticing the input and practicing it in an intervention of twelve weeks like in the present study led to intake. This would have added value to the confirmation of our results; therefore, future studies are highly recommended to incorporate delayed posttests to close this research gap.

Additionally, future research should examine and compare the effects of other types of approaches and instructional designs (e.g., inductive/ deductive; implicit/explicit) to compare the results of both dichotomies. Furthermore, researchers are invited to make use of other pedagogical models presented in Chapter 2, in addition to the 6 Rs approach. On the other hand, it is highly suggested that future research replicates the current study with the same multi-model theoretical framework (combining noticing, cognition, and communication) with a discourse analytical approach for more conclusive explicit results. Time constraints in the present study

inhibited clear observations of the combination between noticing the input, analysis of the pragmatic knowledge, control of processing, performing less effort with higher effects, and manifestness and relevance to understand clearly the complexity of pragmatic development through participants' role plays and practice during the treatment period and pre-posttest role plays. Sperber and Wilson (1996) confirm this limitation: "The main obstacle to experimental comparisons of relevance theory with other pragmatic theories is that the testable consequences of these other theories have often not been made explicit" (p. 283) and De-Paiva (2010) in her turn asserts: " it is not possible to make strong claims about possible explanations for the development of pragmatic abilities in a second language." and she concludes: "there is a need to close the gap between empirical studies and the theories proposed for the development of pragmatic abilities in a more systematic way" (p. 283).

The final limitation concerns the researcher who was at the same time the instructor during the intervention. This fact has two limitations: First, the instructor is not a native speaker of English, shares the L1 of the majority of her participants, and has never been to an English-speaking country. Undoubtedly, the impact of the teacher's L1 (native language) norms cannot be completely disregarded (Glaser, 2014). Even though the researcher-instructor has diligently analyzed the relevant literature, there is no assurance that the presentation and interpretation of the materials and rules were entirely free from the teacher's inherent Algerian Arabic perspective. However, this does not mean that all NNS teachers should not teach pragmatics in their classrooms. Rather, as Judd (1999, pp, 161-162) claims: "it is vital that NNS teachers make sure to obtain as much information on target pragmatic norms, be it through their colleagues, relevant research literature or suitable audiovisual media".

Second, the simultaneous role of the instructor as the researcher introduces potential risks to the objectivity and reliability of the study. When the person administering the treatment is aware of the research objectives, their behavior in the classroom may be inadvertently influenced. Furthermore, as the instructor is primarily occupied with managing the lessons, their ability to fully observe and document the classroom procedures may be compromised. Ideally, in an interventional study of this nature in future studies, Glaser (2014) suggests that the classroom phase should involve a tandem approach, with a dedicated instructor solely focusing on teaching components (preferably without knowledge of the exact research goals to avoid any potential teaching biases), and a separate researcher closely observing the classroom procedures without distractions related to lesson plan implementation and classroom management.

In conclusion, despite the aforementioned limitations, the current study has made valuable contributions to the expanding body of research about instructional effectiveness in ILP. It has broadened the focus on learning target features by examining requests and refusals across the four stimulus types. Additionally, the study has shed further light on the effectiveness of a comprehensive pedagogical framework: the 6 Rs approach adopting an explicit inductive approach, in enhancing learners' pragmatic competence in the EFL classroom. Furthermore, by incorporating different data collection methods and theoretical frameworks, we have provided fresh insights into research methodology. Consequently, the findings of this study, though preliminary, have the potential to advance the field of interlanguage pragmatics and inspire future investigations along various lines of research.

Conclusion

This chapter provides an extensive discussion of the main results trying to answer the research questions and test the corresponding hypotheses. Drawing on the current research findings, a number of pedagogical implications for teachers, learners and policy makers are presented along with limitations of the study and suggestions for further research.

General Conclusion

General Conclusion

The current quasi-experimental study is conducted to examine the impact of the 6Rs approach in fostering MA and License students of English pragmatic competence regarding production and awareness of appropriate requests and refusals to invitations, offers, suggestions and requests. It also tends to elicit their perceptions of the intervention. The research adopts an explicit inductive approach, informed by a multi-model theoretical framework that combines noticing, cognition, and communication. Research participants were 48 MA students and 54 License students in the English Language Department at Sétif 2 University, they were conveniently selected with an intermediate to advanced English proficiency level. A 12-session instructional treatment was delivered to the EGs participants throughout a comprehensive pedagogical framework known as the 6 Rs Approach, it consists of six phases: Researching, Reflecting, Receiving, Reasoning, Rehearsing, and Revising, and was developed by Martínez-Flor and Usó-Juan (2006). DCTs, role-plays, pragmatic awareness test and course feedback questionnaire were used as research instruments to gather qualitative and quantitative data at the beginning and at the end of the treatment from the CGs and EGs participants. Their pragmatic written production, i.e., their pragmalinguistic competence, was evaluated by means of pre and post DCTs, whereas data about their pragmatic competence as regards oral production were gathered using role plays, and to assess participants' pragmatic awareness as regards perception and comprehension, i.e., their sociopragmatic competence, data were collected by means of pre and post PAT; pragmatic awareness test. Moreover, at the end of the treatment, the course feedback questionnaire was administered to elicit the perceptions of the EGs participants about the role of the 6 Rs approach in improving their pragmatic competence. The intervention was implemented within the explicit language teaching paradigm, which involves the explicit

provision of metapragmatic information. However, the sequencing of these explicit rules was delivered in an inductive method. This means that the student participants were initially presented with language input and then guided to discover the rules themselves through a process of guided discovery facilitated by the teacher (Researching, Reflecting, Receiving, and Reasoning phases).

The SPSS software (version. 22) was used in order to analyse the quantitative data. Qualitative data were analysed through transcription, coding, searching for themes and patterns, then, analysis and interpretation. The effectiveness of instruction was measured via two indicators; the use of NS requests and refusals collected from the literature and emphasized in the instruction, and the provision of appropriate metapragmatic information that controls for the three sociopragmatic variables taught in the treatment. Thus, the current research aims at answering the following research questions:

1. What are the effects of the 6 Rs approach on Algerian License and Master I students of English pragmatic competence as regards awareness of appropriate requests and refusals?

2. What are the effects of the 6 Rs approach on Algerian License and Master students of English pragmatic competence as regards oral and written production of requests and refusals?

3. What are License and Master I students' perceptions of the pragmatics instruction at the end of the intervention?

The first research questions was purported to determine the effects of the 6 Rs approach on MA and License students' pragmatic competence as regards oral and written production of requests and refusals. To this end, with regard to students' pragmalinguistics, the participants in

the experimental and the control groups were required to answer pre-DCTs and post-DCTs to which they were given scores. The numerical data in the form of pre- test and post-test scores showed that the EGs outperformed the CGs. Thus, it can be deduced that the EG participants' written production improved after the integration of the 6 Rs approach. Moreover, the results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the post-tests of the experimental and control groups (in favour of the EGs), especially with regard to an increased use of the features focused on in the instruction, namely strategy choice of requests and refusals which approximated NS' strategies as emphasized in the treatment, face saving strategies, and metapragmatic awareness. Hence, the alternative hypothesis, which assumes the existence of significant differences in License students of English pragmatic competence as regards written production of requests and refusals, is confirmed. This improvement was noticed in the different aspects of appropriacy, but it was mostly apparent in the choice of strategies. As for the oral production, the research participants were required to role play six communicative situations with four female lecturers. The findings indicated that there was a difference between pre and post role plays results, and between the experimental and the control groups posttests, regarding the four aspects of communication in relation to Relevance Theory. EGs participants could employ the principle of relevance to effortlessly and effectively comprehend and convey their intentions during communication in all role play scenarios, they demonstrated that instruction raised their awareness to the linguistic and paralinguistic features of requests and refusals, and they took into consideration the sociopragmatic factors of each role play situation. Moreover, their interactions showcased an increase in the frequency of various indirect strategies across turns including reason or explanation, alternative, regret or apology, negative ability for refusals,

and for requests. In addition, the content of these strategies was more elaborate and contained evidence of internal modification to soften direct refusals and requests.

The second research questions aimed at examining the effects of the 6Rs approach on developing MA and License students' pragmatic awareness. Hence, the research participants were given pre and post awareness test. The results revealed that there was a statistical difference between the post tests of the EGs and CGs members. Furthermore, the EGs members were able to indicate the appropriateness of the given situations with elaborate metapragmatic explanations that indicate highly improved awareness of the sociopragmatic variables emphasized in the intervention. Thus, the alternative research hypotheses four and five, which speculate that the 6 Rs approach will improve MA and License students of English pragmatic awareness, are confirmed.

The third research question was geared towards exploring MA and License students of English perceptions of pragmatics intervention. Hence, a course feedback questionnaire was administered to the research participants just at the end of the course. The results entail MA and License students' positive perceptions of the course. They disclosed that they enjoyed learning about request and refusal pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. They also revealed that the course was useful and applicable with regard to their speaking and social interaction skills. Moreover, their responses were suggestive of greater benefits regarding metapragmatic awareness and pragmalinguistic repertoire of requests and refusals, however, some students suggested that they needed more time for role plays and practice and that they would have preferred more opportunities for interactions with native speakers. Not only did they reveal the relevance of the course, but their final comments were suggestive of high appreciation of the awareness-raising activities, the different phases of the 6 Rs approach they went through to

notice the pragmatic features, the video-taped practice and feedback, and the production activities which indicates that they enjoyed pragmatic learning through the guided discovery and the explicit metapragmatic instruction of the inductive explicit approach that characterized the 6 Rs pedagogical framework.

Based on the empirical evidence of the current study, practical implications should be derived for teachers, learners, curriculum developers and policy makers regarding the fruitful combination of the inductive explicit instructional design framed by the multi-model theoretical perspectives of Schmidt's (1993) *Noticing Hypothesis*, Bilystok's (1993) *Two-Dimensional Model*, Sperber and Wilson's (1995) *Relevance Theory*. They should consider the importance of the 6Rs approach as a pedagogical framework to foster students' pragmatic competence as regards awareness and production of not only requests and refusals to invitations, offers, suggestions, and requests, but expand its application to other pragmatic features . Thus, a set of practical tasks, strategies, information, and activities are provided for teachers who want to help learners in developing their pragmatic competence. Besides, it is advisable and desirable for EFL teachers, curriculum developers, syllabus designers, and policy makers to implement this course in the Algerian EFL textbooks and classrooms across all the educational levels, streams and disciplines and it could be extended to the teaching of other speech acts and pragmatic aspects of English.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Written Discourse Completion Task

Name:

In this questionnaire, you will find several communication situations in which you interact with someone. Pretend you are the person in the situation. Write down your response.

Respond as you would in an actual situation. There are no right or wrong answers. You may reflect as long as you will before responding**.**

1. You are a master student in your department. A first-year student, whom you met *a* FEW TIMES before, invites you to lunch in the university cafeteria but you do not want to go.

Student: I haven't had my lunch yet. Would you like to join me?

You refuse by saying:

.....

.....

2. You really have to take this course in order to graduate, but you found that the course is already closed. So, you decide to ask the professor, whom you DO NOT

KNOW personally, to allow you to take this course. What would you say to get this professor to grant you permission to participate in this course?

You:.....

.....

.....

3. You are a lecturer in the Department of Linguistics. You and an administrative staff member are in the language centre office busy packing books and folders that will be moved to your office. One of your students whom you KNOW WELL shows up to ask you about his assignment. Noticing that you still have a lot of books to be removed from the shelves, he offers you help, but you decline his offer.

Student: is there anything I could do to help?

You refuse by saying:

.....

.....

4. You are very much interested in attending a class taught by Professor X. You already have taken two classes from Professor X, and you KNOW him personally VERY WELL. So, you decide to ask this professor ‘s permission to attend. What would you say to get this professor to allow you to attend this class?

You:.....

.....

.....

5. It is Friday afternoon, you meet your CLOSE FRIEND in the front of the library. He/She says that he/she is going to the beach next Friday in a trip organised by the university and invites you to join them, but you cannot go.

Friend: hey I am going to the beach next Friday, do you want to come along?

You refuse by saying:

.....

.....

.....

6. You are a lecturer at a school of Arts and Literature. In your break time you happen to have a small chat with a graduate student representative at a cafe of the campus. He is organizing some programs for newer students week orientation. He says that at the end of the fresher orientation days there will be a party. He invites you to go to the party, but , you cannot go.

Student: we are going to have a party next Saturday afternoon. We would be very pleased if you could come.

You refuse by saying:

.....

……..

7. You are going through some financial difficulties. One of your friends offers you some money but you do not want to accept it.

Friend: I know you are having some financial difficulties these days. You always help me whenever I need something. I can lend you 10000 DA. Would you accept it from me?

You refuse by saying:

.....

.....

8. You have worked too hard at your study. Your CLOSE FRIEND knows this and he/she suggests you do something to make your mind relax a bit. However, you refuse his/her suggestion.

Friend: hey why don ‘t you at least do something else to make your mind relax?

You refuse by saying:

.....

…….

9. Because of the flu, you were absent last Sunday grammar class that you are enrolled in. So you decide to borrow your INTIMATE classmate ‘s notes to catch up with the rest of the class. What would you say to get this friend to lend you notes for the class you missed?

You:.....

.....

.....

10. In addition to being a student, you are a manager of an online advertisingbusiness. Recently your laptop has been infected by computer viruses. You have tried some new anti-viruses, but they are not quite effective. One of your STAFF MEMBERS suggests you apply a different operating system to avoid the virus. However, you decline his suggestion.

Staff: I heard LINUX is the safest operating system. Perhaps you could give it a try.

You refuse by saying:

.....

.....

11. You are in your professor ‘s office talking about your dissertation final draft whichis due in two weeks. Your professor indicates that he has a guest speaker coming to hisnext class and invites you to attend that lecture but you cannot.

Professor: By the way, I have a guest speaker in my next class who will be discussing issues which are relevant to your research topic. Would you like to attend?

You refuse by saying:

.....

.....

12. You are the president of a student organization. You are in a meeting now. You need to borrow a piece of paper in order to take some notes. An unfamiliar member, who seems to be a NEW STUDENT and whom you DO NOT know personally, is sitting next to you and might have a piece of extra folder paper. How would you ask this new member for a piece of paper?

You:.....

.....

.....

13. You are at your desk trying to find a report that your boss just asked for. While you are searching through the mess on your desk, your boss walks over.

Boss: You know, maybe you should try and organize yourself better. I always write myself little notes to remind me of things. Perhaps you should give it a try!

You refuse by saying:

.....

.....

.....

14. You are asking your professor for an extension for finishing a research paper. What do you say to your professor?

You:.....

.....

15. You are going to visit your friend, who lives in the college dormitory. You are on campus, but don‘t know where the dorm is. You are going to ask a student, who is passing by, for the location of the dorm. How will you ask the student?

You:.....

.....

.....

16. You ‘ve been working in an advertising agency now for some time. The boss offers you a raise and promotion, but it involves moving. You don ‘t want to go. Today, the boss calls you into his office.

Boss: I ‘d like to offer you an executive position in our new office in Algiers. It ‘s a great town---only 1hour from here by plane. And, a nice raise comes with the position.

You refuse by saying:

.....

.....

.....

17. You are applying for a scholarship, and you decide to ask Professor X, who knows you very well as your ACADEMIC ADVISOR, to write a recommendation letter for you. What would you say to get Professor X to do this favor to you?

You:.....

.....

.....

18. A CLASSMATE, who frequently misses classes, asks to borrow your class notes, but you do not want to give them to him.

Classmate: You know I missed the last class. Could I please borrow your notes from that class?

You refuse by saying:

.....

.....

.....

19. You only have one day left before taking a final exam at the university. While you are studying for the exam, one of your YOUNGER RELATIVES, who is in high school, asks if you would help him with his homework but you cannot.

Relative: I ‘m having problems with some of my homework assignments. Would you please help me with some of my homework tonight?

You refuse by saying:

.....

.....

20. Your roommate is your best friend‘s younger sibling .Your computer is out of order because of a virus, but you have a paper due tomorrow. You decide to ask your ROOMMATE whether you can borrow his/her computer tonight. What would you say to get your roommate to do this favor for you?

You:.....

.....

.....

21. You are a secondary school teacher and you ask one of YOUR STUDENTS to get a book from the library. What would you say to that student?

You:.....

.....

22. You are a language teacher at a university. It is just about the middle of the term now and one of your STUDENTS asks to speak to you.

Student: Ah, excuse me, some of the students were talking after class recently and we think that the class would be better if you could give us more practice in conversation and less on grammar. You refuse his request.

You refuse by saying:

.....

Thank you for your cooperation

Appendix B

DCTs for Native Speakers

Name/ Code:

In this questionnaire, you will find several communication situations in which you interact with someone. Pretend you are the person in the situation. Write down your response.

Respond as you would in an actual situation. There are no right or wrong answers. You may reflect as long as you will before responding**.**

1. You are in your professor's office talking about your dissertation final draft which is due in two weeks. Your professor indicates that he has a guest speaker coming to his next class and invites you to attend that lecture but you cannot.

Professor: By the way, I have a guest speaker in my next class who will be discussing issues which are relevant to your research topic. Would you like to attend?

You refuse by saying: I really want to attend, but I have something personal going on that I just cannot cancel. Would it be possible for the class resources to be made available? I can catch up in my own time, because really, I do not want to miss this material.

2. You really have to take this course in order to graduate, but you found that the course is already closed. So, you decide to ask the professor, whom you DO NOT KNOW personally, to allow you to take this course. What would you say to get this professor to grant you permission to participate in this course?

You: Since I was twelve, computer science has been a large part of my life. I really hate to make excuses, and it‘s hard for me to admit my mistakes, but I‘ve been so caught up caring for my younger brother, that my thought slipped, and I missed the course deadline. I really want this for myself, and for my family.

3. You are a lecturer in the Department of Linguistics. You and an administrative staff member are in the language centre office busy packing books and folders that will be moved to your office. One of your students whom you know well shows up to ask you about his assignment. Noticing that you still have a lot of books to be removed from the shelves, he offers you help but you decline his offer.

Student: is there anything I could do to help?

You refuse by saying: No, it‘s fine, I‘m nearly done to be honest. It‘s not going to take me very long to finish up.

4. You are very much interested in attending a class taught by Professor X. You already have taken two classes from Professor X, and you KNOW him personally verywell. So you decide to ask this professor‘s permission to attend . What would you say to get this professor to allow you to attend this class?

You: I‘m finding these classes extremely helpful, would I be allowed to attend on a permanent basis?

5. You are a lecturer at a school of Arts and Literature. In your break time you happen to have a small chat with a graduate student representative at a cafe of the campus. He is organizing some programs for newer student’s week orientation. He says that at the

end of the fresher orientation days there will be a party. He invites you to go to the party, but you cannot go.

Student: we are going to have a party next Saturday afternoon. We would be very pleased if you could come.

You refuse by saying: Unfortunately, I ‘ve already made plans next Saturday, but I definitely want to go. Can you let me know the next time you ‘re organising another one?

6. It is Friday afternoon. You meet your close friend in the front of the library. He/She says that he/she is going to the beach next Friday in an organised trip by the university and invites you to join, but you cannot go.

Friend: hey I am going to the beach next Friday; do you want to come along?

You refuse by saying: Honestly, I really want to go, but I have already made plans with X, and I hate cancelling. Do you want to go to the beach again next X instead?

7. You are going through some financial difficulties. One of your friends offers you some money but you do not want to accept it.

Friend: I know you are having some financial difficulties these days. You always help me whenever I need something. I can lend you 1000 DA. Would you accept it from me?

You refuse by saying: I really appreciate your words and this gesture, but I cannot take it, I need to do this on my own. Once again, thank you, I won ‘t forget this.

8. You have worked too hard at your study. Your close friend knows this and he/she suggests you do something to make your mind relax a bit. However, you refuse his/her suggestion.

Friend: hey why don ‘t you at least do something else to make your mind relax?

You refuse by saying: I ‘m really close now to finishing this study, I can relax when the work is submitted. It’s imperative that I score well. I have been working hard lately and it’s starting to pay off, I don’t want to break this trend.

9. Because of the stomach flu, you were absent last Sunday grammar class that you are enrolled in. So, you decide to borrow your INTIMATE classmate ‘s notes to catch up with the rest of the class. What would you say to get this friend to lend you notes for the class you missed?

You: Can I borrow your notes for last week’s class? I felt truly awful.

10. In addition to being a student, you are a manager of an online advertisingbusiness. Recently your laptop has been infected by computer viruses. You have tried some new anti-viruses, but they are not quite effective. One of your staff suggests you apply a different operating system to avoid the virus. However, you decline his suggestion.

Staff: I heard KASPERSKY is the safest operating system. Perhaps you could give it a try.

You refuse by saying: I’m fine, thank you. Kaspersky is an antivirus, not an operating system.

11. You are a master student in your department. A first-year student, whom you met a few

times before, invites you to lunch in the university cafeteria but you do not want to go.

Student: I haven't had my lunch yet. Would you like to join me?

You refuse by saying: I've got some errands that I need to run, unfortunately.

12. You are the president of a student organization. You are in a meeting now. You need to borrow a piece of paper in order to take some notes. An unfamiliar member, who seems to be a NEW STUDENT and whom you DO NOT know personally, is sitting next to you and might have a piece of extra folder paper. How would you ask this new member for a piece of paper?

You: Sorry, I don't suppose I can use a sheet of your paper, could I?

13. You are at your desk trying to find a report that your boss just asked for. While you are searching through the mess on your desk, your boss walks over.

Boss: You know, maybe you should try and organize yourself better. I always write myself little notes to remind me of things. Perhaps you should give it a try!

You refuse by saying: Constantly leaving notes is a sign of Alzheimer's or Dementia. Just saying.

14. You are asking your professor for an extension for finishing a research paper. What do you say to your professor?

You: This is extremely hard for me to say and admit this to you, but I hadn't quite finished the research paper, and I was given the news that my Uncle has been diagnosed with cancer, and I've been distraught ever since. Can I just have a few days extra to complete the paper?

15. You are going to visit your friend, who lives in the college dormitory. You are on campus, but don't know where the dorm is. You are going to ask a student, who is passing by, for the location of the dorm. How will you ask the student?

You: I don't suppose you know where X is, do you?

16. You've been working in an advertising agency now for some time. The boss offers you a raise and promotion, but it involves moving. You don't want to go. Today, the boss calls you into his office.

Boss: I'd like to offer you an executive position in our new office in Algiers. It's a great town---only 1hours from here by plane. And, a nice raise comes with the position.

You refuse by saying: Whilst I love working under you and this company, I cannot take it. I would be too disruptive to my family and their mental wellbeing.

17. You are applying for a scholarship, and you decide to ask Professor X, who knows you very well as your ACADEMIC ADVISOR, to write a recommendation letter for you. What would you say to get Professor X to do this favor to you?

You: Professor X, I want you to be my advisor. Out of everyone at this University, I benefit the most from you, from your teaching style to your enthusiasm. I would be very grateful if you would accept.

18. A classmate, who frequently misses classes, asks to borrow your class notes, but you do not want to give them to him.

Classmate: You know I missed the last class. Could I please borrow your notes from that class?

You refuse by saying: No, because I doubt you would do the same for me, should the roles be turned.

19. You only have one day left before taking a final exam at the university. While you are studying for the exam, one of your younger relatives, who is in high school, asks if you would help him with his homework but you cannot.

Relative: I'm having problems with some of my homework assignments. Would you please help me with some of my homework tonight?

You refuse by saying: I've got an exam tomorrow, so I really cannot help today, but we can go through it together tomorrow night, how's that?

20. Your roommate is your best friend's younger sibling. Your computer is out of order because of a virus, but you have a paper due tomorrow. You decide to ask your ROOMMATE whether you can borrow his/her computer tonight. What would you say to get your roommate to do this favor for you?

You: I have some issues with my computer, and I'm getting desperate. Can I borrow your PC, please? I will take good care of it, I promise.

21. You are a secondary school teacher and you ask one of your students to get a book from the library. What would you say to that student?

You: X, can you do me a favor? Please go to the library and get the book on X. If you can't find it, ask X for the location.

22. You are a language teacher at a university. It is just about the middle of the term now and one of your students asks to speak to you.

Student: Ah, excuse me, some of the students were talking after class recently and we kind of feel that the class would be better if you could give us more practice in conversation and less on grammar. You refuse his request.

You refuse by saying: I appreciate your feedback, but the class has been planned in a specific way, and it would be unfair on other people to change it now.

Appendix C

Role Plays

You will be asked to act out six role-plays at the beginning and at the end of the course.

* In each role-play, you choose the role that is going to perform the speech act required in the situation

* We will videotape your participation in order to evaluate the activity, not you, and will be used solely and exclusively by the researcher for research purposes.

* You will have few minutes to prepare for the role-play.

* Act as if it were a real-life situation (begin with a greeting and say good-bye at the end).

Do the best you can.

Role-play 1

Setting: The interviewer's office.
A is you **B** is the interviewer

You are a recent college graduate who is applying for a job at a large corporation. The company has called you for a first interview, and at the end of the first interview, they ask for a second interview. You *are* very interested in a second interview, but you are very busy at your part-time job and *can* only come to interviews very early in the morning. The interviewer only wants to make afternoon appointments. What do you say in order to get *an* early morning interview?

A:.....
.....
B:
.....
.....
A:
.....
.....
B:
.....
.....
A:
.....
.....
B:
.....
.....

Role-play 2

Setting: At the campus.
A is the friend **B** is you
You have worked too hard at your study. Your CLOSE friend knows this and he/she suggests you do something to make your mind relax a bit. However, you refuse his/her suggestion.

A:.....

B:.....

A:.....

B.....

A:.....

B:.....

Role-play 3

Setting: In the classroom**.**
A is you B is your classmate

Because of the flu, you were absent last Sunday grammar class that you are enrolled in. So, you decide to borrow your INTIMATE classmate's notes to catch up with the rest of the class. What would you say to get this friend to lend you notes for the class you missed?

A:.....
B:
.....
A:
.....
B:
.....
A:
.....
B:
.....

Role-play 4

Setting: professor giving a lecture**.**
A is the student **B** is the professor

Tomorrow is the due date of a final term paper for one of the courses you are taking this semester. However, you *are* not able to turn it on time because you caught a cold and had unexpected visitors from out of town staying with you. You want to talk to the professor, whom you have known for a couple of years, and ask for *an* extension on the paper. You go to the office and knock on the door. What would you say in order to get *an*
extension?

A:.....
B:
.....
A:
.....
B:
.....
A:
.....
B:
.....

Role-play 5

Setting: The university cafeteria, A and B are fellow students who had just a seminar together. They know each other from the class but they are NOT CLOSE.

A is the fellow student **B** is you

After the seminar you both attended, you have bumped into each other in the cafeteria and decided to sit together. During your lunch conversation, you mention that you are currently having trouble with your laptop and you're hoping to have it fixed in time for your seminar presentation next week. Your classmate offers to lend you her/his laptop, but you prefer to use your own computer, especially for all the preparation work beforehand.

A:.....
....

B:
.....
....

A:
.....
....

B:
.....
....

A:
.....
....

B:
.....
....

Role-play 6

Setting: The Professor's office.
A is the professor **B** is the student

Your Professor has a guest speaker and in his next class he will be discussing issues which are relevant to your research topic. your professor invites you to attend, but you have an emergency and you have to leave rapidly.

A:.....
B:
.....
A:
.....
B:
.....
A:
.....
B:
.....

Appendix D

Pragmatic Awareness Test

Name:.....

Read the following communicative situations in which someone is making a request or a refusal in each situation. Tick (ü**) whether the answer is appropriate or inappropriate to each particular situation and explain your answer.**

NOTE: appropriateness in this test means linguistic politeness

1. You are a university professor teaching a foreign language course. You have scheduled a test on the first day of the following month, and one of your students, whom you have never met before, asks if he/ she can take the test one day earlier so that he/she can go on holiday with his/her family, as they have bought tickets on the day of the test.

You refuse by saying:

- Sorry, it''s not possible, as all students must sit the exam on the scheduled date. I can't make exceptions for you as then I would have to do so for everyone.

Appropriate **Inappropriate**

Reason: .....

2. You *are a* student working on a group project. You have a big project due in three days, but you haven't started on your part of the project. You don't understand exactly what you're supposed to do, and you want to ask another member of your group for help. You know this person is a very good student who is always prepared and finishes his assignments long before they *are* due. What do you say in order to get this student to help you?

You say:

- *Can you help me later today?*

Appropriate **Inappropriate**

Reason: .....

3. *As a* part-time job, you *are* working *as a* library monitor. I t is your job to make sure the library is quiet for all students who wish to study. While checking on each floor in the library, you see a group of students that you don't know talking loudly in a non-discussion area. I t seems clear that this loud noise disturbs other students' studying. You want those students to be quiet or move to a discussion area. You approach them. What would you say in order to make the students quiet?

You say:

-*No talking here. You need to go downstairs if you continue talking.*

Appropriate **Inappropriate**

Reason: .....

4. You are applying for a job in a large company. You have just finished *an* interview with the manager. The interview went well but took much longer than you expected. You are getting ready to leave the office when the manager explains that it is time for a long tour of the company. You cannot go on the tour because you have another important meeting scheduled.

You refuse by saying:

-I'm sorry, but I have something else scheduled. Can I take the tour another time?

Appropriate **Inappropriate**

Reason: .....

5. You *are* an international student at a university in a different country. The university president invites all the study abroad students for dinner at a restaurant that *serves* a dish made with special natural mushrooms. You do not like mushrooms, and would *prefer* to have something else.

You refuse by saying:

-I won't eat mushrooms. Order something else for me.

Appropriate **Inappropriate**

Reason: .....

6. You *are a* student. A friend of yours has invited you for dinner several times, but cancels just *before you're* supposed to meet every time. You have decided not to accept any more invitations from this friend. While you *are* studying in the library, this friend invites you to dinner for that evening.

You refuse by saying:

-You didn't keep your promise before. I won't meet you again.

Appropriate **Inappropriate**

Reason: .....

7. You are a recent college graduate who is applying for a job at a large corporation. The company has called you for a first interview, and at the end of the first interview, they ask for a second interview. You are very interested in a second interview, but you are very busy at your part-time job and *can* only come to interviews very early in the morning. The interviewer only wants to make afternoon appointments. What do you say in order to get *an* early morning interview?

You say:

- I'm sorry to be so much trouble, but is there any possible way we could schedule the second interview in the morning?

Appropriate **Inappropriate**

Reason: .....

8. You are applying for a scholarship, and you decide to ask Professor X , who knows you very well as your academic advisor , to write a recommendation letter for you. What would you say to get Professor X to do this favor to you?

You say:

- *I'm asking for a recommendation letter, if it's possible.*

Appropriate **Inappropriate**

Reason: .....

9. You work *as a* waiter. You have worked at the same restaurant for two years. You *are* supposed to work this afternoon from 12 to 5, but you haven't been feeling well lately and you want to go and see your doctor. At 10:00 am, you decide to call and ask your manager if you *can have* the afternoon off. What would you probably say in order not to work this afternoon?

You say:

- *I don't feel well today, so I think I should see my doctor. I have asked someone to cover my shift today.. I hope you don't mind.. I will work for them later.*

Appropriate **Inappropriate**

Reason: .....

10. You are a research assistant to a Professor, with whom you have a good academic relationship. At the end of the office hours, you are going to leave. The Professor asks if you can stay with him/her and help him/her with some papers.

You refuse by saying:

- *I am sorry, but I have an urgent appointment that I simply must attend. I can definitely help tomorrow.*

Appropriate **Inappropriate**

Reason:

.....

Thank you for your cooperation

Appendix E

Course Feedback Questionnaire (CFQ)(Adapted from Glaser, 2014, p.566)

1) **What is your overall impression of our lessons on pragmatics and speech acts? what did you like, what did you not like?**

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2) **On a scale from 1 to 10 with ten being the highest, how much do you think these lessons have improved…**

your overall speaking skills? ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐ 8 ☐ 9 ☐ 10

your social interaction skills? ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐ 8 ☐ 9 ☐ 10

3) **How relevant did you find what we did with regard to your speaking skills? please check.**

	Not at all	**Somewhat** useful	**Quite** Useful	**Very** Useful
Request Strategies				
Refusal Strategies				
Video Taping and Individual Feedback				
Discussing intercultural Differences of what people consider as 'polite'				

4) What did you miss? What did you expect to do and learn that we didn't do?

……

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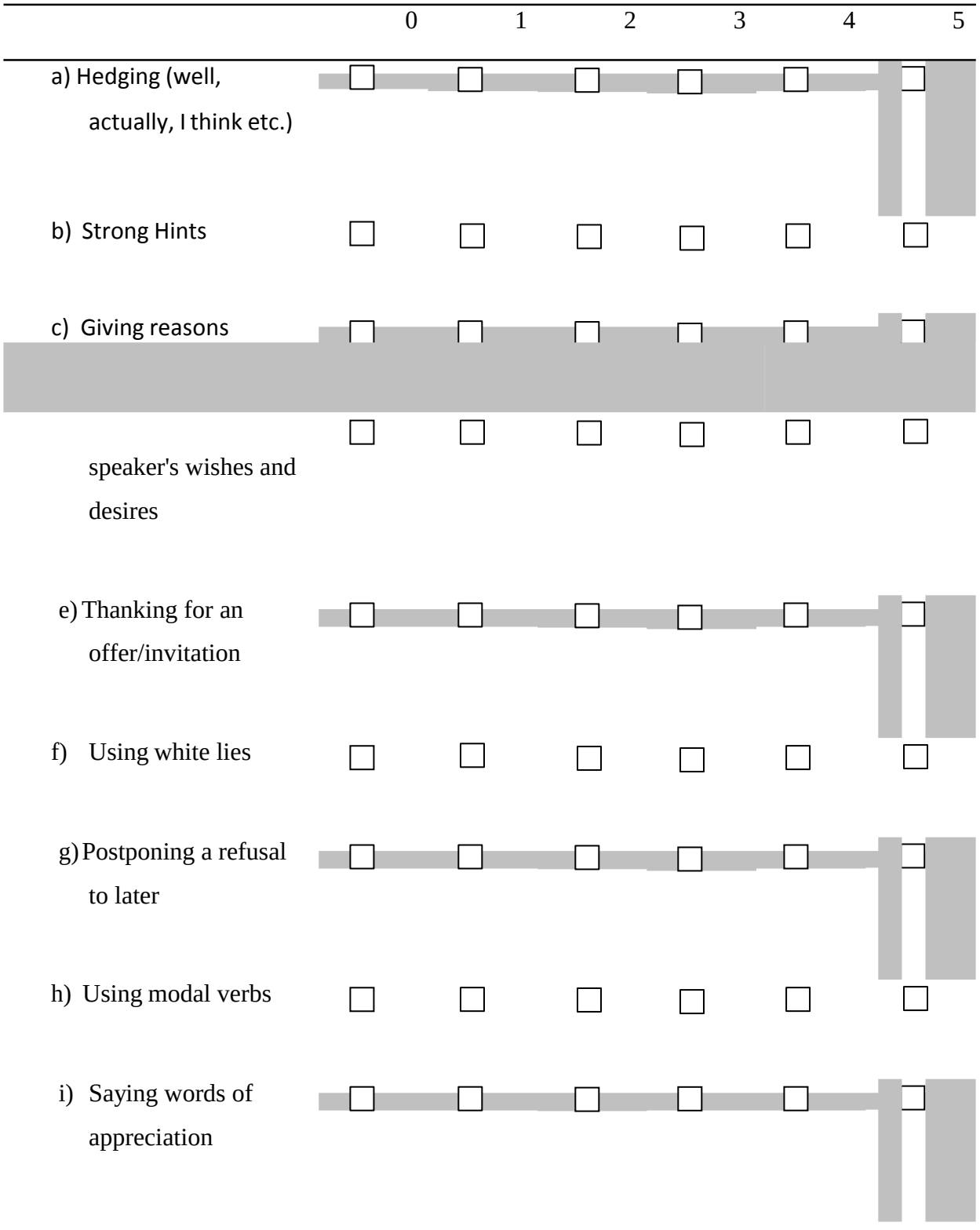
……

5) For me, the difficulty level of these lessons was…

☐ **Far too low** ☐ **somewhat low** ☐ **just about right** ☐ **a little too high** ☐ **far too high**

6) Here are some of the face saving strategies we dealt with in this course. for each of them. Please indicate how difficult you find them to do ; 0- not difficult at all 5- very difficult.



j) Waiting(pausing and hesitating) ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

k) Statement of Principle/philosophy ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

L) Showing solidarity / Empathy ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

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7) Here are some comments that you may have thought of after the course , please indicate for each how much it reflects your personal opinion. You can comment on any statement in the extra space below if you like.

	I agree very much	**I agree a little**	**I disagree a little**	**I disagree very much**	**I can't decide**
Request strategies in English are very similar to my mother tongue.					
Refusals strategies in English are very similar to my mother tongue.					
I now feel better equipped to handle certain conflict situations in English.					

When English speakers want to be polite, they somehow overdo it. they should just say what they mean more directly					
I hadn't really thought about cultural differences in requesting and/or refusing before.					
How people handle these situations depends mostly on their personality rather than on cultural norms					
I found the things we learned quite interesting (speech acts, face saving strategies etc).					
A non-native speaker should remain true to their own cultural norms, even in the foreign language.					
By thinking about requests and refusals in English I have learned a lot about my own culture					
Now that we have talked so much about the speech acts, I feel more insecure about my English skills.					

For a language learner, it is more important to study grammar and vocabulary than to learn about speech acts.					
I doubt that native speakers really useall those strategies we talked about.					

8) Here you can comment on anything(else) about the questions or the lessons.

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Thank you for your cooperation!

Appendix F

Pearson Placement Test

Placement Test A

Choose the correct answer.

1 He … my friend.
a) am b) is c) are d) be

2 We … English.
a) isn't b) not c) aren't d) don't

3 … they English?
a) Do b) Is c) Are d) Be

4 A: Are you a student? B: Yes, I … .
a) are b) is c) be d) am

5 A: … your name? B: Maria.
a) What's b) Who's c) Is it d) What call

6 A: … is that man? B: My father.
a) Who b) Whom c) What d) Which

7 A: … are you? B: Ten.
a) How b): What age c): How much d) How old

8 A: … girls are here? B: Eight.
a) How much b) How many c) Which d) What

9 It's … house.
a) they b) them c) theirs d) their

10 … are friends.
a) We b) He c) Our d) Them

11 My rabbit is white. … name is Snowy.
a) It's b) It c) Its d) It is

12 … car is black.
a) Theirs b) They c) Them d) Their

13 They like … .
a) we b) us c) our d) ours

14 The party is … Monday.
a) to b) on c) in d) at

15 They are … London.
a) to b) on c) by d) in

16 I go to bed … 10 o'clock.
a) in b) for c) at d) to

17 His birthday is … March.
a) on b) to c) in d) at

18 Susan is … home.
a) to b) at c) in d) by

19 … down!
a) Sit b) Sat c) Sitting d) To sit

20 … talk!
a) Don't b) Not c) No d) Didn't

21 Come here and look at … painting.
a) those b) that c) these d) this

22 Who are … boys over there?
a) these b) this c) those d) that

23 Mrs Brown is … teacher.
a) – b) an c) a d) any

24 Here is … apple for you.
a) an b) a c) – d) any

25 New York is in … United States of America.
a) the b) – c) an d) a

26 This is a photo of our two dogs. My dog is … old dog near the tree.
a) an b) – c) a d) the

27 A: Where's dad? B: In … garden.
a) one b) a c) – d) the

28 Three … .
a) box b) boxs c) boxes d) boxies

29 Two … .
a) woman b) women c) womans d) womens

30 Four … .
a) foot b) foots c) feet d) feets

31 She is … .
a) Britain b) England c) the UK d) British

32 Is it hot in … ?
a) Greece b) Greek c) the Greece d) Greeks

33 He is … .
a) tall b) long c) up d) high

34 There's a big blackboard in our … .
a) bedroom b) kitchen c) garden d) classroom

35 3 + 2 = … .
a) five b) fifth c) fife d) fifty

36 (1st) first, (2nd) second, (3rd) … , (4th) fourth
a) three b) third c) thirteen d) thirteenth

37 It's (10.30) … .
a) thirty past ten b) thirty to eleven
c) half past ten d) half to eleven

38 It's (1.45) … .
a) quarter past one b) fifteen to two
c) forty-five past one d) quarter to two

39 It's (2.40) … .
a) forty past two b) twenty to three
c) twenty past two d) forty to three

40 A: How are you? B: …
a) Thank you. b) Fine, thanks. c) How are you?
d) I'm Maria.

41 A: Can he sing? B: No, he … .
a) can't b) isn't c) not d) doesn't

42 They can … .
a) dancing b) to dance c) dance d) danced

43 We like … .
a) walk b) to walking c) walking d) walked

44 Can he ride … bicycle.
a) the b) a c) – d) on

45 I've got … headache.
a) a b) an c) – d) the

46 A: … is it? B: It's five euros.
a) How many b) How c) What cost d) How much

47 A: What …? B: They're doctors.
a) do they b) are they doing c) do they do
d) they do

48 A: … do you watch TV? B: Every evening.
a) How much b) How often c) How many d) Why

49 A: … bag is this? B: It's my bag.
a) Whom b) Who c) Which d) Whose

50 I … a computer.
a) haven't got b) not have c) don't got d) don't

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51 A: Has she got a brother? B: Yes, she … .
a) has b) got c) have d) does

52 … three cinemas here.
a) They are b) There are c) There is d) It is

53 Is there a park here? No, …
a) it isn't b) there aren't c) there isn't d) they aren't

54 There are … books on the table.
a) some b) one c) any d) a lot

55 We haven't got … red pencils.
a) much b) some c) a d) any

56 Is there … water?
a) a b) any c) many d) some

57 He … computer games every day.
a) play b) playing c) plays d) is playing

58 I … speak Italian.
a) not b) don't c) doesn't d) no

59 Do they play football at school? Yes, they … .
a) play b) are playing c) do d) can

60 I … to school.
a) usually walk b) am usually walking c) walk usually d) am walking usually

61 They … late.
a) aren't hardly ever b) hardly are ever c) ever hardly are d) are hardly ever

62 A: What are you doing? B: I … a book.
a) are reading b) reading c) read d) am reading

63 He … football at the moment.
a) playing b) is playing c) plays d) played

64 A: Are they watching TV? B: Yes, they … .
a) are b) do c) watch d) watching

65 I … chess with my father.
a) do b) make c) play d) have

66 I … exercises every day.
a) make b) play c) go d) do

67 I … a shower every morning.
a) have b) make c) do d) go

68 I … the guitar.
a) do b) make c) have d) play

69 We … at a party last Saturday.
a) were b) are c) was d) be

70 A: Was he tired? B: Yes, he … .
a) tired b) was c) does d) is

71 … a good film on TV last night?
a) Was b) Were there c) Is it d) Was there

72 This is … bag.
a) Mike b) Mike's c) Mikes' d) Mikes

73 Where are the … fathers?
a) boy's b) boy' c) boys' d) boys

74 The black car is … .
a) ours b) our c) ours' d) our's

75 That's … book.
a) mine b) me c) my d) hers

76 He's good … Maths.
a) for b) at c) with d) on

77 Are you interested … music?
a) with b) in c) for d) on

78 I go to school … train.
a) in b) with c) on d) by

79 We went … foot.
a) on b) with c) by d) to

80 The cinema is opposite … the bank.
a) to b) from c) of d) –

81 The school is … the left.
a) on b) at c) in d) by

82 They play tennis …
a) good b) best c) well d) goodly

83 He's a … driver.
a) slow b) slowly c) slowest d) slowed

84 It's an … film.
a) excited b) exciting c) excitedly d) excites

85 He's … boy in our class.
a) taller b) the tallest c) tallest d) tall

86 Maria is … Ann.
a) as intelligent b) the most intelligent c) more intelligent d) more intelligent than

87 A: Where's her book? B: … is on the table.
a) It b) This c) They d) That

88 She can sing … she can't dance.
a) and b) so c) but d) then

89 They … French last year.
a) don't study b) didn't studied c) didn't study d) not studied

90 A: Did you have breakfast this morning? B: Yes, I … .
a) have b) had c) did have d) did

91 I … John yesterday.
a) see b) saw c) seed d) am seeing

92 Maria is eight years old. She … drive a car.
a) haven't b) can't c) must d) not

93 I … my grandparents next week.
a) go to visit b) am going visit c) go visiting d) am going to visit

94 A: Is she going to sing? B: Yes, she … .
a) goes b) is c) sings d) is going

95 It's very … in April in my country.
a) rainy b) rain c) rains d) rained

96 My father is a … .
a) science b) scientific c) scientist d) sciences

97 … are my favourite vegetables.
a) Carrots b) Apples c) Eggs d) Biscuits

98 There are two swimming … in the town.
a) parks b) lakes c) places d) pools

99 A: I won a tennis competition yesterday. B: …
a) Be careful. b) I'm sorry. c) Well done. d) Very well.

100 A: Would you like to come to my party? B: Yes, … .
a) I'd love to b) I love it c) I come d) I like

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ANSWER SHEET

Instructions:

1. *Choose the correct answer. Only **ONE** answer is correct.*
2. *Mark your answers on the Answer Sheet. **A**, **B**, **C** or **D**.*
3. ***DO NOT** write on the exam booklet*

Name/ Code

	Answers			
Q	A	B	C	D
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				
9				
10				
11				
12				
13				
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15				
16				
17				
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21				
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24				
25				
Score				

	Answers			
Q	A	B	C	D
26				
27				
28				
29				
30				
31				
32				
33				
34				
35				
36				
37				
38				
39				
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42				
43				
44				
45				
46				
47				
48				
49				
50				
Score				

	Answers			
Q	A	B	C	D
51				
52				
53				
54				
55				
56				
57				
58				
59				
60				
61				
62				
63				
64				
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66				
67				
68				
69				
70				
71				
72				
73				
74				
75				
Score				

	Answers			
Q	A	B	C	D
76				
77				
78				
79				
80				
81				
82				
83				
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85				
86				
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94				
95				
96				
97				
98				
99				
100				
Score				

Total Score

Total Score	General Level		CEFR Level	
0-9	Beginner		A1	
10–25	Elementary		A1+ to A2	
26–45	Pre-intermediate		A2 + to B1	
46–65	Intermediate		B1	
66–85	Upper-intermediate		B2	
86–100	Advanced		C1	

Appendix G

Intervention Materials

RESEARCHING PHASE

Worksheet 1

Data-collection Worksheet (Adapted from Martínez-Flor & Usó-Juan 2006).

L1 Data-collection worksheet	
Step1: Add a given request /refusal: 1..... 2..... 3..... 4..... 5..... 6..... 7..... 8..... 9..... 10.....	
Step2: Think about **a. speakers age and gender:** 1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	 6. 7. 8. 9. 10.
b. role-relationship between the speaker and the addressee: 1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	 6. 7. 8. 9. 10.
c. speakers' occupation: 1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	 6. 7. 8. 9. 10.
d. speaker's intention: 1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	 6. 7. 8. 9. 10.
Step3: Provide a suitable context 1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	 6. 7. 8. 9. 10.

REFLECTING PHASE
Worksheet 2

Awareness-raising Questions Worksheet (Adapted from Martínez-Flor & Usó-Juan 2006)

Pragmalinguistic questions:

How many refusal / request strategies have you thought of (forms / head acts)?

. Can you organize refusal /request strategies according to types?

. How many adjuncts and modifiers to soften the non acceptance or the request have you thought of?

. Can you organize adjuncts to refusals according to types?

. Can you organize request modifiers according to types?

Sociopragmatic questions:

. Which different refusal strategies and adjuncts have you found depending on the degree of familiarity that exists between the speakers?

. Which different refusal strategies and adjuncts have you found depending on the speaker's power over the hearer?

. Which different refusal strategies and adjuncts have you found depending on the degree of the imposition involved in the request, offer , invitation or suggestion ?

. Are the interactional and contextual factors important when selecting a particular refusal strategy and adjunct?

Answer the same questions for requests

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RECEIVING PHASE

English Refusals

There are many kinds of definitions of refusal from different perspectives. In respect to face theory, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), a refusal is without doubt, a face threatening and negatively affective speech act. It is a commissive speech act according to the classification of Searle (1969).

Refusals are "highly face threatening speech acts because they involve the rejection of a request which the communicator felt was legitimate to make" (Daly, Holmes, Newton
& Stubbe, 2004, p.948)".

Saying "no" can mean disapproval of the interlocutor's intentions and consequently, a threat to the interlocutor's face. Therefore, as Chen (1995: 6) points out, "refusals are considered to be a face threatening act (FTA) in that either the speaker's or listener's positive or negative face is risked when a refusal is called for or carried out".

Regarding the interaction of the interlocutor and the refuser, refusals are defined differently. A refusal is one kind of speech act which has functions as a unit of communication and is generally considered as a speech act by which a speaker "denies to engage in an action proposed by the interlocutor" (Chen, Ye & Zhang, 1995, p.121).

A more comprehensive definition of refusal is offered by Gass and Houck (1999) as follows.

Refusals are one of a relatively small number of speech acts which can be characterized as a response to another's act (e.g., a request, invitation, offer, suggestion), rather than as an act initiated by the speaker. Because refusals normally function as second pair parts, they preclude extensive planning on the part of the refuser. And because extensive planning is limited, and the possibilities for response are broader than for an initiating act, refusals may reveal greater complexity than many other speech acts. (p.2)

The most frequently cited system for analyzing refusals was developed by Beebe and her colleagues. Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss- Weltz (1990) broke down refusal responses into
-semantic formulas (those expressions which can be used to perform a refusal) and
-adjuncts (expressions which accompany a refusal, but which cannot by themselves be used to perform a refusal).
Furthermore, in Beebe et al.'s (1990) study, they classified stimulus types according to the status of the refuser in different situations which provides a model in their study. These
stimulus types were request, invitation, offer and suggestion; refuser status was classified as lower, equal or higher. These classifications have been a typical model for later researchers to follow. Drawing on this classification, Salazar et al. (2009) present a taxonomy for the analysis of learners' refusal behavior by adopting a conversational perspective. The semantic formulas are divided into direct and indirect.

I) Direct strategies : include two main subtypes:

i) *bluntness,* which entails - the use of a flat "no" or
- the performative verb "I refuse"

ii) *negation of proposition,* which involves expressions that contain
-negations (negative willingness /ability)
(e.g. "I can't", " I won't", "I don't think so").

II) Indirect strategies: are divided into seven main subtypes;

i) *plain indirect*, which refers to those expressions that mitigate the refusal (e.g. "It seems I can't")
ii) *reason or explanation*, in which the refuser indicates the reason why he/she is rejecting the request (e.g. "I have a meeting", "My mum is sick")
iii) *regret or apology*, in which the refuser expresses he/she feels bad for turning down the request (e.g. "Sorry", "I'm so sorry, I can't")

iv) *alternative*, which includes - change of option, in which the refuser suggests a different
alternative in which the request can be fulfilled (e.g. "I can do it
if you choose a different place")
- change of time, in which the refuser promises to comply the
request at later time (e.g. "I promise to do it next week")

v) *disagreement/dissuasion/criticism*, in which the refuser disagrees about the requester's action of asking or dissuades him/her from asking (e.g. "with this weather, you should not be asking to go out for a walk!)

vi) *statement of principle/philosophy*, in which the refuser resorts to moral beliefs to avoid performing the request (e.g. "I never lend money to strangers") , (I never do business with friends) , or (One can't be too careful)

vii) *avoidance,* which includes - non-verbal avoidance, in which the refuser merely ignores
the request by means of silence or going away
- verbal avoidance, in which the refusal is performed by using
some hedges (e.g. "Well", "I'll see"), changing the topic or
making a joke.

III) Adjuncts to refusals: refer to those expressions that accompany a refusal but do not constitute a refusal by themselves. They include five subtypes:

i) *positive opinion*, in which the refuser expresses that the request is a good idea but he/she cannot comply it (e.g. This is a great idea, but …)

ii) *willingness*, in which the refuser expresses that he/she would be willing to perform the request but he/she cannot (e.g. I'd love to help, but …)

iii) *gratitude*, in which the refuser softens his/her refusal by thanking his/her interlocutor (e.g. "Thanks a lot, but …")

iv) *agreement*, in which the refuser expresses his/her consent before actually making the refusal itself (e.g. "Yes, but …")

v) *solidarity or empathy*, in which the refuser demands the solidarity of the requester by asking for his/her sympathy (e.g. I realise you are in a difficult situation, but …")

Refusal Sequences:
Refusals can be seen as a series of the following sequences.

1.**Pre-refusal strategies:** these strategies prepare the addressees for an upcoming refusal
2.**Main refusal (Head Act):** this strategy expresses the main refusal.
3.**Post-refusal strategies:** these strategies follow the head act and tend to emphasize, justify, mitigate, or conclude the refusal response.

English Refusals to Invitations

Dialogue 1: Refusing a teacher's invitation to a party (lower to higher status)

Teacher: I'm having a party for my students this weekend. Will you be able to come?
Student: I'd love to, but I can't. I have to work. I have a lot of homework due in the
next week. Thank you for the invitation.
Teacher: That's too bad. I was hoping you could come.

Dialogue 2: Refusing a friend's invitation to see a movie (equal to equal status)

Rose and Nancy live in a same dormitory. One evening Rose invites Nancy out.
Rose: We are going to see a movie tonight. Would you like to come along?
Nancy: Mmm, no, you know I don't like movies too much.
Rose: That's too bad. Well then, maybe next time.

Dialogue 3: Refusing a junior classmate's invitation to speak for an orientation
program (higher to lower status)

John is a senior undergraduate. Mike, a sophomore who is in charge of the "Students' Organization".
Mike: The "Students' Organization" will hold an orientation program for the freshmen this Thursday. The topic is about life on the university campus. So we would like to invite you to be a guest speaker.
John: Oh, thanks for the invitation, but I already have a previous engagement, so I won't be able to attend.
Mike: I'm sorry to hear that. Maybe next time.

English Refusals to Suggestions

Dialogue 1: Refusing a boss's suggestion to change a project design a little bit (lower to higher status)

The boss and Johnson, an engineer of the company, are discussing about their company's new project design.
Boss: I think your design is a little too small. I would suggest that you make it bigger.
Johnson: Hmm… I had something in mind. I was thinking that smaller will be more suitable for our customers.
Boss: Okay. You know what's best for the customer.

Dialogue 2: Refusing a friend's suggestion to have a party in your house (equal to equal status)

Gaby: Let's have a party.
George: What a good idea. When shall we have it?
Gaby: What about Saturday evening?
George: Fine and where shall we have it?
Gaby: In your flat.
George: Oh…, you know what my landlady's like. She won't let us have a party there.
Gaby: Let's ask Doris. Perhaps we can have it in her flat.

Dialogue 3: Refusing a high school student's suggestion to skip the details (higher to lower status)

High School Student: I already understood everything in the first chapters. You don't need to bother with all the gritty details. Why don't you skip the details?
College Student: Well, actually it's very important that we review it anyway. That way, you can show me how much you know, too.
High School Student: Alright. No problem.

English Refusals to Offers

Dialogue 1: Refusing a dean (teacher)'s offer of a teaching assistantship (lower to higher status)

Today a teacher calls Mary into his office.
Teacher: Our department needs to hire a teaching assistant this term. We think you are best suited for the job. You will work twelve hours a week. It will take you some time. But it is a good experience. Are you interested in taking the job?
Mary: It sounds like a great opportunity, but I'm going to have to pass on it. I am just too busy.
Teacher: Well then. Maybe next time.

Dialogue 2: Refusing a neighbor's offer for a ride (equal to equal status)

Tim is walking down the street and it starts raining hard. A young guy, who lives nearby and is an acquaintance, stops the car and offers Tim a ride.
Young guy: It's raining cats and dogs! Do you need a ride?
Tim: No. Thanks. I'm almost there.
Young guy: Okay. Bye.

Dialogue 3: Refusing a cleaning lady's payment for a broken vase (higher to lower status)

Peter arrives home and notices that his cleaning lady is extremely upset. She comes
rushing up to Peter.
Cleaning lady: Oh God, I'm so sorry! I had an awful accident. While I was cleaning I
bumped into the table and your china vase fell and broke. I feel just terrible about it. I'll pay for it.
Peter: Oh, never mind, don't worry about it. It's just an accident.
Cleaning lady: Thank you. It's very kind of you.

English Refusals to Requests

Dialogue 1: Refusing a mother's request (lower to higher status)
Mother: I wonder if you could go to the bank and mail this package at the post office
for me tomorrow.
John: Oh, I'm sorry, Mom, but I can't. I have that doctor's appointment. Can't Carrie
(sister) do it for you?
Mother: Never mind. I'll go there myself.
Dialogue 2: Refusing a classmate's request to use a computer (equal to equal status)

Tina is in a computer room working on an assignment which is due tomorrow morning. It is late at night and she still has a lot to do. The computer room is very crowded and there are students waiting to use the computer. One of Tina's classmates
approaches her.
Classmate: Excuse me. Do you think you could let me use the computer for twenty
minutes?
Tina: I'm sorry. I still have a lot to finish before tomorrow. Perhaps someone else does not have such a tight deadline.
Classmate: That's okay.

Dialogue 3: Refusing a junior member's request for an interview (higher to lower status)

During lunch time at the university, a junior member in Robson's department asks Robson for a favor.
Junior member: I am doing a project that requires me to interview subjects. Could I
interview you for 15 minutes?
Robson: I really like to help you out, but I'm afraid I'm really strapped for time right
now and can't really afford to.
Junior member: That's too bad. Thanks anyway.

English Requests

A request is a speech act whereby a requester conveys to a requestee that he/she wants the requestee to perform an act which is for the benefit of the requester (Trosborg, 1995, p. 187). The act may be a request for an object, an action or some kind of service, etc. Or it can be a request for information. The desired act is to occur after the utterance, either in the immediate future or at some later stage (Edmondson-House, 1981, p. 99). Thus, polite requests can be characterized as pre-event.

Requests fall into the category of directives according to the classification of Searle (1969), with the following interactional characteristic: 'S (speaker) wants H (hearer) to do an act for the his /her benefit (Schauer, 2008, p. 24) this particular speech act has attracted a large amount of research interest
Requests are very frequent in language use (far more frequent, for example, than apologizing or promising); requests are very important to the second

- *Request as an Impositive Act:*
When the requester wants someone to do him/her a favour, this is generally at the cost of the requestee. The requester imposes on the requestee in some way when asking for goods or services (Trosborg, 1995, p. 187).

- *Request as a Face Threatening Act:*
Trosborg (1995) states that the request is by definition a face-threatening act (FTA). The requester who makes a request attempt to exercise power over. So, he/she threatens the requestee's negative face by indicating that he/she does not intend to refrain from impeding the requestee's freedom of action. The requester also runs the risk of losing face him/herself, as the requestee may choose to refuse to comply with his/her wishes (p. 188). Trosborg (1995) remarks that in a request, the act to be performed is solely advantageous to the requester and, normally, at the cost of the requestee.

A considerable number of studies have focused on requests in interlanguage pragmatics research as a result of the following factors (e.g. frequency of requests in everyday life; diversity of desired actions/things; variety of interlocutors' cross-cultural differences in linguistic forms for formulating requests) help to explain why

Classification systems for requests in interlanguage pragmatics
Request strategies

The most influential taxonomy of requests is the one used the CCSARP (House, Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1989) , their categorization system of request strategies has been frequently employed in ILP request research, the names of the individual strategies as well as corresponding examples are included below:

1. Mood derivable	Clean up that mess
2. Performative	I am asking you to clean up that mess
3. Hedged Performative	I would like to ask you to clean up that mess
4. Obligation Statement	You'll have to clean up that mess
5. Want Statement	I really wish you'd clean up that mess
6. Suggestory Formula	How about cleaning up?
7. Query Preparatory	Could you clear up the kitchen, please?
8. Strong Hint	You have left the kitchen in a right mess
9. Mild Hint	I wanted to cook tonight

Requests formulated according to strategies 1 to 5 are called ***direct requests*** in the CCSARP's scheme, while requests employing strategies 6 and 7 are referred to as ***conventionally indirect*** *requests* and requests based on strategies 8 and 9 are classified as ***non-conventionally indirect requests***. The three directness levels that are distinguished in the CCSARP manual also signify the length of the hearer's inferential process to identify the utterance as a request (i.e. direct requests are usually identified as a request more quickly than nonconventionally indirect requests).

A second request strategy framework which has also had a considerable impact on studies examining L2 learners' and native speakers' request strategy use was developed by Trosborg (1995).

Cat. I **Indirect request**

Strategy.1	Hints (mild)	I have to be at the airport in half an hour.
	(strong)	My car has broken down. Will you be using your car tonight?

Cat. II **Conventionally indirect**
(hearer-oriented conditions)

Strategy. 2	Ability	Could you lend me your car?
	Willingness	Would you lend me your car?
	Permission	May I borrow your car?
Strategy. 3	Suggestory formulae	How about lending me your car?

Cat. III **Conventionally indirect**
(speaker-based conditions)

Strategy. 4	Wishes	I would like to borrow your car.
Strategy. 5	Desires/needs	I want/need to borrow your car.

Cat. IV **Direct requests**

Strategy. 6	Obligation	You must/have to lend me your car.
Strategy. 7	Performatives (hedged)	I would like to ask you to lend me your car.
	(unhedged)	I ask/require you to lend me your car.
Strategy. 8	Imperatives	Lend me your car.
	Elliptical phrases	Your car (please).

Both Trosborg (1995) and the CCSARP (1989) taxonomies include a directness scale – in the CCSARP from the most to the least direct strategy and in Trosborg's scheme from the least to the most direct; the terms conventionally indirect and direct are used in both schemes), there are also some differences. It should be noted that there is no general agreement on a definite categorization system for request strategies.

Request modification

In addition to the individual request strategies that speakers can use to formulate their requests, a considerable amount of research has also been conducted on L2 learners' ability to further modify the illocutionary force of the utterance with *internal* and *external modifi ers*. The CCSARP's coding manual
contains a classification scheme for internal and external request modification that was based on earlier work by the researchers involved in the project (e.g. Blum-Kulka, 1987; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984: House & Kasper, 1981, 1987; Kasper, 1981)

Internal modifiers are defined as linguistic and syntactic devices that modify the illocutionary force of the request, such as the *politeness marker* 'please' or the *downtoner* 'maybe'. Internal modifiers can be further differentiated as *upgraders*, which increase the illocutionary force of the request, and *downgraders*, which decrease the illocutionary force of the request. In contrast,

External modifiers which are also called *supportive moves*, are defined as additional statements which support the request proper. For instance, an explanation why the desired action should be performed is called *grounder*.

Examples of Request Strategies in English (detailed grammatical & linguistic resources)

A. Syntactic Realization

The main rule of a request is to bring the requestee to the awareness that some action is desired of him, but there are various ways in which this action can be achieved (Sadock, 1974, p. 74). These ways are as follows:

1. The Imperative Sentence Types:

Realization of request by the imperative sentence-type can have the following forms:

1. Hand me your papers. (A teacher to his students)
2. Don't open the door. (A mother to her children in a cold day)
3. Do stay for lunch. (A host to his guest)
4. Be quiet. (An elder brother to his younger brothers and sisters)
5. You are to be back before 8 o'clock in the evening. (A father to his son).
6. Let's go for swimming. (A friend to his classmates)
7. Somebody do something to solve the problem. (A requester requests someone for help)
8. Have a rest. (A person to his friend after a hard work)
9. Put this suitcase up there for me. (A lady to a passenger)
10. Wait a minute, if you want me to lend you some money. (Someone believes that his friend is in need of some money)

All the above types of requests are issued to make a requestee do something for the requester.

There are some factors that affect such types of requests. First, intonation, the marks of which are already placed to show where the contour changes. Second, the social situational contexts in which these utterances are produced and the status of the speaker and his requestee. These two factors make the imperative sentence types realized as the act of requesting (Hussein, 1984, p. 64). From a pragmatic point of view, an imperative request is "tactless" in that "it risks disobedience" as compared to the relatively indirect realization of request by interrogative and declarative sentence types (cf. Leech, 1977, p. 119; Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 221).

2. The Interrogative Sentence-types:

Requests can be realized by using interrogative sentence types. But these types do not begin with a modal auxiliary (cf. Sadock, 1974, p. 113). They are either Yes/No questions or Wh-questions. The following examples are illustrative:

(1) Have you got a car?
(2) Do you have an extra copybook?
(3) Do you have some petrol?
(4) Why don't you clean the car?

A close inspection of the above examples reveals that utterance (1) has a question force; utterance (2) requesting a copy-book; utterance (3) entails a request for some petrol; whereas utterance (4) has the illocutionary force of requesting for cleaning the car (cf. Leech, 1983, p. 119 and Hussein, 1984, p. 66).

3. The Declarative Sentence-types:

Requests can be realized by using declarative sentence-types. The following examples are illustrative:

(1) I am terribly thirsty. (A request for some water)
(2) This tea needs some sugar. (A request for some sugar)
(3) It is very hot in here. (A request for opening the door or switching the air-cooler on)
(4) You won't tell the boss, will you? (A request for not telling the boss)

In utterance (4) the tag-question has been used to confirm what is said in the first part of the utterance and its function is to make the request more tactful (Leech, 1983, p. 119).

4. Modal Auxiliaries:

Austin (1962) says that modal auxiliaries can be used for expressing the speech act of requesting. These modal verbs can be classified under "deontic modality" (ps. 4-7). The following examples represent different realizations of this type of polite requests:

(1) Could you tell me the time?
(2) Can you pass the sugar?
(3) Will you get me a chair?
(4) May I borrow your book?
(5) Would you help me?
(6) You might make less noise.
(7) Wouldn‟t you pass the salt?

A close examination of the above examples, reveals that the requester requests his requestee to do him something. Using the modal auxiliary verb "can" means that the requester is asking whether his requestee is able to do the action. While using "will" means that the requester is asking whether his requestee is willing to get him a chair. Using the past tense form "would" or "could" means the requester makes his request more tactful and more polite, whereas the negative question makes the request more persuasive (Palmer, 1981, p. 168).

B. Lexical Realization

Polite requests can be realized by means of lexical items. These lexical items can be associated explicitly or implicitly with the speech act of requesting (Hussein, 1984, p. 73). Those lexical items are of different types, namely verbs, adjectives, adverbs and nouns.

With regard to their lexical meanings, they can be classified into two categories, namely explicit lexical request-items, and implicit lexical request-items (Clark and Schunk, 1980, p. 112 and Hussein, 1984, p. 73). In what follows we will focus on the lexical verbs only simply because they mark the type of request whether it is explicit or implicit.

1. Verbs: The First Category

Certain verbs like "appeal", "ask", "favour", "like", "mind", "oblige", "request", "want" can be used for realizing polite requests (Swan, 1982, p. 386). These examples are illustrative:

(1) Can I appeal to you for help?
(2) I ask you to clean the car.
(3) Will you favour us with a very nice song?
(4) I would like to see this film.
(5) Would you mind closing the window?
(6) Could you oblige me with a cigarette?
(7) I request you to send some books of pragmatics.
(8) I want two nice shirts.
(9) I wish you would stop smoking.

In utterance (1) the lexical verb "appeal" is used to express a "direct request" in which the speaker asks strongly for something. In utterance (2) the lexical verb "ask" does not signify that a given utterance is a request, but also serves as the name of the performed action (Palmer, 1981, p. 67). In utterance (3) the lexical verb in which the verb "favour" carries the idea of request explicitly. In utterance (4) the verb "like" is used to mean "want" or "wish" particularly in polite requests (cf. Zandvoort, 1957, p. 77 and Swan, 1982, p. 363). In utterance (5) the lexical verb "mind" is used in the expression "would you mind" to express a polite request (Swan, 1982, p. 386 and Hussein, 1984, p. 81). In utterance (6) the lexical verb "oblige" has been used explicitly to realize the speech act of requesting (Hornby, 1976, p. 197). In utterance (7) the speaker explicitly uses the lexical verb "request" for the realization of a polite request. An utterance like this is called an explicit request (Austin, 1962, p. 81). In utterances (8) and (9) the lexical verbs "want" and "wish" have been used to express request explicitly. Taking into consideration the social context and the speaker's intention, one can say that they have the illocutionary force of requesting. Otherwise, they may just express a wish or hope (cf. Hussein, 1984, p. 84).

2. Verbs: The Second Category

There is another type of lexical verbs such as "appreciate", "thank", "trouble", and "wonder" that can be used for marking polite requests. The following examples are interesting:

(1) I would appreciate your help.
(2) I will thank you for the offer.
(3) Could I trouble you to pass the sugar?
(4) I wonder if you wouldn't mind dropping me home?

A careful look at the above examples, one can say that: in utterance (1) the lexical verb “appreciate” is implicitly associated with the act of requesting. While in utterance (2) the lexical verb “thank” is implicitly used to request something forcefully or widely when it expresses the meaning to be pleased with someone for something. In utterance (3), the lexical verb “trouble” realizes a polite request in an indirect way and simultaneously it is used in polite requests to mean “to cause inconvenience to someone”. In utterance (4) the lexical verb “wonder” is associated with the act of requesting. It expresses a tentative request and it is often said in a statement form (Ockenden, 1972, p. 30).

REASONING PHASE
(Reason & understand)
Worksheet 4

Awareness Raising Activities

I) Choose the appropriate answer, then rate the answers from 1 to 3 according to the degree of directness (1 being direct, 2. Indirect, Indicate the Social distance and power to each situation and the degree of imposition in each situation

1. Situation You *are a* student taking a speech *class.* Every day, several students give presentations. The professor has made a schedule and is very strict about keeping to the schedule. You are supposed to present tomorrow, but you have to go out of town at the same time *class* meets because of family obligations. Your father's best friend died and your father wants you to go to the funeral. What do you say to the professor about changing your presentation time?

a. I'm really sorry about this, but I have to miss class tomorrow for a funeral. Is there any way I can reschedule?
b. I need to change my presentation day.
c. I appreciate your understanding in advance. You're such a good teacher. Do you think I *can* change my presentation day with no problems?

2. Situation You *are a* student working on a group project. You have a big project due in three days, but you haven't started on your part of the project. You don't understand exactly what you're supposed to do, and you want to ask another member of your group for help. You know this person is a very good student who is always prepared and finishes his assignments long before they *are* due. What do you say in order to get this student to help you?

a. Bob, I'm sure you're already done with the assignment, but I had a few questions about my section. Do you have time to meet later today?
b. I need your help with our project. We won't do well unless you help me.
c. *Can* you help me later today?

3. Situation You are a recent college graduate who is applying for a job at a large corporation. The company has called you for a first interview, and at the end of the first interview, they ask for a second interview. You are very interested in a second interview, but you are very busy at your part-time job and *can* only come to interviews very early in the morning. The interviewer only wants to make afternoon appointments. What do you say in order to get *an* early morning interview?

a. I can only interview in the morning because of my other job.
b. I'm sorry to be so much trouble, but is there any possible way we could schedule the
second interview in the morning?
c. I hate to ask this, but can you be more flexible?

4. Situation You have worked in a small department of a large office for a number of years and *are* the head of the department. You have just been given an extra heavy accounting assignment to do. You know that one of your co-workers in the department is especially skilled at bookkeeping. However, you also know that this person is very busy. What would you say to you in order for your co-worker to help you?

a. I've just been given a new accounting assignment and I think it's beyond my skill level. I know you're really busy, but I'm wondering if you'd be willing to help me with a few *areas* I'm concerned about.
b. You *are* always busy, but I need your help. When can I come see you?
c. People in the department have told me you're excellent at bookkeeping. Since you're so great at it, I have a special offer for you. I will take you for dinner if you do it. Can you help me?

5. Situation Tomorrow is the due date of a final term paper for one of the courses you are taking this semester. However, you *are* not able to turn it in on time because you caught a cold and had unexpected visitors from out of town staying with you. You want to talk to the professor, whom you have known for a couple of years, and ask for *an* extension on the paper. You go to the office and knock on the door. What would you say in order to get *an extension?*

a. I'm asking about an extension on the paper, since I won't be able to turn it in on time.
b. I'm sorry to bother you, but do you think it would be possible to have an extension
on the final paper? I've been sick and had some people visit unexpectedly. I'd really appreciate it.
c. I f you give me an extension on the final paper, I'll *never* forget your kindness.

6. Situation You work *as a* waiter. You have worked at the same restaurant for two years. You *are* supposed to work this afternoon from 12 to 5, but you haven't been feeling well lately and you want to go and see your doctor. At 10:00 am, you decide to call and ask your manager if you *can have* the afternoon off. What would you probably say in order not to work this afternoon?

a. *Can* I have the afternoon off? I need to see the doctor.
b. I don't feel well today, so I think I should see my doctor. I have asked someone to cover my shift today. I hope you don't mind. I will work for them later.
c. I've been sick for a while now and I'm going to the doctor this afternoon. I won't work today.

7. Situation You are a first-year student and have *dosses* with many of the same people in every *dass. One* day, you go to *c\ass* and put the wrong folder in your bag. You don't have any paper to take notes on. Taking notes in this *dass* is very important. What do you say to a classmate in order to get some paper?

a. Do me a favor? Give me some paper.
b. Do you have some extra paper I could borrow?
c. I wish I had some nice paper like yours.

8. Situation As a part-time job, you are working *as* a computer assistant in a computer lab. Your job is to make sure students *are* doing school-related work on the computers. I t is the end of the semester, and there *are* many students waiting to use the computers. While helping one student with a problem, you see a friend of yours playing games excitedly. What would you say so that the student would stop playing games?

a. Here *are* the rules about using the computer. Please stop playing games. Because you are my friend, I should tell you.
b. Hi. Sorry, but the lab's really busy with people doing academic work, and people are waiting.
c. I know what you're doing! I need to make a living by being a computer assistant, you know?

9. Situation *As a* part-time job, you *are* working *as a* library monitor. I t is your job to make sure the library is quiet for all students who wish to study. While checking on each floor in the library, you see a group of students that you don't know talking loudly in a non-discussion area. I t seems clear that this loud noise disturbs other students' studying. You want those students to be quiet or move to a discussion area. You approach them. What would you say in order to make the students quiet?

a. This is a non-discussion *area.* Could you move to the f i r s t floor?
b. No talking here. You need to go downstairs if you continue talking.
c. Excuse me, I'm sorry to interrupt, but this part of the library is for quiet studying. I f it's not too much trouble, could you please move to a discussion *area?*

10. Situation You are applying for a job in a large company. You have just finished *an* interview with the manager. The interview went well but took much longer than you expected. You are getting ready to leave the office when the manager explains that it is time for a long tour of the company. You cannot go on the tour because you have another important meeting scheduled. So, what do you say?

a. *Can I use your* phone? [change other appointment]
b. I'm sorry, but I have something else scheduled. Can I take the tour another time?
c. I'm sure I'll get a feel for it when I start working here. I don't need to have a tour.

11. **Situation** You *are* a study abroad student at a university in a different country. The university president invites you for dinner and takes you to a restaurant that *serves* a dish made with special natural mushrooms. You do not like mushrooms, and would *prefer* to have something else. What do you say?

a. This looks delicious. Thanks for the invitation.
b. I'm sorry, but I'm allergic to mushrooms. Is there anything else served here?
c. I won't eat mushrooms. Order something else for me.

12. Situation You are a recent college graduate who is applying for a job at a large corporation. The company has called you for a f i r s t interview, and at the end of the first interview, they ask for a second interview. You *are* very interested in a second interview, but you are very busy at your part-time job and *can* only come to interviews very early in the morning. The interviewer only wants to make afternoon appointments. What do you say in order to get *an* early morning interview?

a. I can only interview in the morning because of my other job.
b. I'm sorry to be so much trouble, but is there any possible way we could schedule the second interview in the morning?
c. I hate to ask this, but can you be more flexible?

13. Situation You *are.* the manager in *an* office that is now hiring new employees. Last week *an* applicant came into the office and scheduled an interview for tomorrow. Now, that same person is in the office asking to reschedule the interview because of a death in the family. You cannot reschedule because you are

about to leave the country for two weeks, your schedule is completely full tomorrow, and you need to hire before you leave. What do you say to the applicant?

a. Sorry it is either tomorrow or never.
b. If you want the job, I really need to speak with you for a few minutes. Obviously, it's a bad time, but could we just discuss the job for a few minutes? I have to make my decision before I leave for my trip.
c. Let's choose a good time to reschedule.

14. Situation You *are a* student. A friend of yours has invited you for dinner several times,
but cancels just *before you're* supposed to meet every time. You have decided not to accept
any more invitations from this friend. While you *are* studying in the library, this friend
invites you to dinner for that evening. What do you say?

a. No, I can't tonight. I have other plans.
b. Yeah, that sounds great.
c. You didn't keep your promise before. I won't meet you again.

15. Situation You *are a* university student. Another student who studies the same major you do sits next to you before class begins. You do not know this student well. This student invites you to go out to dinner for your birthday, and tells you there is a present for you. You already have plans for your birthday with your close friends, and prefer not to go. What do you say?

a. I'm sorry I already have plans with my friends. Would you like to join us?
b. Sure, that sounds great.

16. Situation You *are* a graduate student in a university program and there is another student in some of your *classes.* You have met with this student outside of *class a* couple of times, and know the student pretty well. Sometimes you have *coffee* together at the student union coffee shop. You see this student outside your building, and the student asks to borrow a book from you. You need to use the book this afternoon because you have a big test tomorrow. So, what would you say?

a. I would give it to you, but I need it this afternoon to study for a test.
b. I want to lend you this book, but I will use it this afternoon for my test. How about tomorrow morning? Is that ok for you?
c. Sure, here you are.

17. Situation You work *as a* travel agent. You are helping a customer at your desk. The customer gets out a packet of bubble-gum, and offers you a piece. You do not like bubble-gum. So, what do you say?

a. No, thanks.
b. I'm very sorry, I just had a lot of dental work done and I shouldn't chew gum.
c. Thank you very much. That's so nice of you.

18. Situation You live in a small apartment complex and know your neighbors fairly well. You sometimes talk on the porch, and when you're away, your neighbor takes in your mail and waters your plants. You are reading the paper in the living room when your neighbor comes up and says, "I'll be away for most of next week. Do you think you could water my plants once or twice?" You cannot water the plants because you *are* going out of town. So, what would you say?

a. Sure, I'd be happy to.
b. Sorry, I'm going out of town, too. I was going to ask you the same thing.
c. No, I can't do it.

II) Read this example (Conversation between friends) and indicate the level of appropriateness of the following refusal:

Jack: Hi Claire! Can you help me with final project work?
Claire: Uhm. I'd love to. Sorry, but I have to study for an exam tomorrow. Tomorrow maybe?
Completely appropriate 5-4-3-2-1 really inadequate.

Reason: ……

(1) Read the different parts of Claire's response and say what she did to politely refuse Jack's request. Circle the correct answer:

1. When Claire says Uhm, she:

a. gives an alternative b. hesitates
c. says she feels bad opinion d. gives a positive

2. When Claire says I'd love to, she:

a. gives an alternative b. hesitates
c. says she feels bad opinion d. gives a positive

3. When Claire says Sorry, she:

a. gives an excuse b. hesitates
c. says she feels bad opinion d. gives a positive

4. When Claire says but I have to study for an exam tomorrow, she:

a. gives an excuse b. hesitates
c. says she feels bad opinion d. gives a positive

5. When Claire says
Tomorrow maybe? she:

a. gives an alternative
b. hesitates
c. says she feels bad
d. gives a positive opinion

(2) Look at Claire's response again and list the sequence of phrases Americans use to say no politely:

Claire: **Uhm. I'd love to. Sorry, but I have to study for an exam tomorrow. Tomorrow maybe?**

(3) Choose three refusals and three requests from the previous lecture, then list the sequence of strategies and phrases in each.

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REHEARSING PHASE

Friends' Series (Adapted from Silva,2003)

Before watching

Have you ever watched the TV series 'Friends'? What's it about? What are the names of the main characters?

Scene 1

A. Read question 1 about scene 1:

1. What's the relationship between Ross and Mr. Geller?

B. Watch scene 1 (without script) and answer question 1. Don't worry if you don't understand everything.

C. Read questions 2-5, then watch the scene again (with script) and answer the questions.

2. What kind of father was Mr. Geller?
3. What does Mr. Geller invite Ross to do?
4. Underline the lines where Mr. Geller makes the invitation.
5. Does Ross accept the invitation? Circle Ross's response to Mr. Geller's invitation.

Mr. Geller: I tell you one thing; I wouldn't mind having a piece of this sun-dried tomato business. Five years ago, if somebody had said to me, here's a tomato that looks like a prune, I'd say "get out of my office!"

Ross: Dad, before I was born, did you freak out at all?

Mr. Geller: I'm not freaking out, I'm just saying, if somebody had come to me with the idea and…

Ross: Dad, dad, dad, I'm talkin' about the whole uh, baby thing. Did you uh, ever get this sort of... panicky, "Oh my god I'm gonna be a father" kind of a thing?

Mr. Geller: No. Your mother really did the work. I was busy with the business. I wasn't around that much. Is that what this is about?

Ross: No, no, Dad, I was just wondering.

Mr. Geller: 'Cause there's time to make up for that. We can do stuff together. You always wanted to go to that Colonial Williamsburg. How 'bout we do that?

Ross: Thanks, Dad, really, I ju... you know, I just, I just needed to know, um... when did you start to feel like a father?

Mr. Geller: Oh, well, I, I guess it musta been the day after you were born. We were in the hospital room, your mother was asleep, and they brought you in and gave you to me. You were this ugly little red thing, and all of a sudden you grabbed my finger with your whole fist. And you squeezed it, so tight. And that's when I knew.

(Ross is so moved by his father's charming story, that he stops eating.)

Mr. Geller: So you don't wanna go to Williamsburg?

Ross: No, we can go to Williamsburg.

Mr. Geller: Eat your fish.

D. How did Ross say 'no' to his father's invitation?

Scene 2

Adapted from Silva 2003

A. Read question 1 about scene 3:

1. Monica and Chandler were planning to go out together without their friends. Rachel invites Monica to see a movie. Monica invents an excuse. What did Monica say she was going to do?

B. Watch scene 3 (without script) and answer question 1. Don't worry if you don't understand everything.

C. Read questions 2-3, then watch the scene again (with script) and answer the questions.

2. Underline the line where Rachel makes the invitation.
3. Circle what Monica says 'no' to the invitation.

Rachel: Hey Mon, what are you doing now? Wanna come see a movie with us?

Monica: Uhh, y'know actually I was gonna do some laundry.

Rachel: Oh.

Monica: Hey Chandler, wanna do it with me?

Chandler: Sure, I'll do it with ya.

Monica: Okay.

Rachel: Okay great, hold on a sec! (She runs to her room and returns

carrying a huge bag of laundry.) Oh, here you go! You don't mind, do ya? That would really help me out a lot! Thanks!

Monica: I mean I-I don't I think I have enough quarters.

Phoebe: I have quarters! (She holds up a bag of quarters.)

D. What reason did Monica give for not going to the movies with Rachel?

Worksheet 5
Film Observation Worksheet

(Adapted from Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor 2008)

Focus on Sociopragmatic Features

Step 1. Listen / Watch carefully, then:
Name the characters of the scene and what's the relationship between them?

Have you ever watched or listened to the scene before?

Circle the option you think it is appropriate:
1. Speakers' social distance:
close acquaintance stranger

2. Speakers' power:
higher equal lower
3. Degree of imposition:
low mild high

Step 2. Provide the interactional and contextual factors that take place in the scenes:

Step 3. Provide additional aspects regarding their non-verbal behavior (tone of voice, body
language, attitudinal behavior, facial expressions, and so on):

Focus on pragmalinguistic features
Step 4. Note down the refusal & request strategies that take place in the scenes and consider
whether cultural differences can be observed:
……
……

REHEARSING PHASE

Worksheet 6

Role-plays

After receiving an explicit instruction about awareness and production of appropriate requests and refusals, students in this phase are going to practice performing requests and refusals through role plays. While two students are performing the role plays, their classmates are observing and evaluating their performance through worksheet 7.

Read the following role-plays, after preparing with your partner, perform them in frontof the class.

Role play1

A. You are a busy professor in your office. A well-known student doesn't understand some concepts in

one of your books. You clarify them to him/her and when he/she is about to leave, you ask him/her whether he/she can help you by leaving a book in the library when going home.

You ask the student:

…….

……...

B. You are a student in your professor's office trying to clarify some doubts about one of his/her books. After discussing them with the professor, you are about to leave when he/she asks whether you can help him/her by leaving a book in the library when going home.

You refuse by saying:

……
……...

Role Play 2

You are preparing for a final exam, which will be given tomorrow. It is evening and your close friend calls you to invite you over. What will you do? Should you keep studying? Do you need a break? You know that this friend loves to talk and may keep you there for hours.

You refuse by saying:

……
……...

Role Play 3

A. You are a secretary in the English Studies department at University. You are in an office giving some documents to a research assistant who works in the same department. It is getting close to the end of the day, and you still have a lot of things to do, among others leaving a document in the library. This building is on the research assistant's way home, so you wonder whether he/she could help you by leaving the document in the library when going home.

You ask the research assistant:

B. You are a research assistant working in the English Studies department at University. You are in your office with the secretary of your department who is giving you some documents. It is getting close to the end of the day, and he/she tells you the

list of things he/she still has to do, among others leaving a document in the library which is in your way home. He/she asks you if you could help him/her by leaving the document in the library when going home.

You refuse by saying:

……
……
……
……

Choose two email request situations and two email refusal situations and write what you're going to say in these emails

(explain the social and contextual factors before you write your email)

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REVISING PHASE
Worksheet 7
Observation and Evaluation Worksheet (Adapted from Usó-Juan 2010)

Analysis of role-plays (Circle the correct option)

Sociopragmatic features

- speakers' social distance
Close acquaintance
stranger
- speakers' power
Higher equal
Lower
- Degree of imposition
Low mild
high

- state their appropriateness of prosodic aspects

CA 5 – 4 – 3 – 2 – 1 VA

- state their appropriateness of non-verbal communication aspects

Pragmalinguistic Features

- state the appropriateness of the requests & refusals, adjunct modification and devices

CA 5 – 4 – 3 – 2 – 1 VA

Additional comments (allow space)

Note: CA = Completely Appropriate; VA = Very Unsatisfactory
prosodic: related to intonation, tone, stress, and rhythm

Appendix H

Transcription Symbols and Sample Transcriptions of Role Plays

Transcription Symbols

// overlaps

(.) pauses of up to 0.5 seconds in length

(..) pauses of between 0.5 and 1.0 seconds in length

(...) pauses of between 1.0 and 1.5 seconds in lengths

(2), (3) etc. pause length in seconds

? question intonation

: prolonged sound; multiple colons indicate a strong degree of lengthening

ALL CAPS emphasized syllable or word

- False starts, unfinished words, repetition

-- unfinished sentence / change of syntax in mid-sentence

< > anonymized items, e.g. instead of student's actual last name

[ ] non- and paraverbal items, such as nodding, laughing etc.

(xyz) unclear passages, including attempts to recreate the sounds that were discerned

(???) no hearing achieved

Source: Glaser (2014)

Transcriptions' Sample (3 rd. year)

Situation Four: Professor Giving a Lecture

Participant: good morning, Miss. How are you?

Professor: good morning. How are you doing?

Participant: I am good thank you.

Professor: great

Participant: Actually, I want to ask for more time because I gathered a lot of information, and I cannot collect--well, actually I need some more time to bring-

Professor: //well, I always insist that you submit your papers in due time//

Participant: //yeah, I know//--yes, I know you already put a deadline, but actually I

had a lot of information. I cannot collect them. So messy; it's just like a mess to

collect them well, so I need -

Professor: so, for how long is this extension?

Participant: I know I will bring them in a couple of days

Professor: you mean two days maximum.

Situation Six: The Professor's Office

Participant: good morning

Professor: well, I have been looking for you actually

Participant: and you

Professor: there is a guest speaker in my class—there is a guest speaker coming to

my class next week

Participant: really?

Professor: yeah, and he is going to discuss issues (ALL CAPS) related to your research topic. Would you like to attend?

Participant: it's amazing. It would be a pleasure to attend your session with your

guest, but I don't think so because I have an appointment with the doctor, yeah

Professor: it's really important for you. Can't you really postpone it?

Participant: I don't think so. I have to meet the dentist. It's an appointment that I

can't- I couldn't (xyz) (exclude it)

Professor: no, I am sorry to hear that. I hope you can make it another time

Participant : yeah.

Transcriptions Sample (MA Students)

Situation five: The University cafeteria

Fellow student: well, miss; I do believe you will be resenting next week in the conference right!

Participant: (..) actually yes, but (2) I'm not—I'm ready, but ehh my computer is really

damaged. I don't know what to do now, and time is running.

Fellow student: okay. I --actually I have another laptop. This one is just for me to do extra

work so I don't need it for the moment. I am done with my presentation you can have it, and

work, and prepare for your presentation. No problem, take our time.

Participant: ohh that's kind of you, but I really plan to solve this problem and thank you

very much.

Fellow student: really! You can have it.

Participant: I will repair my laptop. I like to do things with my own

Fellow student: ahh okay.

Participant: thank you.

Fellow student: good luck for your presentation.

Situation Two: At the campus

Friend: hello dear, how are you? It's been a long time since we've met. How are you doing?

Participant: fine, and you?

Friend: fine. You look tired. Are you still projects studying(interrupted).

Participant: I have a lot of projects. I have to finish it.

Friend: but you need to relax okay today! This afternoon just for one hour. We go together to

hang out. So, that you relax, and you talk to someone.

Participant: it's a good idea. I would like to, but emm I have to finish my work I don't ehh –I

can't relax when I haven't done my work.

Friend: (2) okay so, no chance to

Participant: no sorry I'm sorry thank you so much.

Friend: it's okay.

Appendix I

Participant Information Sheet and Consent Form

***March*, 2018**

Title of the Investigation:

Instructional Effectiveness in Interlanguage Pragmatics

Supervisor: **Researcher:**

P r Fatiha HAMITOUCHE **Mrs Houda KHABCHECHE**

PROFESSOR **Assistant Lecturer & PhD**

Algiers 2 Bouzereaa **researcher**

Email :

h.khabcheche@univ-setif2.dz

Invitation:

You are kindly invited to participate in a research study that aims at investigating instructional effectiveness using interlanguage pragmatics content in partial fulfillmentof Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) requirements at the University of Bouzereaa Algiers 2.

Purpose:

It is through this study that we intend to examine the effectiveness of instruction in the pragmatic development of prospective EFL teachers (MA students / License students) and

teacher trainees with a focus on awareness and production of two specific speech acts.

Why have you been asked to participate in this study?

You have been asked to participate in this study as you are (License students, MA students, teacher trainees / Novice teachers) who are currently or will be teaching English as a Foreign Language at the middle school / high school, you need to recognize from the starting point of your teaching career that language learning and development is a function-driven:

i.e.," the need to understand and express messages propels the learning of linguistic form. Just as in uninstructed acquisition, students can start out by learning pragmatic routines which they cannot yet analyze but which help them cope with recurrent, standardized communicative events right from the beginning". Wildner-Bassett (1994)and Tateyama et al. (1997).

Therefore, this should be reflected in:

"Curriculum and syllabus design because it dispels the myth that pragmatics can only betaught after students have developed a solid foundation in L2 grammar and vocabulary".

Participant benefit:

As the study is situated within the Algerian context, the study will provide rich contextual information and recommendations that can easily be translated into thelocal learning environment and future teaching practices. It is expected that the results of this study will be fundamental information used:

1. To raise prospective and practicing EFL teachers' awareness to the importanceof instructional pragmatics in language teacher education.

2. To make prospective and practicing EFL teachers come to recognize that developing their learners' overall linguistic competence (grammar, vocabulary, skills, pronunciation) in the English language does include addressing their English pragmatic competence.

3. To equip EFL teachers with tools, techniques and a mini course for addressingpragmatics in their classrooms.

What does this study involve?

The research includes three phases; in the first phase, you will be invited to fill out a background and language contact questionnaire, language proficiency test, written questionnaires and perform oral role plays as pretest. The second phase will

be devoted to the new pragmatic instruction, during four seminars of five hours or eight sessions of 90 minutes. At the end of the treatment period, you will be asked to fill out a course feedback questionnaire, then you will go through a posttest that includes the same tasks of the pretest to examine the effectiveness of the new instructional approach. A delayed posttest will be administered two or three months after, just to test the long-term effect of the instruction.

Possible risks or discomforts:

There are no risks involved with your participation in this study.

Confidentiality:

You will not be asked to identify yourself in any way. All data you provide will be coded by using the chosen number / name. Confidentiality will be maintained at all times. During the project, all written information and videos will be kept in a secured locked storage within the researcher. Once the study is completed, and after thesis writing and defense they will be destroyed / deleted. The research results will be presented in publication in the form of group results in which the identity of individualparticipants will not be revealed.

Results of the investigation

Once the study has been completed, a summary of results will be made available through the university. Only group results will be reported so your identity will not berevealed. Also if you are interested in the results of this research, you can contact the researcher through the email address provided in the information sheet and a summaryof results will be sent to you via email.

Thank you for taking the time

to consider this study.

Participant Consent Form

1. I have read and understood the “Information sheet” for this study.

2. The nature and possible effects of the study have been explained to me.

3. I understand that the study involves three main phases with different instructions, pre-tests, intervention, and post-tests.

data collection tools

4. I understand that there are no foreseeable risks involved with this study.

5. I understand that all research data will be securely stored.

6. Any questions that I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction.

7. I agree that research data gathered from me for the study may be published and that I Cannot be identified as a participant.

8. I understand that the information I give will remain confidential and any information I supply to the researcher will be used only for the purposes of the research.

Name of Participant:

Date:

Email:

Signature:

Statement by Investigator

I have explained the project & the implications of participation and I believe that the consent is informed and that he/she understands the implications of participation

Name of Investigator:

Date: Signature

Résumé

L'importance d'être pragmatiquement compétent en communication a été largement reconnue dans divers modèles de compétence linguistique. Cependant, les apprenants de langue seconde/étrangère présentent fréquemment un déséquilibre entre leurs compétences pragmatiques et grammaticales dans leur interlangue (Celce-Murcia et al., 1995). Ainsi, il est nécessaire d'étudier l'efficacité pédagogique de différentes approches et cadres pédagogiques dans la pragmatique acquisitionnelle interlangue. Par conséquent, cette étude examine l'impact de l'approche des 6 R (Rechercher, Réfléchir, Recevoir, Raisonner, Répéter et Réviser) sur la compétence pragmatique de l'élève concernant la prise de conscience et la production de demandes et de refus à quatre types de stimuli. Il adopte une approche inductive explicite, délimitée par un cadre théorique multi-modèle qui combine l'observation, la cognition et la communication. De plus, la recherche explore les perceptions des élèves de l'enseignement de la pragmatique. Une conception quasi-expérimentale a été adoptée, incorporant à la fois des approches quantitatives et qualitatives de la recherche. Cent deux (102) étudiants de Master I (MA) et de troisième année (BA) d'anglais répartis en 4 groupes expérimentaux (EG) et CG témoins)-de niveaux intermédiaire à avancé - ont participé volontairement à un cours de 12 séances. Les données ont été recueillies par le biais de pré-tests et de post-tests, y compris des tâches écrites d'achèvement du discours (DCT), des tests de conscience pragmatique (PAT) et des jeux de rôle. Ensuite, un questionnaire de rétroaction sur le cours (CFQ) a été utilisé après l'intervention pour compléter la production de discours et la prise de conscience avec des données affectives de l'apprenant sur l'utilité de l'instruction. Les résultats des DCT écrits ont révélé que l'amélioration a été remarquée dans les quatre aspects de l'adéquation, mais elle était surtout apparente dans le choix de la stratégie avec une taille d'effet de (MA = 3,46, License = 3,42).

Les résultats des jeux de rôle indiquent que dans les post-tests, les participants expérimentaux étaient capables de transmettre leurs intentions communicatives avec moins d'efforts suivant les trois aspects de pertinence. Quant à la conscience pragmatique, l'analyse comparative des post-tests des CG et des EG a révélé une différence statistiquement significative avec une taille d'effet substantielle (BA=0,98 ,

MA= 1,28), indiquant une amélioration de la conscience pragmatique des apprenants , et l'analyse qualitative a indiqué que les groupes expérimentaux reconnaissaient les violations pragmatiques et pouvaient fournir des explications métapragmatiques appropriées. De plus, les participants à l'EG ont affiché des perceptions positives de l'intégration de l'approche des 6 R pour améliorer leur compétence pragmatique. En conséquence, cette étude suggère l'incorporation de cette approche en tant que cadre pédagogique dans le programme TEFL, la formation des enseignants, l'enseignement EFL à tous les niveaux éducatifs algériens.

Mots-clés : compétence pragmatique, pragmalinguistique, sociopragmatique, approche des 6R, actes de langage de demande et de refus, production pragmatique, conscience métapragmatique, pragmatique interlangue.

الملخص

تعد التداولية مكون أساسي في الكفاءة التواصلية للمتعلمين لمتعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة اجنبية لذلك تم تبني مقاربة 6Rs البحث، التخمين، التلقي، التفكير، التكرار والمراجعة) لتحقيق اهداف هذه الدراسة ذات الرؤية المزدوجة أولا، يهدف هذا البحث الى دراسة تأثير مقاربة 6Rs على تطوير الكفاءات التداولية لطلاب اللغة الإنجليزية من خلال التأكيد على الوعي التداولي وانتاج الرفض وكذلك الطلبات المناسبة. ثانيا، تهدف هذه الدراسة الى معرفة انطباعات المشاركين حول تبني نهج لتطوير كفاء اتهم التداولية.102 طالب ماستر 1 وسنة ثالثة ليسانس لغة انجليزية شاركوا في دورة بيداغوجية ذات 12حصة. تم اعتماد تصميم تجريبي متضمن لكلا المنهجين الكمية والنوعية للبحث. تتكون المجموعتين التجريبيتين من54 طالبا في حين تتألف المجموعتين الضابطتين من 48 طالبا. تم جمع البيانات من خلال الاختبارات القبلية والبعدية والتي تضمنت مهام اكمال الخطاب المكتوب، لعب الأدوار الشفهية اختبار الوعي التداولي و استبيان تقييم الدورة التدريبية. أظهرت النتائج ان المجموعتين التجريبيتين تحسنت كفاءاتها التداولية مقارنة بالمجموعتين الضابطتين. اما فيما يخص الوعي التداولي، اشارت النتائج ان المجموعتين التجريبيتين استطاعت على تحديد البراغماتية وتقديم تفسيرات. كما ابدى طلاب المجموعتين التجريبيتين انطباعات إيجابية اتجاه استعمال مقاربة 6Rs لتحسين كفاءاتهم التداولية. وعليه، يقترح هذا البحث ادراج مقاربة 6Rs كإطار تربوي في منهاج اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة اجنبية.

الكلمات المفتاحية: الكفاءة التداولية، اللسانيات التداولية، مقاربة 6Rs ،علم اللغة الاجتماعي، أفعال الكلام للطلب و الرفض, الإنتاج البراغماتي, الوعي الميتابرغماتي.