CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

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(Shakespeare in Peccei: Othello, Act 1, Scene 2)

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Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993), considered Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP) as a second-generation hybrid. ILP belongs to two different disciplines which are both interdisciplinary. As a branch of second language acquisition research, ILP specialises in interlanguage studies, different from interlanguage phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. It forms a sociolinguistic, psycholinguistic, or linguistic enterprise, depending on how one defines the scope of 'pragmatics'.

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Pragmatics was first described as the study of *meaning in use* or *meaning in context.* Today, studies in this area tend to, according to Thomas (1995), associate pragmatics with *speaker*

meaning or with *utterance interpretation.* The first, takes a social view of the discipline and focuses on the producer of the message, in other words, they are interested in the social factors which leads a speaker to formulate an utterance in a certain manner. Leech (1983) and Levinson (1983), being the most influential citation authorities, supported this observation of pragmatics.

The second, on the other hand, does not take into account the social constraints of utterance production and focuses on the process of interpretation from the point of view of the hearer. Sperber and Wilson (1986) approved of this cognitive approach to pragmatics. Nevertheless, both of these approaches have been found to have weaknesses. A new view of pragmatics as *meaning in interaction*, which "takes into account of the different contributions of both speaker and hearer as well as that of utterance and content to the making of meaning" (Thomas, 1995) has been recently put forward.

In this study, Leech and Levinson's (1983) view of pragmatics will be adopted due to the fact that their view advocates their interest in factors which leads a speaker to formulate utterances in a certain way. For instance, they question why a speaker might use an indirect, rather than a direct form of request, which is precisely the aim of this research, i.e. to find out if the choice of requests on the part of the speaker depends on the different social situations the speaker is in.

According to Leech (1983), the view of pragmatics, which will be followed by this study, concerns "the study of meaning in relation to speech situations" which deals with *utterance in meaning* rather than *sentence in meaning,* which is the scope of semantics. Levinson (1983) further reiterates that pragmatics also comprises "the study of language use". In the

Chomskyan Theory, "pragmatic competence" has been opposed to "grammatical competence", the latter referring to the "knowledge of form and meaning" and the former to "knowledge of conditions and the manner of appropriate use, in conformity with various purposes" (Chomsky, 1980). Hymes (1972) however, adapted the Chomskyan theory with the notion of communicative competence to second language learning and teaching which calls for extending the scope of interlanguage research to include learner's pragmatic and discourse knowledge, semantic, grammatical and phonological knowledge. In addition, types of declarative knowledge that are not considered as communicative, but clearly communicatively relevant, such as sociocultural and worldly knowledge (Kasper, 1980) are also included in the theory.

Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993) adopted the action-theoretical perspective on pragmatics. They view pragmatics as the study of people's comprehension and production of linguistics action patterns, which are speech acts, in the second language (Kasper, 1989; Kasper and Dahl, 1991; Kasper and Blum-Kulka, 1993; Kasper, 1996). In a broader sense, the study of native speakers' intercultural styles, brought about through language contact, should also be included under studies of Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP). However, the populations studied in the literature on ILP have invariably been non-native speakers, reflecting the status of ILP as a branch of second language research. The scope of this study will also be confined to linking ILP to non-native speakers or language learners only. It will not, however, focus only at intercultural styles, but also observes intracultural ability and individual's variability. It will, specifically, observe the levels of education.

ILP has derived its theoretical and empirical foundation from general cross-cultural pragmatics (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989). Predominantly, it focuses on the illocutionary and

politeness dimensions of the speech act performance. Speech acts constitute an aspect of language use which is often highly complex in the mapping of form and meaning but which a second language learner can learn in their communication in which situational and social aspects as well as the linguistic aspect must be considered in order to be successful.

2.1 Speech Acts and Illocutionary Meaning

Speakers accomplish two goals when they perform utterances in context: (1) interactional acts and (2) speech acts (Ellis, 1994). The former imposes structure by ensuring that one utterance leads smoothly into another. The concern lies upon how speakers manage the process of knowing when to speak and knowing when to listen, how to open and close conversations and how they sequence acts to ensure a coherent conversation. Speech acts constitute attempts by language users to perform specific actions, in particular interpersonal functions, such as compliments, apologies, requests, or complaints.

The studies of speech act originated from the philosophy of language, which was first introduced by two philosophers; Austin and Searle. The former (Austin, 1962) made explicit, for the first time, that there are many different things which speakers can do with words. He formulated that some utterances are not statements, or questions about some piece of information, but are actions. In other words, the minimal units of human communication are not linguistic expressions, but rather the performance of certain kinds of acts, such as making statements, asking questions, giving directions, apologizing, thanking, requesting and so on. Austin (Ibid.) pointed out, for example, that if a speaker produces utterances, in appropriate circumstances such as the following, the speaker, has not only made statements about betting, promising and bequeathing, but such utterances are a bet, a promise and a bequeath respectively.

a)	a bet	I bet you ten ringgit that your ex-boyfriend will be here any minute now.
b)	a promise	I promise to go shopping with you tomorrow.
c)	a bequeath	I bequeath to you all my James Bond CD collection.

The saying and the doing are inseparable in two senses: the acts could not be done without using language and the saying counts as the action of doing. Austin's original insight was that stating, or describing is only one function of language. He argued that even though statement (constative in his terms) is often thought of as basic, they do not even have a privileged position. The important distinction between constative and performatives is that only constative can be true or false. Performatives are used to perform actions and do not require sensibility to ascertain their true conditions. They may be inadequate in various ways, but they cannot be untrue. This test would distinguish the constative, *I'm sorry,* for the performative, *I apologise.* One can say sorry without being sorry at all. Nonetheless, to say *I apologise,* is in itself to apologise. One can also use the sentence *I'm sorry* in order to perform the act of apologising.

Austin's original distinction between constative and performative, however, are faulty. The same proposition may be stated, questioned or denied. In other words, stating is a speech act like any other. Thus, if A says with or without the explicit performative verb state : "(I state that) students are brighter these days," then the truth of the proposition may be queried. However, it cannot be false that A has stated it. From this observation, Austin developed his more general theory of speech acts.

Utterances can perform three kinds of acts, locutionary, perlocutionary and illocutionary. The locutionary act is the act of saying something (the conveyance of prepositional meaning). This is the aspect of language which has been the traditional concern of linguistics. Next, the perlocutionary acts produce some effects on hearers, and has been the traditional concern of rhetoric: the effect of language on the audience. Persuasion is perlocutionary act where one cannot persuade someone of doing or committing something just by saying *I persuade you.* Comparable examples are convincing, annoying, frightening and amazing. The illocutionary act is performed in saying something (the performance of a particular language function), and includes acts such as betting, promising, denying and ordering. The distinction between the perlocutionary and the illocutionary force is not always entirely clear. For example, a request (illocutionary act) has, as part of it, an essential intention to produce an effect on the addressee (perlocutionary act) by persuading him or her to do something.

One of the fundamental problems of the speech act theory identified by authors like Stubbs (1983) and Flowerdew (1990) is that there is apparently no end to the number of speech acts which English language may perform or, as Flowerdew has stated, the problem is how to specify the number of different acts that are needed to achieve this goal of describing the things that are done with language. Based on the number of performative verbs in the English language, Austin (1962) estimated there is somewhere between 1,000 to 10,000 illocutionary forces. In order to impose some sort of order on these acts, both Austin and later, Searle (1975, 1976) proposed categorizing these acts into major groups. Austin (Ibid.) proposed a breakdown of five groups according to their illocutionary force: verdictives, exercitives, commissives, behavities and expositives.

Searle (1976) criticized Austin's breakdown on a number of grounds, the most powerful of which is that there is no consistent principle of classification. So as to overcome this problem, Searle attempted to develop a more principled framework. His first attempt (1969) was to systematically compare and contrast the conditions. The conditions specified for the performance of an act – "felicity conditions" – and group acts into categories according to shared conditions: preparatory conditions, sincerity conditions and essential conditions. For example, the illocutionary act of ordering is successfully performed when both the speaker and hearer recognize that the speaker is in a position of authority over the hearer (preparatory condition), that the speaker wants the ordered act to be done (sincerity condition), and the speaker intends the utterances as an attempt to persuade the hearer to perform the act (essential condition).

Nevertheless, if any of these conditions are not met or are challenged by the hearer, the act may not be successfully performed. However, Searle discovered the problem with this approach is that the different types of condition are so numerous that there is no means of reducing the total number of acts to a limited number of basic types. As a result, he developed an alternative approach (Searle, 1976) consisting of twelve criteria that would be required to produce his well-known classification into representatives, directives, commissives, expressives and declarations. The point of *representatives* is to represent a state of affairs and it has a word-to-world fit, which intention is to make the words fit the world. It represents a belief that expressed possible proposition, for instance, statements.

On the other hand, *directives* aim at directing the hearer towards doing something. It refers to a world-to-word direction of fit, which expressed a wish and a proposition of a future act done by the hearer, such as in orders or commands. The point of *commissives* is that the

speaker commits to doing something, it refers to a world-to-word direction of fit. It expressed an intention that proposed a future act done by the speaker, for instance, promises. In *expressives*, a certain psychological state is expressed. It does not refer to any direction of fit. It involves a wide range of psychological states that can be expressed It is a proposition which ascribes a property or act to the speaker or the hearer, as in congratulations. The point of *declaration* is to bring something about in the world which refers to both a word-to-world and word-to-world direction of fit. There is no psychological state expressed and any proposition can occur, for instance, an ex-communication. Searle's classification of speech acts is the most widely accepted, although it still has its problems.

2.2 Requests

Directives are one of the five general classes of speech acts distinguished by Searle (1976). Directives comprises all those specific acts whose function is to get the hearer to do something which includes acts of ordering, commanding, requesting, pleading, begging, praying, entreating, instructing, forbidding and others (Searle, 1975). As analyzed by Searle, directive illocutionary acts in accordance to the felicity conditions are as listed in Table 2.1.

The focus of this study is upon one specific illocutionary act within the general class of directives: requests. Requests have been defined as attempts on the part of a speaker to make the hearer to perform or to stop performance of an action (Ellis, 1994). There are a few aspects acknowledged by Ellis (1994), which are interactional, illocutionary and sociolinguistic.

Table 2.1 List of Felicity Conditions on the Directive Class (Searle, 1969)

CONDITION	DIRECTIVE (REQUEST)
Preparatory condition	1. H is able to perform A. S believes H is able to do A 2. It is not obvious to both S and H that H will do A in the normal course of events in his own accord.
Sincerity condition	S wants H to do A
Propositional content condition	S predicates a future A of H
Essential condition	Counts as an attempt by S to get H to do A

2.2.1 Interactional Aspects

The interactional aspects of requests can serve as an initiating function in discourse which can be performed in a single turn, or several turns if some kind of preparatory act or request is involved (Ellis, 1994:167).

Extract 1 : Single turn

T: Have you finished your work?

Extract 2 : Several turns

T : Have you finished your work?

S : Yes.

T : Read your book then.

2.2.2 Illocutionary Aspects

The illocutionary aspects deals with the intention of the speaker, to what sort of action is intended to be done in making the utterance. Thus, when the speaker wishes the hearer to perform the request (sincerity condition), s/he believes the hearer is able to perform the act and does not believe the act will be performed in the absence of the request (preparatory condition) (Searle, 1969).

A request can be more or less direct (Searle 1976). Blum-Kulka et al. (1984) identified nine strategy types, which they order according to directness (see Table 2.2).

Table 2.2 Request Strategies

LEVEL OF DIRECTNESS	STRATEGY	EXAMPLE
Direct	1. Mood-derivable	Leave me alone.
	2. Performatives	I am telling you to shut up.
	3. Hedged performatives	I would like to ask you to shut up.
	4. Locution derivable	You'll have to move the car.
	5. Scope stating / Want Statement	I really wish you'd stop bothering me.
Conventionally Indirect	6. Suggestory Formula	Let's play a game.
	7. Preparatory Conditions	Can you carry this bag for me?
Non-conventionally Indirect	8. Strong hint	This movie is boring.
	9. Mild hint	When is the movie going to end?

(Adapted from Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984)

Requests are also subject to internal and external modifications. The internal modification act on the strategy proper embedded in the nucleus of the request. They include various types of downgraders such as 'please' and hedging devices, intended to mitigate the force of the act, as well as upgrading signals such as time-specifiers and expletives, which are intended to increase the degree of coerciveness of the act. External modificationas include questions for availability along with explanations and justifications (grounders) of the request (Blum-Kulka et. al., 1984)

Requests can be encoded in various perspectives. Table 2.3 highlights some insights of how requests are used in interactions. These perspectives help to emphasize the role of the speaker in presenting a variation in requests. In requests, it is the hearer who is "under threat", thus any avoidance in naming the addressee as the principal performer of the act serves to soften the impact of the imposition.

Table 2.3 Perspective of Coded Request

PERSPECTIVE	EXAMPLE
i) Speaker	Give me that pen.
ii) Hearer	Could you give me the pen?
iii) Joint (Hearer and Speaker)	Let's buy the pen.
iv) Impersonal	It would be good to have a pen.

(Blum-Kulka, 1988)

In Example 1, the request uttered emphasizes the role of the speaker in the speech event. While in Example 2, the request was uttered as a suggestion to act on the task along with

the speaker. As such it gives the hearer the impression that the request was not imposed on him/her alone.

Example 1 : **Speaker as agent**

Give *me* the pen.

Example 2 : **Joint speaker and hearer**

Let's buy the pen.

2.2.3 Sociolinguitics Aspects

Requests are "inherently imposing" (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989). For this reason, requests require considerable "face-work". It involves a lot of face saving and the request should be uttered bearing in mind the rights of the hearer, in which it should give the hearer the option of choosing whether to acknowledge the request and act on it or vice-versa. It should also depend on who the addressee is and the situation in which the request is conveyed. The choice of linguistic realisation depends on a variety of social factors which has a lot to do with the relationship between the speaker and the addressee, and the perceived degree of imposition which a particular request makes on the hearer (it involves a choice of politeness strategy).

Although the main sociopragmatic categories of requests can be found in different languages, there are pragmalinguistic differences relating to the preferred form of a request that are used in a particular situation. Also, cross-linguistic differences, exist in the choice of other linguistic features such as internal and external modification devices.

2.3 Request Strategies

As stated by Searle (1976), a request can be more or less direct. Directness refers to the degree of the speaker's illocutionary intent which is apparent from the locution. Directness in this sense is a pragmalinguistic category, which lends itself to psycholinguistic validation. It is related to, but by no means coextensive with politeness. A request strategy is the obligatory choice of the level of directness by which the request is realised.

According to Blum-Kulka and House (1989), three general degrees can be distinguished to represent a universally valid scale of indirectness. This scale of indirectness is defined as a measure of illocutionary transparency which consists of three levels namely direct, conventionally indirect and non-conventionally indirect. With direct requests, the illocutionary force is indicated in the utterance by grammatical, lexical or semantic means; conventionally indirect requests express the illocution via fixed linguistic conventions established in the speech community; and non-conventionally indirect requests require the addressee to compute the illocution from the interaction of the locution within its context. These criteria are used to classify instances of requests from different languages into the correct request strategy.

Request strategies are distinguished with nine directness levels (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1987:204). These levels are illustrated below according to the decreasing degree of directness:

1. **Mood derivable** : the grammatical mood of the locution conventionally determines its illocutionary force as a request. The prototypical form is the imperative, which could also signal order. Other than that, functional equivalents such as infinitive forms and elliptical sentence structures express the same directness level.

Example : Leave me alone.

Clean up the kitchen.

Please move your car.

2. **Explicit performative** : the illocutionary intent is explicitly named by the speaker by using a relevant illocutionary verb. Performative verbs that are used convey requestive intent ranging from explicitly marking the utterances as an order to marking the utterance as a sincere plea.

   Example : I am asking you to move your.

   I am telling you to move your car.

3. **Hedged perfomative** : the illocutionary verb denoting the intention of the request is modified by the modal verb or verbs expressing intention. The performative verbs are used in order to show politeness.

   Example : I must ask you to clean the kitchen again

   I have to ask you to clean the kitchen again

4. **Locution derivable** : the illocutionary intent is directly derivable from the semantic meaning of the locution. It is also known as the obligation statements because of the modals used. The modals symbolized moral obligation which was imposed by the speaker.

Example : Madam you will have to move your car.

Madam you should move your car.

Madam you must move your car.

Madam you ought to move your car.

5. **Want statement / Scope stating** : the utterance expresses the speaker's desire that the event denoted in the proposition to be achieved. In other words, expressing an insistence or persuasiveness from the speaker to ensure that the illocutionary force is agreeable.

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

6. **Suggestory formula** : the illocutionary intent is phrased as a suggestion by means of a framing routine formula. The request was uttered insistently that the hearer felt compelled to acknowledge because it would seem beneficial to the hearer.

Example : How about cleaning up the kitchen?

Why don't you get lost?

7. **Preparatory** : the utterance contains reference to a preparatory condition for the feasibility of the request, typically one of ability, willingness or possibility, as conventionalised in the given language. Very often, but not necessarily , the speaker questions rather than states the presence of the chosen preparatory conditions (query preparatory).

Example : Can I borrow your notes?

Could I possibly get your assignments done this week?

I was wondering if you would give me a lift.

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

   Example : Will you be going home now?

According to the definitions offered earlier, the categorization of the requests comprises three levels as seen in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4 Categorization of Request Strategies

LEVEL	REQUEST STRATEGIES
1 - 5	Direct
6 - 7	Conventionally indirect
8 - 9	Nonconventionally indirect

2.3.1 Direct Strategy

Searle (1969) made a distinction between direct speech acts and indirect speech acts. Utterances like *'Give me the book!'* is direct. It represents the meaning as word say, which is intelligible to listeners as long as they know each word literally in the sentence. Direct strategies would include the first five level of directness, which involves the use of imperative, locution derivable, explicit performative, hedge performative and want statement.

2.3.2 Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Indirect speech acts lead to the meaning beyond words, which can only be precisely decoded when listeners go through the sentence more than it represents literally. The conventionally indirect speech associates its illocutionary force with specific sentence patterns (formulaic expression). A common example is *Can you + (desired act)?* In general, strategies employed in this type are on record. They are a transparent way of performing an act.

2.3.3 Nonconventionally Indirect Strategy

This strategy deals with hints, which are considered as an off record kind of a strategy. They are opaque ways of doing an act. Nonconventionally indirect strategy are ambiguous and less clear compared to the conventionally indirect strategy. A common example would be when a wife may say *'I'm thirsty'* instead of *'Can you get me some water?'* to imply to the husband that she needs a service of water.

For the purpose of this study, these strategies will be used as variables and how are the used will be analysed in Chapter 4. The types of strategies used by the respondents will be labelled as direct strategies, conventionally indirect strategies, nonconventionally indirect strategies and opt out (refer to Table 2.2).

It is clear from this summary of the main features of requests that the target-like performance of this particular illocutionary act calls for considerable linguistic and sociolinguistic knowledge on the part of the learner. The learner needs to develop a range of linguistic devices. When making requests, the learner also need to learn how to use these devices appropriately in various situations.

2.3.4 Opt Out Strategy

It was discovered that there are certain situations presented in the DCT which are left unanswered by the respondents. Code and Anderson (2002) had also noted this inclination in their study. As such, it was included as one of the strategies that the respondents may have chosen in this study. Furthermore, Perez (2001), had also discovered that the respondents in his study had the same tendency to opt out from responding to the DCT.

2.4 Politeness

Many scholars have agreed that the chief motivation for using indirect speech acts is politeness, especially in uttering requests. Speakers have to take into account their relationship with the addressee and the degree of imposition upon the addressee in order to ensure that harmonious social relations between the speakers are not endangered. In so doing, the requests should give recognition to the need to signal solidarity, solidarity with power or power on its own, over their hearers, both of which determine the nature of their relationship.

Among the most influential researchers, Brown and Levinson (1987) have examined the notion of politeness phenomenon in human interaction and thus, have developed a model of politeness in which they distinguish a number of options or strategies available to the speaker, ranging from avoiding the face-threatening act (FTA) altogether, to executing the FTA in different guises. These strategies are summarised in Figure 2.1.

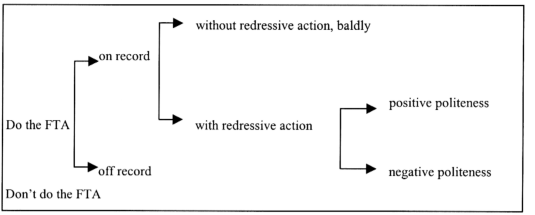

Figure 2.1 Possible Strategies for Conducting FTAs (Brown and Levinson, 1987)

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), off-record FTAs are performed indirectly, which, as a result, attributed to their inherent ambiguity. They have the greatest potential for negotiation (including denial) and by choosing them the speaker removes him/herself from any imposition whatsoever. Examples of an off-record strategy are hints and the widely known request such as to close the window is "It's cold in here".

On the other hand, on-record performance of FTAs can be achieved without regressive action (baldly) or by adopting either of two kinds of redress: positive politeness, addressing the hearer's positive wants, or negative politeness, addressing the hearer's negative wants. Bald on-record politeness strategies provide no effort by the speaker to reduce the impact of the FTAs. By choosing this strategy, the speaker will most likely shock the hearer, embarrass them, or make them feel uncomfortable. This strategy, however, is commonly found with people who know each other well and are very comfortable in their environment, such as close friends and family. An example of a bald on-record request would be "Put that coat away".

Positive politeness strategies emphasise closeness between speaker and hearer by either confirming or establishing common ground, or by referring to desirable attributes in the hearer, for example, "Be a nice girl and close the window".

Negative politeness strategies suggest distance by accentuating the hearer's right to territorial claims and freedom from imposition. The main focus for using this strategy is to assume that the speaker may be imposing on the hearer, and intruding upon their space. Therefore, negative politeness strategies automatically assume that there might be some social distance or awkwardness in the situation. For instance, if a speaker says, "I'm looking for a pin", the speaker is hoping that she/he will not have to ask directly, so as not to impose and take up the hearer's time. By using this indirect strategy, the speaker hopes the hearer will offer to go and find the pin.

Brown and Levinson's model of politeness can be seen as one of the most influential works for examining the politeness phenomena in human interactions. However, their theory has been criticised on a number of grounds. Their face-saving model has been questioned mainly because the distinction between positive and negative face does not appear to be the same in non-Western cultures where the underlying interactional focus emphasizes collectivism rather than individualism.

Leech (1983) identified the approach of politeness as not having anything to do with pragmatic inferencing processes but rather with the attainment of social goals. In which, it is very much associated with the social interactive cycle and basic to the society's universal conceptualisation of politeness; the ability to be able to choose the appropriate ways and means of achieving the maximum benefit for the speaker and the hearer at the minimum of

cost. This approach supported Goffman's (1967) idea of a rational model person of having a "public self-image" which the interlocutor wishes to project to other group members and a need to act without being impeded in any way by other members.

The point of which 'polite' utterances fade into additional FTAs cannot be determined by any set of rule for language usage. It is not only culture-dependant, it is also context-dependant within the same culture.

2. 5 Power and Status

This term is used as a variable to signify the general symbol of all types of social differences and distances (Trudgill, 1983). The relative social distance between the speaker and the addressee(s) is one of the most basic factors determining appropriate levels of politeness behaviour in most, if not all, societies. Theoretical models such as those of Brown and Levinson (1987); Leech (1983) and Wolfson (1988), have specifically addressed the issue of how to analyse linguistic politeness including considerations of social distance as a crucial factor. Brown and Levinson (1987), for instance, identify relative social distance as a relevant social dimension in all cultures, though the precise factors which contribute to determining its importance in any community and even in particular interaction, will differ.

Belonging to the same social group, sharing an occupation or common membership of a sports club or religious community, are factors which may be relevant in assessing the relative social distance of a particular relationship. But their importance must be assessed in context. For instance, the fact that people work together or share an apartment together may contribute to their feeling friendlier towards each other. However, in other contexts, such

factors may be irrelevant or may even increase social distance. For example, housemates may not be so friendly to each other when they argue as to who cooks the meals most of the time.

Leech (1983: 126) also identifies social distance as a crucial factor in determining politeness behaviour as a crucial factor in determining politeness behaviour or linguistic 'tact'. He points out that determining social distance involves considering the role people are taking in relation to one another in a particular situation, as well as how well they know each other. Thus, a teacher might reasonably and legitimately say to a student to *get that essay to me by next week*, but not *make me a cup of coffee* (Leech 1983:126). The teacher's role confers authority over the student's academic behaviour, and so the imperative forms, *get*, is justified in the former case. It is not normally part of a student's role to make coffee for a teacher; however, a request of this kind would therefore need to be expressed with far more 'tact'.

Giles and Ryan (1998) designed a model, which predicts responses on evaluative dimensions, which involves status, power, prestige, social class, advantaged and superiority (see Figure 2.2). These dimensions are the one that will be considered in this study.

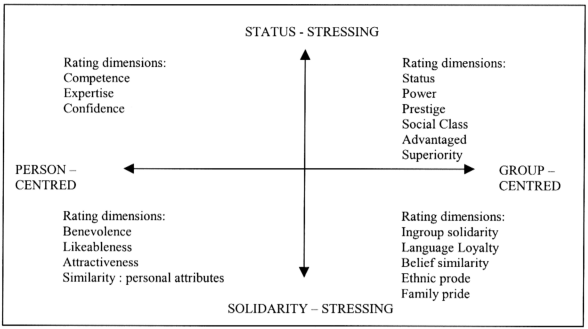

Figure 2.2 Perceived language attitude situations and evaluative ratings along two dimensions (Giles and Ryan, 1998)

These are the factors which determine the performance of language based on perceived language attitude situations and evaluative ratings. In a situation described by Leech earlier, it is a show of a request situation in a condition of power being available or without power, a condition which was also discussed by Trudgill (1983).

Power availability, signifies a condition where the teacher have some influence over the community and over the student. On the other hand, without power, signifies the student's position of having minute influence over the teacher and also recognizing the control the teacher has over the student as well as the community. This situation can also be categorized as status stressing and group centred.

2.6 The Discourse Completion Test

In order to elicit information from the students about their ability to produce requests, data were obtained by using the controlled elicitation procedure. The instrument used was a discourse completion task (DCT). The DCT format was first developed by Levenston (1975) to test oral proficiency of adult immigrants to Canada and later used to test lexical simplification (Levenston and Blum-Kulka 1978) being first adapted to investigate the speech act realization by Blum-Kulka (1982) to compare the speech act realization patterns of native speakers of English as a second language. In her study, the items of her DCT required the insertion of one utterance in a blank dialogue.

Example 1: Among Peers.

Dan : Ron, I found a great apartment, but I have a problem. I have to pay the landlady $500 deposit by tonight.

Ron : And you haven't got it?

Dan : No. I'll get my salary only next week.

_____?

Ron : Sorry, no. I'm out of money right now.

Another edition of the DCT was formed by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984), which was adopted by an international group of researchers undertaking a project known as the *Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realisation Project* (CCSARP). This project was an attempt to compare cross-linguistically the realisation patterns of two speech acts – request and apology – and to establish the similarities and differences between native speakers and non-native speakers' realization patterns in these two acts in each of the languages studied

within the project. The following is an example of task item used by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984 : 56) to show an elicitation of a request:

Example 2 : At a Students' Apartment

Larry, John's room-mate, had a party the night before and left the kitchen in a mess.

John : Larry, Ellen and Tom are coming for dinner tonight and I'll have to start cooking soon;

_____?

Larry : OK, I'll have a go at it right away.

The DCT used by Blum-Kulka (1982) was adapted by omitting the hearer's rejoinder, pointing out that it might in some way influence the response. Rose (1992), discovered that the differences in responses between the classic DCT and the new version of DCT were statistically insignificant. He concluded that for collecting American English request data with a DCT the inclusion of hearer response has no effect, so it was unnecessary to be included.

Rose (1992), further modified the DCT by eliminating the dialogue. The subjects for his research needed only to fill in the responses that they thought suitable, in the context given, according to the descriptions of each situation. For instance, a phrase "What would you say?" was added to ensure the elicitation of the request.

Example 3: Among Peers

You missed class and needed to borrow a friend's notes. What would you say?

You : _____

It is this improvised Discourse Completion Test (DCT) that will be employed in this study. In addition, the DCT is also adapted accordingly, so as not to offend the Malay culture and the understanding of the Islamic beliefs. For example, in situation 10, the original situation given was in a pub. However, to Muslims, alcohol is prohibited and anything related to it, is not allowed. Thus, the pub was replaced with a fast food restaurant.

As pointed out by Kasper and Dahl (1991), DCTs have enjoyed unparalleled popularity in interlanguage pragmatics research. Out of the 35 studies of speech act production reviewed by them, 11 studies (31%) used DCTs as the sole source of data and an additional 8 studies used them as one of the means of collecting data. Hence, DCTs were used in 54% (19 out of 35) of the studies. In contrast, only 2 of the 35 studies, just below 6%, used observation of natural language.

Wolfson, Marmor and Jones (1989) noted several strengths of the DCT. They consider the questionnaire to be effective in terms of the following:

1. gathering a large amount of data quickly
2. creating an initial classification of semantic formulas and strategies that will occur in natural speech
3. studying the stereotypical perceived requirements for a socially appropriate (though not always polite) response

4. gaining insight into social and psychological factors that are likely to affect speech and performance and
5. ascertaining the canonical shape of refusals, apologies and parting in the minds of the speakers of that language. However, they are *not* natural speech and they do *not* accurately reflect natural speech

(Wolfson et. al. 1989 : 183-184)

Other advantages of the method are controlling the contextual variables important to the study; as well as effectively comparing the strategies from different language and the strategies used by native speakers and learners of the same language. In fact, the DCT as a data eliciting technique is still used by many linguists.

2.7 Research on Requests in Second Language Acquisition

Requests have received a considerable attention in second language acquisition for a number of reasons. They are face-threatening acts (FTAs) by definition: hearers can interpret requests as intrusive impingement on freedom of action, or even as a show in the exercise of power (Brown and Levinson, 1987). Therefore, they call for considerable linguistic expertise on the part of the learner, permitting a wide range of strategies, most of which are clearly identifiable formulas and they differ cross-culturally.

Ellis (1994) provides a review of the substantial body of research that exists on request nowadays. Although a number of studies have investigated learners' perceptions and comprehension of requests (Walters, 1979; Fraser, Rintell and Walters, 1980; Olshtain and Blum-Kulka, 1985; and Ervin-Tripp, Strage, Lampert and Bell, 1987), most of the research

focuses on the production of requests elicited in the form of written responses to a discourse completion questionnaire or oral responses to role plays (refer to Table 2.5).

Table 2.5 Summary of Researches on Request Strategies

STUDY	TYPE	SUBJECTS	DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS	MAIN RESULTS
Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986)	Cross-sectional	Learners of L2 Hebrew; (mixed proficiency)	Discourse completion questionnaire	High intermediate learners used longer requests than low intermediate
House and Kasper (1987)	Cross-sectional	Advanced learners of L2 English)	Discourse completion questionnaire	Learners showed similar choice of directness levels but used less varied syntactic and lexical down-graders less frequently and produced longer requests.
Tanaka (1988)	Cross-sectional	8 Japanese ESL learners in Australia	Role play	The learners were more direct than NSs and used politeness strategies inappropriately
Faerch and Kasper (1989)	Cross-sectional	200 learners of English 200 learners of German	Discourse completion questionnaire	Learners tend to be more verbose; over use of politeness markers.
Rintell and Mitchell (1989)	Cross-sectional	34 ESL learners – Low advanced level	Discourse completion questionnaire Role play	Learners' requests longer than NSs. No major differences in choice of form or strategies.

Ellis (1992)	Longitudinal	2 ESL learners	Pencil and paper recording and audio recordings	Learners have limited ability in using requests and did not make elaborated requests.
Rinnert and Kobayashi (1998)	Cross-sectional	Native speakers of Japanese and English	Questionnaires	Japanese requestives hints more opaque than English and the use of requestive hints differ between the 2 cultures.
Owen (2001)	Cross-sectional	84 non-native speakers of Russians	Oral proficiency interview Role Play	High proficiency level produced a more native-like performance.
Code and Anderson (2001)	Longitudinal	35 Japanese students	Discourse completion questionnaire	Lower levels use more direct strategies, which are gradually replaced by conventionally indirect requests.

The general conclusion that can be reached from these studies, focusing on the perception of requests is that even relative beginners appear to have few problems in understanding the illocutionary force of a request, probably because they are able to make use of situational cues and later on they are able to perceive the sociolinguistic meanings encoded by different request types.

Many of the cross-sectional studies have investigated high-intermediate or advanced learners. One of the substantial findings from these studies is that these learners do not acquire fully native-like ways of requesting. Although learners may gain comfortable

control of the vocabulary and grammar of the language, they may achieve comparable control over the pragmatic or functional uses, as those expressed by speech acts.