



The acquisition of politeness by young EFL learners in France : an exploratory study of interlanguage pragmatic development

Aisha Siddiq

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THÈSE DE DOCTORAT

La politesse dans un contexte
d'apprentissage, par des francophones, de
l'anglais langue étrangère

Enjeux pragmatiques, interlangue et acquisition de stratégies

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La politesse dans un contexte d'apprentissage, par des francophones, de l'anglais langue étrangère

Enjeux pragmatiques, interlangue et acquisition de stratégies

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Résumé

Titre de la thèse: La politesse dans un contexte d'apprentissage, par des francophones, de l'anglais langue étrangère : enjeux pragmatiques, interlangue et acquisition de stratégies

Cette étude de pragmatique interlangue (PIL) examine des données empiriques sur les apprenants de l'anglais langue étrangère au collège et au lycée français, afin de contribuer à la compréhension du développement de la politesse en langue seconde (L2). En effet, avec l'augmentation des interactions plurilingues à travers le monde, la sensibilisation à ce qui est considéré comme poli ou impoli est désormais indispensable. Toutefois, l'acquisition de la compétence pragmatique en langue étrangère étant généralement difficile et les observations selon lesquelles les apprenants d'un bon niveau peuvent présenter des écarts par rapport aux normes pragmatiques, attestent de la nécessité de mener des recherches plus approfondies dans ce domaine (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996; Bardovi-Harlig, 1999). Bien qu'il existe à ce jour un nombre important de travaux de recherche portant sur ce domaine, la plupart d'entre eux se sont centrés uniquement sur le cas d'apprenants adultes (Kasper & Rose, 1999) en utilisant des tâches écrites de complétion du discours ("written discourse completion tasks") (e.g., Hill, 1997; Jebahi, 2011), afin d'explicitier des connaissances pragmatiques (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999, 2013).

Dès lors, ce travail de thèse vise à développer recherche en PIL en utilisant des méthodes mixtes de collecte de données auprès d'un large échantillon de jeunes apprenants débutants. Ces méthodes comprennent notamment : une tâche production orale en utilisant des dessins animés ("cartoon oral production task"), des jeux de rôle ouverts et des données naturalistes recueillies via des enregistrements vidéo en classe. Au total, 240 collégiens et lycéens (âgés de 11 à 18 ans) de trois niveaux différents ont participé à cette étude afin de mettre en évidence le développement des compétences en PIL avec la maîtrise de la langue. Afin de compléter les

résultats, des données secondaires ont également été recueillies par l'analyse d'enregistrements vidéo de classe et l'examen des manuels scolaires et des entretiens avec les enseignants.

L'analyse des requêtes est fondée sur le cadre de catégorisation des requêtes développé par Blum-Kulka et al., (1989). Ce cadre de catégorisation permet de rendre compte des dimensions pragmatiques et sociopragmatiques des requêtes interculturelles.

Pour conclure, cette étude a permis de mettre en évidence que le développement des compétences pragmatiques en L2 est caractérisé presque exclusivement par l'augmentation de la fréquence des stratégies pragmatiques à la fin du lycée. L'éventail des stratégies utilisées ou les caractéristiques sociopragmatiques reflètent ce développement dans une moindre mesure, et ce quelle que soit la méthode de récolte de données. Les données d'un autre groupe en L1 (français) ont révélé un développement similaire, suggérant que le transfert de la L1 pourrait expliquer le développement de la L2 (anglais) observé dans cette étude, d'autant plus que l'analyse des données secondaires a révélé peu d'intérêt sur les PIL dans les programmes d'enseignement.

Mots-clés: Pragmatique, interlangue, anglais langue étrangère, développement, politesse, jeunes apprenants débutants, France.

Abstract

Thesis title: The Acquisition of Politeness by Young EFL Learners in France: An Exploratory Study of Interlanguage Pragmatic Development

This study of interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) investigates empirical data on EFL learners in French secondary schools to contribute to our understanding of the development of L2 politeness. With the increase in multilingual interactions around the globe, awareness of what is polite or impolite has become indispensable. However, pragmatic skills are generally not easily acquired in foreign language settings and the observation that even advanced learners do not necessarily exhibit target-like norms has led to calls for further investigation in this area (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996; Bardovi-Harlig, 1999). Although there is now a solid body of research in this area, most studies have focused on adult learners (Kasper & Rose, 1999) using written discourse completion tasks (see *e.g.*, Hill, 1997; Billmyer & Varghese, 2000; Su, 2010; Jebahi, 2011) to elicit explicit pragmatic knowledge (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999, 2013).

The present study seeks to extend the scope of ILP research by focusing on a large group of young, beginning learners using mixed methods of data collection including a cartoon oral production task, open-ended role plays, and naturalistic data from classroom video recordings. Participants were some 240 secondary school learners at three different levels (age 11 to 18) to allow the tracking of ILP development with language proficiency. To contextualise findings, secondary data was collected in the form of additional analysis of classroom films, textbook analysis, and teacher interviews. The analysis of request data is based on the seminal L2 discourse analytic framework Cross-Cultural Speech Act Research Project (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989) which allows the analysis of both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic dimensions of requests. L2 pragmatic development was observed almost exclusively in terms of increased

frequency of pragmalinguistic strategies, particularly by the end of upper secondary school, less so in terms of range of strategies or sociopragmatic features, and this was confirmed across all data collection methods. L1 data from another group revealed similar development, suggesting that L1 transfer may be one explanation for the L2 development observed in the study, particularly because analysis of secondary data revealed little focus on ILP in teaching programs.

Keywords: Interlanguage pragmatics, development, politeness, EFL, young beginning learners, France.

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This dissertation would not have been possible without the co-operation of French upper and lower secondary schools, teachers, learners, research assistants, and several university students who agreed to participate in the study and help in data collection on which this thesis is grounded.

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List of abbreviations and symbols

// //	This symbol indicates overlapping contributions in transcribed interaction
CA	Conversational analysis
CC	Conversational contract
CCSARP	Cross-cultural speech act research project
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
COPT	Cartoon oral production task (method)
CP	Co-operative principle
D	Distance between two or more speakers (Brown & Levinson, 1987)
DCT	Discourse completion task
EFL	English as a foreign language
FL/SL/L2	Second or foreign language, learned after a first language
FTA	Face-threatening act
H	Hearer
ILP	Interlanguage pragmatics
Inc.	Incomprehensible (used in transcription of dialogues)
L1	First language/native language
L3	Third language
P	Power of one speaker over other speaker (s) (Brown & Levinson, 1987)
PP	Politeness principle
R	Rank of imposition of the speech act (<i>e.g.</i> , “request”) (Brown & Levinson, 1987)
S	Speaker
SD	Standard deviation
SLA	Second language acquisition

TLE	<i>Terminale</i> (the highest level of upper secondary school in France)
UNS	Université Nice Sophia-Antipolis

List of abbreviations used in figures

ANOVA	Analysis of variance (name of a statistical test)
B	Big (imposition)
CI	Conventionally indirect (requests)
H dominant	Hearer dominant
HD	Hearer dominant
HSD	Honest significant difference (as in Tukey HSD test)
I	Imposition (of requests)
Imp	Impersonal (perspective)
NCI	Nonconventionally indirect (requests)
p-value ¹	Calculated probability
S & H	Speaker and hearer
S & HD	Speaker and hearer dominant
S dominant	Speaker dominant
Sc	Scenario
St d.	Standard deviation

¹ https://www.statsdirect.com/help/basics/p_values.htm

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Chapter 1. Introduction

Pragmatics is a significant component of communicative competence in any language. Each language has its own set of sociolinguistic norms that are systematically practiced in that community. These behavioural and linguistic norms are generally expected from people of that community and their absence is likely to cause disruptions in communication. Therefore, it is important for second language learners to learn these norms along with other language skills. The need to learn appropriate L2 pragmatic norms has further escalated with an increase in global multilingual networks in recent years. However, this important dimension of L2 competence has received relatively lesser attention in research, mainly because pragmatics itself gained recognition as an important component of communicative competence fairly recently. Before the 1970s, “pragmatics was not involved in early SLA [second language acquisition] debates centring around the contrastive analysis hypothesis, creative construction and so forth” (Kasper, 1992, p. 204). Later, it has been recognized that “pragmatic competence is not extra or ornamental” (Kasper, 1997, para. 5), but in fact, it is an essential competence that interrelates with overall communicative and organizational competence. The present study, therefore, seeks to contribute to the study of second language pragmatics by examining the acquisition of interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) by young learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) in France.

Even though pragmatics is relatively new in the field of linguistics, its concepts date as far back as the early 1900s. According to Crystal (1997, adopted from Kasper & Rose, 2002; Bardovi-Harlig, 2013) pragmatics is;

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

Terms “choices” and “constraints” in this definition reflect a commonly held subdivision of pragmatics into pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics (Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1983).

Pragmalinguistics explores the linguistic dimension of pragmatics and focuses on “the particular resources which a given language provides for conveying particular illocutions” (Leech, 1983, p. 11). Sociopragmatics, on the other hand, is concerned with the “sociological interface of pragmatics” (Leech, 1983, p. 10). It refers to an understanding of *appropriate* social behaviour underlying the interlocutors’ implementation and interpretation of the communicative action. Sociopragmatics mediates linguistic choices of participants in performing communicative acts in relation to sociocultural constraints / norms (van Compernelle, 2014; Rose, 1999).

1.1 Why Learn Interlanguage Pragmatics?

As the study of interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) emerged as an independent domain only recently, little research has been done in this area as compared to interlanguage grammar and phonology etc. The need for examining L2 learners’ pragmatic development is felt on account of a number of reasons which will be illustrated in this section. However, before establishing the need for examining learners’ ILP development, it is important to note the difference between *pragmatics* and ILP. Bardovi-Harlig (2013) highlights this difference by explaining that pragmatics is “the study of how-to-say-what-to-whom-when” (p. 68), whereas ILP is “the study of *how learners come to know* how-to-say-what-to-whom-when” (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013, p.68-69, emphasis added). In other words, pragmatics looks at the use of language in context in general whereas ILP focuses on second language learners’ pragmatic competence and acquisition.

The need for examining L2 learners’ ILP development was felt strongly when Schmidt’s (1993) hypothesized that input becomes intake only when learners notice target language features. This view claimed that factors such as proficiency and learning context can help

learners in acquiring some L2 pragmatic elements, yet there is a chance that learners do not notice several other pragmatic features of the target language, if they are left on their own. Without proper guidance, learners may fail to realize that many linguistic conventions of their culture are different from the target language culture (Beebe et al. 1990; Garcia, 1989; Trosborg, 1995; Wierzbicka; 1985, 2003).

Another trigger for examining learners' ILP development was the finding of a number of ILP studies that even advanced learners failed to approximate native-like pragmatic norms (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Kasper, 1982; Blum-Kulka, 1982; Thomas, 1983; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001, Kasper & Rose, 2001; Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003; Rose, 2005; Bardovi-Harlig & Griffin, 2005).

Some ILP studies such as Mårquez-Reiter (2000) and Trosborg (1995) show that socio-cultural factors including social power/status, distance between interlocutors, and the imposition of utterances (Brown & Levinson, 1987) may significantly affect the choice of strategies in different cultures. The unawareness of specific social conventions can lead to misunderstandings, which can make a speaker look abrupt or even rude and unsympathetic on several occasions (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003). Bardovi-Harlig (2001) argues that these violations leave many negative repercussions on interpersonal relations because interlocutors are less likely to make allowances for pragmatic errors as opposed to grammatical or vocabulary errors. Learners' advanced grammar and vocabulary gives the impression that pragmatic violations are committed intentionally. Pragmatic errors are "often interpreted on a social or personal level rather than a result of the language learning process" (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003, p.3). Thus, it is important that learners master both socio-cultural as well as lexico-grammatical

features of the given L2. But, the extent to which they are successful in this attempt needs to be explored in ILP research.

Furthermore, intervention studies have also found that classroom materials generally lack authentic pragmatic information (Bardovi-Harlig et al., 2015b; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Cohen & Ishihara, 2013), which shows learners' limited access to opportunities for learning ILP. In this context, it is important to examine how learners cope with these difficulties and how far they are successful in developing their L2 pragmatic knowledge. For all above-mentioned reasons, it can be argued that there is a clear need for examining L2 learners' pragmatic development and taking measures to improve their ILP knowledge.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

Considering the evident need for learning L2 pragmatics, a number of studies have examined L2 learners' ILP development (see section 2.7.2 for a list of ILP studies on requests). These studies produced valuable results concerning L2 learners' pragmatic development but they frequently focused on adult L2 learners and second language setting. Likewise, they frequently relied on elicited data. The few longitudinal studies which used naturalistic data (Achiba, 2003; Safont-Jordà, 2011; 2013; Ellis, 1992) included a small number of participants, which somehow restricted the generalisation of their findings. Likewise, none of these acquisitional studies, to the best of our knowledge, have also investigated opportunities of L2 pragmatic development in learners' textbooks and classroom activities. The present study aims to address these issues by investigating ILP development of young beginning learners of English in a foreign language setting: French secondary schools. While focusing on L2 requests, this study provides a comprehensive description of learners' L2 request strategies when making low and high imposition requests to persons of equal and higher status, which allows an examination of

learners' pragmalinguistic as well as sociopragmatic competence. This study takes a cross-sectional approach and examines the L2 pragmatic development of three levels of learners in lower and upper secondary schools in France. Unlike previous studies, this study uses data from different sources and triangulates both naturalistic and elicited data to examine the extent of learners' knowledge about the use of politeness strategies in L2 requests, both on utterance and discourse level.

This study also compares interlanguage data with L1 French data to account for possible instances of pragmatic transfer or sociocultural inappropriateness in learner data. L1 pragmatic transfer will be analysed in the frequency as well as the content of request strategies. Further investigation will be done to find the extent of input opportunities in L2 classrooms and textbooks to learn L2 pragmatics. Likewise, this analysis aims to find out if learners use these opportunities or create others to learn L2 pragmatics.

The choice of speech act, *request*, for the present analysis is justified on several grounds. First, the wide focus of ILP research on *requests* provides a firm structure upon which new research perspectives can be based (Achiba, 2003). Second, it allows a comparison with other research that has previously focused on this area. Third, *requests* occur very frequently in daily conversations with people, which makes them important to master in order to maintain healthy social relations (Achiba, 2003). Because *requests* make the hearer do something for the speaker (as a favour), it may come across as face-threatening for the hearer (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Therefore, speakers may need to use several strategies and modifiers to soften the imposition of *requests*. It is then critical for each party to be knowledgeable in terms of each other's cultural norms to successfully communicate. Socio-cultural factors such as status, power, distance, and many other factors, are found to influence one's response to various types of requests. In the

worst case, lack of knowledge about these factors can result in misunderstandings and confusions in conversation. It is assumed that an investigation of requests can potentially provide insights into second language learners' pragmatic abilities.

The present study is organized as follows. Chapter two provides a review of speech act and politeness theories, and also presents relevant findings of previous research in ILP. Later, findings of research on L1 English and L1 French requests are compared in order to highlight similarities and differences between English and French requests. This chapter ends with a detailed description of findings, participants, and methods of studies focusing on L2 requests. Chapter three describes the research design employed to gather and examine data. Chapter four presents the analysis and results of the study. Finally, Chapter five presents the discussion of each research question and ends with conclusions of the study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter provides a detailed background of theories and studies which motivated the present study. As the focus of this research is on the acquisition of L2 politeness strategies in the speech act of request by EFL learners in France, sections 2.1 to 2.3 provide a detailed introduction to pragmatics, speech act, and politeness theories. Section 2.4 sheds light on main areas of interest in ILP research and relevant findings. This section provides a rationale for the choice of a developmental design for the present study as it shows how second language (L2) acquisition and development have received little attention in early ILP research. Section 2.5 focuses on the speech act of request and examines the relationship between indirectness and politeness as shown by previous empirical research on requests. It is important to discuss this relationship because the present study assumes a positive correlation between indirectness and politeness, which seems justified in western educational settings, at least. This section also compares studies examining L1 English and L1 French requests to find similarities and differences in these languages. Furthermore, findings of ILP studies focusing on L2 learners' requests are discussed in section 2.6 and their methodological choices and implications are discussed in section 2.7.

2.1 Pragmatic Competence

The aim of this study is to examine French EFL learners' L2 pragmatic competence and development over time. Hence, it is important to define the term "pragmatic competence" first. Since the explicit interest in pragmatic competence emerged relatively recently in linguistics, it is important to start with a broader notion, that is, communicative competence.

2.1.1 Communicative competence.

The notion of *communicative competence* was developed by Dell Hymes (1967; 1972) as a backlash to Noam Chomsky's (1957; 1965) theory of *linguistic competence* and *performance*. The exclusive focus of Chomsky's theory on grammar at the expense of sociocultural dynamics led to a general discontent in scholarly circles. In this regard, Hymes argued that the linguistic competence should not be the only goal of education but it should also take sociocultural parameters into account because they are equally important for an appropriate language use.

Hymes' breakthrough brought about a noticeable shift in the contemporary focus on the *knowledge of language* without reference to the *use of language in context*. At approximately the same time, the existing grammar translation and audio-lingual teaching approaches within applied linguistics were also being questioned. Therefore, Hymes' notion of communicative competence was immediately recognized. His perspective on sociolinguistic competence was carried over and expanded in several communicative models (Bachman, 1990; Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983; Celce-Murcia et al., 1995; Celce-Murcia, 2007). Among these, Canale and Swain's model of communicative competence is widely recognized, in which pragmatics has been embedded within *sociolinguistic competence*. This model consists of four subcomponents:

- *grammatical competence* which refers to the knowledge of lexical items, morphology, phonology, syntax, and semantics.
- *sociolinguistic competence* such as the knowledge of the appropriateness of form in context according to the subject, the relationship, the role, and the setting.

- *discourse competence* refers to the mastery of cohesiveness in the form (*e.g.*, pronouns, conjunctions) and the coherence in meaning, that is, the connection between literal meanings and communicative functions.
- *strategic competence* such as the use of verbal or non-verbal devices to enhance the effectiveness of communication.

Although pragmatic competence has been embedded in these models as part of sociolinguistic competence, it is explicitly recognized only in Bachman's (1990) model of language ability.

2.1.2 Pragmatic competence.

According to Bialystok (1993), pragmatic competence refers to “a variety of abilities concerned with the use and interpretation of language in contexts” (p. 43). The “variety of abilities” in Bialystok's definition refer to the speaker's ability to use the language to perform different communicative functions, the listener's ability to interpret the speaker's intentions correctly, and the shared expertise of both interlocutors with regard to rules of language (*e.g.*, syntactic and grammatical). By means of these three competencies, speakers can construct a successful discourse and can even interpret the nonliteral forms of language, which includes indirectness, irony, sarcasm, and metaphors.

Within second language studies, the communicative functions that pragmatics encompasses include speech acts, conversational structure/management, conversational implicatures, discourse organization, and address terms (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003). Among these, speech acts are one of the major components of pragmatics (Levinson, 1983) and are frequently explored in ILP research. In line with previous research, the present study took a speech act approach to investigate the pragmatic competence of French EFL learners while

focusing on requests. Thus, the following section presents the speech act theory, its connections with pragmatics, and its relevance for the present study in detail.

2.2 Speech Act Theory

In this section, a brief introduction to Austin (1962) and Searle's (1969) speech act theories is provided because these theories greatly influenced the field of pragmatics and provided a fundamental understanding of the speech act theory. Three types of communicative acts identified in speech act theory are also introduced in this section: locutionary acts, illocutionary acts, and perlocutionary acts. Among these, the illocutionary act has received the most research attention because it contains the actual/hidden meaning of the utterance. Since several types of locutions (*e.g.*, direct or indirect) can be used to convey the illocutionary force/intent, an introduction to different types of locutions (direct, conventionally indirect, nonconventionally indirect) is provided in this section which can be used to convey the illocutionary force of requests.

Speech act theory was first presented by Austin in a series of lectures in 1955 called *How to Do Things with Words*, which were published posthumously in 1962. Austin (1962) argues that "to say something is to do something" (Austin 1962, p. 123). John Searle (1969, 1975) reinforces this theory by explaining that we perform acts with words. He argues that regardless of what we say, we are always "doing things with words". He claims that language is a rule-governed intentional behaviour and "speaking a language is performing speech acts, acts such as making statements, giving commands, asking questions, making promises and so on" (p. 16). For example, by saying "sorry" we apologize to someone or by saying "can you open the window?" we make a request. Likewise, when we say, "you look so pretty" we compliment someone.

Although there is a possibility that the meaning of an utterance may vary from one context to another.

Austin (1962) further explains that while producing an utterance, a speaker performs three types of acts:

- *the locutionary act* which conveys meaning (formulating phonemes, morphemes etc.)
- *the illocutionary act* which conveys a particular force (intended meaning such as a request, an apology)
- *the perlocutionary act* which achieves an objective or certain effects (the effect on the hearer to get the hearer to act on something according to the speaker's desire)

Stated differently, when a speaker produces an utterance using words (locutionary act) such as “you look pretty”, s/he simultaneously performs an act (illocutionary act) such as compliment someone, with an intention to have an effect (perlocution) on actions, thoughts or beliefs of the addressee (Barron, 2003). However, among these, *illocutionary acts* have received the most attention in speech act research. Consequently, the term *speech act* itself has begun to mean an *illocutionary act* (Barron, 2003; Yule, 1996; Searle, 1969).

Searle (1969) underlines the fact that illocutionary and perlocutionary acts are correlated. For example, by warning someone the speaker may “*scare or alarm*” him and by making a request to someone the speaker may get him “*to do something*” (Searle 1969, p.25, italics original). Searle (1969) also points out that it is not always easy to determine which speech act is performed by means of an utterance (or a set of utterances). For example, if the function/meaning of an utterance/form is identified literally without further processing, it is considered a direct speech act (Searle, 1975). Conversely, the interpretation of language structures such as “can you reach the salt?” is not so simple (Searle, 1975, p.60). On the surface,

it is a question but it also serves as a request to pass the salt. Such language structures are hard to understand and fall into the category of indirect speech acts.

However, in different speech communities, certain indirect structures are practiced so repeatedly that they become conventionalized and can be interpreted without involving further cognitive processing. Some of these conventional ways include the use of illocutionary-force-indicating-devices (IFIDs) such as the use of performative verbs (*e.g.*, I'm *asking* you to be quiet), intonation, word order, and stress. These IFIDs help the hearer to infer the illocutionary force of the utterance. However, these indirect utterances can be contrasted with utterances which are indirect but are not conventional. Such speech acts are termed as *nonconventionally indirect* speech acts and are frequently realized by means of hints (Barron, 2003; Weizman, 1989). For example;

Example 2.1: "It is cold in here."

Example 2.2: "Do you have any money on you?" (Weizman, 1989, p.73)

It appears that example (2.1) is a simple statement whereas example (2.2) looks like a question for information. However, the statement in example 2.1 is used 'as a request to close the window' and the question in example 2.2 is used 'as a request for a loan'. The illocutionary force of locutions in examples 2.1 and 2.2 can be interpreted successfully only if a sophisticated inference mechanism is employed. Such locutions are identified as nonconventionally indirect requests. The nonconventional form of these requests is intentionally employed by the speaker to create a gap between the utterance and the speaker meaning (Weizman, 1989). By means of this gap, the speaker allows both the speaker and the addressee to opt out. Nonconventional indirectness corresponds to Brown and Levinson's (1989) "off-record" politeness strategy. Nonconventionally indirect requests, or the requestive hints, are considered the most indirect form of requests.

The above discussion provides a basic understanding of the encoding and decoding mechanism of requests. Requests can be made with direct and indirect locutions with varying degrees of clarity. However, it is important to know the potential trigger for using different degrees of directness in conversation. Among several possible factors, politeness is a major factor that affects the choice of directness in requests. Other than the use of indirectness in requests, the dimension of politeness is also examined in this study. In line with previous work on politeness (Lakoff, 1973; Leech, 1983; Brown & Levinson, 1987), it is anticipated that politeness would have a strong effect on learners' choice of directness in L2 requests. The following section will introduce different theories of politeness which shed light on the relationship between directness and politeness.

2.3 Politeness Theory

Since the early 1970s, politeness has been vigorously studied from various angles to explain the interactional conventions of language use, both cross-cultural and universal (Barron, 2003). The discussion on politeness theories will begin with Grice because several following theories of politeness are based on Grice's framework of politeness. Other theories discussed in this section include Lakoff's rules of politeness, Leech's principles of politeness, and Brown and Levinson's model of politeness. These theories have different perspectives on the relationship between directness and politeness which are relevant as the present study also examines the relationship between indirectness and politeness in L2 requests. Brown and Levinson's (1987) universal framework of politeness is discussed in more detail because this theory is so far the only theory that provides a systematic and detailed evaluative framework which can be applied to different languages and contexts to study politeness, at least in western settings. The present study also applies Brown and Levinson's theory in the interpretation of findings.

2.3.1 Definitions of politeness.

Politeness is a social phenomenon that can be demonstrated by means of language, manners, and etiquettes or behaviours. Politeness is considered indispensable for a successful social interaction (Leech, 2014). However, the definition of politeness has always been problematic. Watts (2003) presents some lay notions of politeness by means of which people may define politeness in general as a correct appropriate behaviour, considerateness, and self-effacement. However, a surprising amount of disagreement can be found on specific details of politeness.

Early theories view politeness as a conflict avoidance strategy which functions as a linguistic tool in maintaining healthy relationships among interlocutors during social interaction (Fraser, 1990). Leech (1980), for example, defines politeness as a tool for “strategic conflict avoidance” (p.19). Lakoff (1990) views politeness as “a system of interpersonal relations designed to facilitate interaction by minimizing the potential for conflict and confrontation inherent in all human interchange” (p. 34). Similarly, for Brown and Levinson (1987), politeness is a means of avoiding antagonism between interlocutors in face-threatening situations (Kasper, 1990, p. 194). In contrast, later scholars view politeness as a “politic behaviour” (Watts, 2003) which takes both speaker’s and hearer’s needs into account during social interactions unlike previous theories which focused on hearer’s needs only.

As the focus of this study is on requests, which is a face-threatening speech act (Brown & Levinson, 1987), politeness in this study is viewed as a mitigating strategy or a softening device which is used to avoid the face-loss between speakers during conversational exchanges.

2.3.2 Grice’s conversational maxims.

Grice (1975) made a substantial contribution to the study of pragmatics through his Cooperative Principle (CP) and conversational maxims. His work explains how people use language

2.3.3 Lakoff's rules of politeness

Lakoff (1973) is called “the mother of modern politeness theory” (Eelen, 2001, p. 2) as she is one of the earliest scholars who attempted to explain the theory of politeness from a pragmatic point of view. As a response to Grice's principles of communicative cooperation she presented her *rules of politeness*. Grice claimed that people are inherently cooperative, which motivates them to provide maximum information with optimal clarity during any social interaction. However, evidence shows that CP does not always operate in natural conversation because people also use ambiguous and indirect expressions that cannot be explained with CP. Lakoff (1973) explains the incentive behind using indirectness in interaction by arguing that in the majority of social interactions, *politeness* is the reason for using *indirectness*.

Lakoff also considers politeness as a key element of her universal rules of pragmatic competence: a) *be clear* and b) *be polite*. Following Grice, Lakoff (1973) claims that clarity is crucial for effective communication, but speakers need to be polite as well. She specifies her rules of politeness with three sub-categories including a) don't impose, b) give options, and c) make A feel good – be friendly (Lakoff, 1973, p. 298). These rules are accounted for in social interactions when the purpose of communication is not only to convey information but also to establish a good relationship with interlocutors (Axia & Baroni, 1985). Lakoff claims universality for her rules, assuming that following these rules, politeness can be displayed in any cultural or linguistic context. However, there is little evidence to suggest whether her rules apply in sociocultural settings other than North American contexts that Lakoff (1973) studied. Leech (1983) continued Lakoff's work on politeness and attempted to shed light on the relationship between indirectness and politeness.

2.3.4 Leech's politeness principle.

Like Lakoff, Leech also took Gricean Conversational Maxim approach to account for politeness in conversation. Leech (1983) presented his Politeness Principle (PP) as an “essential complement” (p. 80) to Grice's Cooperative Principle (CP). He argued that CP fails to provide an evidence of “real language use” (p.80) as CP assumes that people use clear and unambiguous language to be cooperative. In reality, people may want to use indirect ways to convey meaning and still be seen as cooperative. For example;

Example 2.3: “Answer the phone.”

Example 2.4: “Could you please answer the phone?”

In both examples, the speaker wants the addressee to answer the phone. Example 2.3 clearly indicates the illocutionary intent (request) and fulfils the criteria for CP because the meaning is evident from the locution/utterance. In contrast, the locution in example 2.4 does not convey the meaning as clearly as example 2.3, because it has an interrogative form which makes it look like a question rather than a request. Example 2.4 violates the maxim of manner because the locution (utterance) in this example is not directly related to the illocutionary force (request). Thus, if CP is the criterion for cooperation in conversation, the speaker in example 2.4 will sound non-cooperative and may potentially offend the hearer. But instead, in real-life talk exchanges example 2.4 may sound politer than example 2.3, which is contrary to CP's claim.

Leech's Politeness principle (PP) explains that people may want to be indirect and ambiguous on purpose to avoid an impingement on their interlocutors' freedom of action. Therefore, the purpose of PP is “to maintain the social equilibrium and the friendly relations which enable us to assume that our interlocutors are being cooperative in the first place” (p. 80). Leech (1983) offers PP as a way of rescuing CP and accounting for indirectness and ambiguity in

conversation. He argues that it is only through a combination of CP and PP that a thorough pragmatic interpretation can be achieved. CP explains how people use conversational rules in social interaction and PP explains how people can violate those rules and still be cooperative.

Even though Leech's contribution is recognized as an important theoretical framework of politeness, it has also received some criticism by later scholars (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Fraser, 1990), mainly because of claims of universality despite its little empirical evidence. This problem was addressed to a certain extent in Brown and Levinson's theory (1987) in which empirical evidence from three different languages was provided. As mentioned earlier, Brown and Levinson's theory is the only evaluative framework which can be applied systematically to other languages and cultures, especially in western settings. Even though it is beyond the scope of the present study, interested readers can refer to Gudykunst et al., (1996), Gu (1990), and Mao (1994) for a contrastive view on eastern notions of politeness.

2.3.5 Brown & Levinson's universal theory of politeness.

Of all early work on politeness, Brown & Levinson's (1978, 1987) theory is the most influential. This theory has been discussed, criticized, and applied in research so frequently that the reference "Brown & Levinson" has come to be synonymous with the study of politeness itself (Eelen, 2001, p. 3).

2.3.5.1 The concept of face.

Central to Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory is the concept of face which originated in Goffman's (1967) work and is defined as "the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself" (Brown & Levinson, p. 61). Face is concerned with emotions which can be boosted, maintained, or lost in sensitive situations (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Brown and

Levinson argue that there are two types of face: positive face and negative face, each type of face has different *face wants* which each person wishes to be fulfilled by people. Positive face represents the “desire to be ratified, understood, approved of, liked or admired” (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 62). In contrast, negative face refers to “the basic claim to territories, personal preserves, rights to non-distraction – *i.e.* to freedom of action” (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 61). Although maintenance of face is important but it is not obligatory, people can act against their interlocutors’ face wants. Some language functions or speech acts are inherently face-threatening, that is, they “run contrary to face wants of the addressee” (p. 65) such as requests, orders, and threats. These speech acts generally constrain and, to some degree, put pressure on the hearer to do something for the speaker.

2.3.5.2 Redressive politeness strategies.

Assuming the universal concern for face, speakers are expected to employ an array of politeness *strategies* to alleviate antagonism in face-threatening speech acts. Brown and Levinson (1987) categorize these redressive strategies into five types: *bald-on-record*, *positive politeness*, *negative politeness*, *off-record*, and *don’t do the FTA* [face threatening act]. These strategies are discussed below.

a) Bald-on-Record

When a speaker performs an act baldly on-record, s/he does it in the most “direct, clear, unambiguous and concise way possible (for example, for a request, saying ‘Do X!’)” (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 69). This strategy is considered the least polite and speakers generally use this strategy in situations such as the following;

a) urgency or desperation, *e.g.*, “Watch out!”, “Your pants are on Fire!” (p. 96)

b) the speaker (S) is powerful or has higher status than the hearer (H), *e.g.*, “Bring my wine Jeeves” (p. 97)

b) Positive Politeness

Positive politeness redress is used to satisfy H’s positive face wants such as to be appreciated, approved, and liked by others. Some common observable examples of positive politeness include an assertion of mutual friendship, the use of intimate language (*e.g.*, “buddy”, “my friend”), seeking common ground, or treating the hearer like a friend who is valued and appreciated. Some other strategies that can be used to display positive politeness are presented below;

- a) Using in-group identity markers *e.g.*, “Come here, mate/honey/buddy” (p. 108)
- b) Involve both S and H in the activity *e.g.*, “Let’s stop for a bite.” (p. 127)

c) Negative Politeness

Negative politeness is mainly “avoidance-based” (p.70) and is used to satisfy hearer’s negative face wants such as freedom of action. While using this strategy, speakers minimize imposition by showing restraint and formality. Western cultures predominantly use negative politeness to minimize face-threat in talk exchanges (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Some relevant strategies used to indicate negative politeness are presented below (all examples are drawn from Brown & Levinson, 1987);

- a) Conventional indirectness, *e.g.*, “Can you post this letter for me?” (p.139)
- b) Minimize the imposition of the FTA, *e.g.*, “I *just* want to ask you if I can borrow...” (p. 177)
- c) Give deference, *e.g.*, “Excuse me, sir, but would you mind if I close the window?” (p. 183)
- d) Apologize, *e.g.*, “I’m sorry to bother you...” (p. 189)

d) Off-Record Strategy

Unlike *on-record* strategies, *off-record* strategy is employed in such a way that “it is not possible to attribute only one clear communicative intention to the act” (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 211). By keeping the intention equivocal, the speaker avoids being held responsible for committing an FTA if the hearer recognizes the communicative intent and takes it as an offense. This strategy corresponds to nonconventional indirectness in Blum-Kulka et al.’s (1989) classification of requests. The comprehension of *off-record* utterances involves the identification of *trigger*, which calls for some *inference*. One possible *trigger* for *inference* can be a violation of Gricean maxims (1975), for example;

- a) Violation of relevance maxim *e.g.*, “This soup’s a bit bland” (p. 215) may mean “pass the salt”.
- b) Violation of manner maxim *e.g.*, “John’s a pretty sharp/smooth cookie” (p. 225) may serve as a compliment or insult for John.

2.3.5.3 Social parameters in the selection of politeness strategy.

Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 74) argue that the choice of politeness strategies depends on the seriousness of an FTA which can be determined by assessing three sociological variables in any talk exchange, for example;

- (i) *Social distance (D)*, which refers to the degree of familiarity between interlocutors
- (ii) *Relative power (P)*, which refers to the relative degree of power S holds over H.
- (iii) *Absolute rank of Imposition (R)* of an utterance refers to the magnitude of the speaker’s desire in terms of the expenditure of goods or services by the hearer. R varies in different speech acts and is affected by various culturally specific factors.

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), speakers determine the seriousness or weightiness of a particular face-threatening act (FTA) by assessing the weightiness of P, D, and R and then choose the appropriate level of politeness while performing an FTA.

Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness has informed recent research by offering discerning explanation of societal mechanisms. One of the major characteristics of Brown & Levinson's model is that it can be used for cross-cultural and cross-linguistic comparison. It offers a distinction between positive and negative face which can be used as a parameter to measure politeness orientations of different cultures. Cultures differ "as to when, how and to what extent face becomes threatened and how it is best redressed" (Ogiermann, 2009, p. 20). Similarly, cultures also differ along dimensions of social variables such as power, distance, and rank of imposition which influence the choice of communicative styles. One of the major objectives of this study is to examine how these variables influence speech act data. Likewise, this study also explores if L2 learners of English show a negative politeness orientation in their requests as is shown in English language (Sifianou, 1992; Ogiermann, 2009; Farahat, 2009). Likewise, Brown and Levinson's theory is also important for the present study because the speech act data in this study is classified according to Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989) request categorisation which is based on Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory of politeness.

This section has presented the theoretical framework used in the present study. The speech act and politeness theories are reviewed in detail which are employed in the interpretation of speech act data. The next section, however, provides the empirical findings of ILP studies which provide the necessary background for the present study. First, general trends in ILP research with regard to speech acts, participants, methods, and findings are presented. Following

sections specifically focus on the speech act of request and report on previous findings concerning the development of L2 requests.

2.4 Interlanguage Pragmatics

The term ‘interlanguage’ was first introduced by Selinker (1969, 1972). He explained that interlanguage is a separate linguistic system that is produced by second language learners when they attempt to use a second language (L2). Selinker (1972) said that interlanguage is not “identical to the hypothesized corresponding set of utterances which would have been produced by a native speaker of a TL” (p. 214). In other words, learners’ interlanguage is influenced by their L1 in certain aspects. This view assumes that second language learners bring certain “baggage” of L1 socio-linguistic norms and transfer this to their L2. However, divergence from second language rules or norms varies from one learner to another depending on various factors such as proficiency, age, context, and idiosyncratic aspects.

Interlanguage pragmatics (ILP), on the other hand, is the study of second language learners’ pragmatic competence and development. Kasper and Dahl (1991) refer to ILP as “non-native speakers’ (NNSs’) comprehension and production of speech acts, and how their L2- related speech act knowledge is acquired” (p. 216). They further explain that ILP looks at child or adult non-native speakers’ L2. The non-native speakers’ L1 pragmatics, however, is outside the scope of ILP. Later definitions have also emphasized non-native speakers’ use, comprehension, and acquisition of L2 pragmatics. For example, Kasper (1992, p. 203) defines ILP as “the branch of second language research which studies how non-native speakers (NNS) understand and carry out linguistic action in a target language, and how they acquire L2 pragmatic knowledge”. Kasper and Schmidt (1996) further include a developmental aspect in their definition of

interlanguage pragmatics. According to Kasper & Schmidt, interlanguage pragmatics refers to “the development and use of strategies for linguistic action by non-native speakers” (p. 150).

The definition of ILP has broadened over time. ILP studies explore the *use*, *comprehension*, and *acquisition* of ILP features such as speech acts, linguistic actions, conversational management, and discourse organization. Other areas of investigation in ILP include native and non-native speakers’ comparisons concerning the use of linguistic forms to convey illocutionary meaning, strategies, and politeness. Even though these areas have received attention in ILP, the early ILP research showed a greater interest in the comparison of native and non-native speakers, which created an imbalance in ILP research. This section will shed light on some of these issues in ILP and how following research responded to these issues. Later, findings of ILP studies are presented which provide the background for the present study especially with regard to L1 transfer, effects of proficiency and L2 input or learning context on learners’ ILP development. Findings concerning L1 transfer highlight the frequency with which L1 transfer is found in learners’ interlanguage and factors that influence L1 transfer. Findings regarding effects of proficiency on L2 pragmatic development show how proficiency affects the L2 pragmatic development. Similarly, studies focusing on context show how L2 input affects the developmental process, because learning opportunities in different contexts may vary substantially. It is important to discuss these findings because the present study also looks at the influence of L1 transfer, proficiency, and L2 input on French EFL learners’ pragmatic development.

2.4.1 Issues in ILP research.

Most of early research in ILP assumed that the acquisition of L2 pragmatics is not as easy for learners as their L1 pragmatics (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989). Therefore, most of the early research

in ILP focused on native and non-native speakers' comparisons (Blum-Kulka, 1982, 1983; Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; Einsenstein & Bodman, 1986; Fraser & Nolen, 1981; House & Kasper, 1981; Olshtain & Cohen, 1983; Olshtain & Weinbach, 1987; Tannen, 1981; Trosborg, 1986; Walters, 1981; see Trosborg, 1995 for review). This research showed the extent to which non-native speakers differed from native speakers and focused on the *use* while paying little attention to the *acquisition* of L2 pragmatic knowledge, which several researchers consider a limitation (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999; Bardovi-Harlig, 2013; Kasper & Dahl, 1991; Kasper, 1992; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996; Kasper & Rose, 1999). Barron (2003) argues that the interest in *use* and *comparison* of native and non-native speakers derives from one of the parent disciplines of ILP: cross-cultural pragmatics. This focus weakened ILP's link with its other parent discipline: second language acquisition (SLA). Bardovi-Harlig (1999) formulated this problem thus: "not only was interlanguage pragmatics not fundamentally acquisitional, but it was, in fact, fundamentally not acquisitional" (p. 679).

Acquisitional aspects needed more attention in ILP because the focus on *use* only explained which pragmatic skills learners possessed and which skills remained to be learnt. We also need to account for *how* ILP knowledge could be acquired, what difficulties learners might face in this process, and how they could overcome their learning difficulties. Some early studies, though small-scale, did pay attention to acquisitional aspects of L2 pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993; Billmyer, 1990; Bouton, 1992; Ellis, 1992; Olshtain & Blum-Kulka, 1985; Robinson, 1992; Sawyer, 1992; Scarcella, 1979; Schmidt, 1983; Takahashi & Beebe, 1987; Trosborg, 1987). But findings of these studies were limited in scope due to different methodological problems.

2.4.2 Developmental focus in ILP research.

Following calls for acquisitional research (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999; Bardovi-Harlig, 2000; Kasper & Rose, 1999; 2002; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996), the number of studies focusing on acquisitional issues increased, which gained momentum in the beginning of 21st century (*e.g.*, Achiba, 2003; Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Barron, 2003; Félix-Brasdefer, 2003, 2004; Hassall, 1997; Hill, 1997; Rose, 2000, 2009; Salsbury & Bardovi-Harlig, 2000, 2001; Schauer, 2006a, 2006b; Taguchi, 2007; Trosborg, 1995; Waga, 2004). The role of these studies in bridging the gap between ILP and SLA has been significant. These studies explored the acquisition of a range of pragmatic functions (*e.g.*, speech acts, politeness) and factors which influence the acquisition of these functions (*e.g.*, proficiency, age, context, and idiosyncratic aspects). Among these, L1 transfer, proficiency, and learning context are particularly relevant for the present study. Thus, this section presents findings of ILP studies which focused on these areas.

2.4.2.1 L1 influence.

The study of transfer is the only area that consistently linked early ILP research with SLA (Kasper, 1992). Thomas (1993) defines pragmatic transfer as the transmission of strategies “from the mother tongue to the target language of utterances which are semantically or syntactically equivalent, but which because of different ‘interpretive bias’, tend to convey a different pragmatic force in the target language” (Thomas, 1993, p. 101). It has been an unchallenged assumption that L2 learners’ comprehension, production and learning is influenced by their L1 cultural and linguistic knowledge (Kasper, 1992). Therefore, when they communicate in L2, it is very likely that they make linguistic choices or employ inferential conventions that are only suitable for their L1, which can lead to breakdowns in communication (Thomas, 1983). For example, an inappropriate use of strategy or modifiers might make a request sound like a

command. Acceptance of a compliment might make one look haughty in a context in which rejection of compliments is the norm.

Unlike Thomas, who considered transfer as a negative trait of L2 learners' pragmatic development, Kasper (1992) advocated that transfer should be viewed as a *neutral* concept. She introduced the term 'positive transfer' as opposed to 'negative transfer'. Kasper argues that all kinds of transfer cannot be *bad*. The correspondence in L1 and L2 norms can facilitate learners' L2 pragmatic development because they can translate L1 norms to their L2.

Kasper (1992) reported several studies that found positive transfer in their research. Blum-Kulka (1982) is one such study that reported that Anglo-Canadian learners of Hebrew successfully transferred their L1 (English) forms for making conventionally indirect requests in their L2 (Hebrew) such as "can you", "why not", and "do you mind". House & Kasper (1987) and Faerch and Kasper (1989) also reported positive transfer in requests of Danish and German learners of English especially with regard to the use of past tense modal forms. However, various studies can be identified in ILP literature that provide evidence of negative pragmatic transfer as well. For example, Beebe et al. (1990) found negative L1 transfer in L2 refusals of Japanese learners of English. Takahashi and Beebe (1993) reported L1 transfer in L2 corrections of adult Japanese learners' of English, whereas Garcia (1989) reported L1 transfer in L2 requests and disagreements of Venezuelan learners of English.

Findings of some ILP studies suggest that the learning context may have a significant effect on the decrease of negative L1 transfer. Barron (2003) reported a decrease in transfer in his learners' requests at the end of the study abroad. Barron investigated the acquisition of requests, offers, and refusals by Irish learners of German using a discourse completion task (DCT) which is a written test. DCT consists of detailed scenario descriptions and blank lines for

learners' responses. Findings of the pre-departure test showed that, unlike native speakers of English, learners' use of downgraders (both syntactic and lexical) in requests and offers was very limited. They also transferred various mitigating strategies from their L1 (English) to their L2 (German), especially in requests. However, post-tests after ten months abroad revealed a decrease in L1 transfer which shows positive effects of stay-abroad on learners' ILP development. Although, learners continued using some downgraders in non-nativelike manner even in post-tests.

Similar findings were reported in Barron (2007) who examined the acquisition of upgraders in refusals by Irish learners of German. Findings showed that unlike native speakers of German, learners used upgraders extensively in refusal sequences and ritual reoffers prior to their stay abroad, exhibiting L1 transfer to their interlanguage. However, after a stay of ten months in target language community, learners used less ritual reoffers and began to use more upgraders in their initial refusals instead of refusal sequences which suggested targetlike trend in their L2 use.

Another question that has given rise to a considerable debate in ILP literature is about how proficiency affects pragmatic transfer from L1. Takahashi and Beebe (1987) hypothesized that the more advanced learners' linguistic skills, the greater the likelihood of transfer of L1 pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic conventions to their interlanguage. The logic behind this assumption is that an increased grammatical ability enhances learners' capacity to transfer both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic L1 norms to L2. Takahashi and Beebe's own study did not support this hypothesis (Kasper, 1992), but other studies found some supporting evidence in this regard. Maeshiba et al., (1996) found that advanced Japanese learners of English showed more pragmatic transfer in apology strategies than intermediate learners. While Olshtain and Cohen (1989) attributed their learners' failure to transfer L1 apology norms to a lack of L2 linguistic

proficiency, other studies also supported this position (Sabaté i Dalmau & Curell i Gotor, 2007; Warga & Schölmberger, 2007) and found that the higher proficiency group exhibited sociopragmatic transfer, whereas lower proficiency groups evidenced more pragmalinguistic transfer (Sabaté i Dalmau & Curell i Gotor, 2007).

A conflicting finding is reported in Hill (1997) who reported a decrease in L1 transfer to learners' interlanguage with an increase in proficiency. Hill (1997) used a DCT to investigate the acquisition of request strategies by Japanese learners of English at three proficiency levels. Comparisons with native speaker data showed that beginning learners used several non-nativelike strategies. Learners overused direct requests but they used very little nonconventionally indirect strategies. Proficient learners, on the other hand, used more indirect strategies and very few direct strategies showing targetlike features in their interlanguage. Hill's findings indicate that learners' increasing proficiency can help them in decreasing L1 transfer.

Not only did ILP studies focus on effects of proficiency on a decrease of L1 pragmatic transfer, but they also focused on the influence of proficiency on the acquisition of several other L2 pragmatic features. Findings of the studies that explored the link between proficiency and pragmatic development are presented below.

2.4.2.2 Proficiency.

The nature of the relationship between grammatical proficiency and pragmatic development has triggered a debate in ILP research (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999, 2000; Kasper, 2001a, 2001b; Kasper & Rose, 2002). According to one view, grammatical and pragmatic competence are independent of each other, which implies that pragmatics precedes grammar in the process of L2 acquisition. In this view, inaccurate grammar might influence the effectiveness of conversation but it may not necessarily cause a pragmalinguistic error (Olshtain & Blum-Kulka, 1985). The other view

claims that grammar precedes pragmatics and a weak command of grammar can constrain the acquisition of L2 pragmatics (Salsbury & Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Trosborg, 1995). Findings of studies which attempted to clarify this relationship are presented below.

Scarcella (1979) studied the use of politeness in requests and invitations by Arabic learners of English at two proficiency levels, using role-plays. Results showed more nativelike performances among more proficient learners, suggesting the expansion of their pragmatic repertoires as their grammatical proficiency increased. Similar findings were reported by Trosborg (1987) who examined the use of apology strategies by three levels of Danish learners of English and compared learners' use of strategies with native speakers of English and Danish. Again, this study reported a correlation between high proficiency and closer approximation to target norms. For example, compared to L1 Danish speakers, L1 English speakers used fewer modality markers like downtoners, hedges, and intensifiers. More proficient L2 learners of English showed nativelike lower production of modality markers than less advanced learners, providing clear evidence of pragmatic development.

More targetlike performance with increased grammatical proficiency was also reported by Koike (1996). Focusing on the interpretation of suggestions, Koike (1996) investigated the listening comprehension of English learners of Spanish. The audio-visual task in this study involved two main jobs, a) identifying the illocutionary force of utterances in video monologues and b) rating speakers' production in terms of personal characteristics. Analysis revealed that the lower proficiency students were less successful in both tasks than the advanced group, although results were "non-linear" (Barron & Warga, 2007, p.120) as the first-year students scored closer to third-year than the second-year students.

“Non-linear”² pragmatic development is also reported by Sabaté i Dalmau and Curell i Gotor (2007) who examined stages of L2 apology development, using a discourse completion task (DCT). This study supports the hypothesis that L2 learners’ proficiency affects their ILP development positively, but proficiency alone cannot guarantee targetlike performance. Participants in this study include native speakers of English, Catalan, and three groups of Catalan learners of English: intermediate, advanced, and proficient learners. Findings showed that pragmalinguistic devices used by the most proficient group were closer to the targetlike use, whereas lower proficiency groups were not as successful. However, learner data contained some non-targetlike features, even in the high proficiency group. Learners, especially at intermediate level, overused “excuse me” in their apologies compared to native speakers of English (L2).

Just as some studies have evidenced a positive influence of learners’ proficiency on their pragmatic development, findings of other studies have shown a restricted pragmatic development due to learners’ weak grammatical skills. For example, Salsbury & Bardovi-Harlig (2001) used naturalistic data to examine the pragmatic development of ESL learners concerning expressions of disagreements. Findings showed that learners’ expressions of disagreements were constrained by their little knowledge of modal expressions.

These studies suggest that increased grammatical proficiency has a positive effect on pragmatic development, but also show that learners may show progress in some pragmatic aspects but not in others, and advanced learners may still face difficulties in approximating nativelike pragmatic norms.

Schmidt (1983) provided counter-evidence in his study of an adult Japanese learner of English, Wes, who showed considerable pragmatic development before acquiring appropriate

² This term is used by Sabaté i Dalmau and Curell i Gotor (2007, p.307)

grammatical rules. Schmidt's findings showed that restricted grammar doesn't necessarily prevent learners' pragmatic competence from developing. Further support for Schmidt's findings is found in Koike's study which examined requests, apologies, and commands by adult English learners of Spanish, who were at a beginning level. Koike (1989) reported that learners' L2 pragmatic abilities were more advanced than their grammatical skills.

Keeping in view findings of studies which took different positions about the relationship between proficiency and grammar, Kasper & Rose (2002) argue that 'pragmatics precedes grammar' order seems to be a characteristic of early pragmatic development. In contrast, the reverse order seems to be true for advanced learners who possess a good command of L2 grammar but lack knowledge of contextually appropriate use of language.

However, proficiency is not the only factor to account for L2 pragmatic development. Learning context may also have a powerful effect in this regard (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999). Findings of studies which explored effects of different learning contexts on learners' ILP development are presented below.

2.4.2.3 L2 Input/learning context.

Learning contexts most commonly examined in ILP research are second language and foreign language settings. The term "second language" (SL) refers to learning a language in target language community. In contrast, the term "foreign language" (FL) refers to learning a language in learners' community, where the target language is not spoken as the native language. Other lines of studies also compared study-abroad learners' pragmatic development with foreign language learners.

It is generally assumed that studying abroad provides abundant opportunities for learning and practicing L2 pragmatics as compared to at-home study. In a second language setting, not

only can learners observe the encoding and decoding of meaning in L2 by native speakers, but they can also participate in unscripted and authentic discourse (Taguchi, 2011a). Foreign language learners, on the other hand, do not have such opportunities. Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei (1998) further reported the advantages of studying abroad by arguing that;

ESL [English as second language] learners, by virtue of living in the host environment, have an increased potential for interaction in the L2; the increased availability of input may give learners additional opportunities for noticing, and this in turn may contribute to greater opportunities for noticing, and this in turn may contribute to greater opportunities for acquisition (p.236).

Olshtain and Blum-Kulka (1985) was one of the earliest studies that found positive effects of study abroad on L2 learners' perception of pragmatic appropriateness in requests and apologies, with an increased acceptance of L2 (German) pragmatic norms such as directness and positive politeness.

The positive influence of long residence in an L2 setting was confirmed by Bouton (1992). Using a multiple-choice written test, Bouton (1992) examined the comprehension of different types of implicatures by thirty L2 learners of English from various backgrounds. Findings suggested that after a period of four and a half years of residence in the target setting, L2 learners' comprehension of relevance-based implicatures became nativelike. However, learners still showed evidence of struggle with some formulaic implicatures such as "Is the Pope Catholic?" In another study, Bouton (1994) analysed the comprehension of implicatures by another group of ESL learners after a seventeen month stay in the target language setting. Findings of this study did not reveal any significant evidence of development unlike his previous study, mainly due to the difference in length of residence in each study.

Some ILP studies have compared the L2 pragmatic development of second language (SL) learners with foreign language (FL) learners and found better pragmatic performance by SL learners than FL learners. Takahashi and Beebe (1987) is one of the earliest studies which

conducted such a comparison. This study focused on refusal production by Japanese learners of English in SL and FL contexts. The DCT data showed that ESL learners approximated nativelike norms more than their EFL counterparts. Further analysis of the study revealed an indication of transfer by both groups but it occurred more with EFL learners.

Takahashi and Beebe's findings were supported by Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei's (1998) study which reported categorical differences in EFL and ESL learners' performances. This seminal study focused on pragmatic infelicities in requests, suggestions, apologies, and refusals by Hungarian learners of English as second (EFL) and foreign language (ESL). Videotaped scenarios were used to examine learners' ability to judge the appropriateness of several utterances. In case learners judged utterances to be inappropriate they had to rate the severity of the offense. Findings showed that the ESL learners scored higher on the appropriateness scale than the EFL learners. On the imposition scale, ESL learners judged pragmatic errors as more severe than grammatical errors whereas EFL learners considered grammatical errors to constitute more severe problems. The teachers, on the other hand, both in EFL and ESL settings, identified more grammatical than pragmatic errors. Although ESL teachers rated pragmatic errors as more serious than grammatical errors. As we might expect, ESL learners showed a greater understanding of pragmatic errors because they had access to various naturalistic opportunities to learn L2 pragmatics. EFL learners, on the other hand, lacked these opportunities which might explain their lack of L2 pragmatic knowledge.

Replicating Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei's (1998) study, Schauer investigated German ESL and EFL learners' awareness about the appropriateness of various pragmatic functions such as requests, refusals, apologies, and suggestions. Schauer's (2006c) findings supported Bardovi-

Harlig and Dörnyei's (1998) findings. ESL learners in this study recognized more pragmatic errors than EFL learners even after a short stay in the target community.

Focusing on advice-giving expressions, Matsumura (2001) traced the metapragmatic awareness of two groups of Japanese learners of English: ESL learners who spent a year abroad in Canada and EFL learners in Japan. Learners were shown examples at 4 levels of directness and asked to judge appropriateness. ESL learners, even after a short stay abroad, demonstrated a nativelike trend in their responses, choosing strategies according to the status of the listener. EFL learners, on the other hand, did not show the same level of awareness about status roles in L2 and continued using formal strategies when addressing people with equal or lower status, unlike target language norms.

In a follow-up study, Matsumura (2007) examined after-effects of study-abroad by fifteen Japanese learners of English who spent a year in Canada. Using the same metapragmatic assessment test (Matsumura, 2001), data were collected three times over one year, which revealed learners' divergence from L2 norms they acquired during their stay abroad. When using English with Japanese professors, participants initially displayed target community norms of directness immediately following their return, but over time they reverted to L1 (Japanese) norms by hedging and opting out in advice to higher status interlocutors. The follow-up interviews revealed that learners' perception about student-teacher relationship was affected by their study abroad because they found their professors friendly. But they reverted to the formal student-teacher relationship as soon as they came back to Japan. They only displayed targetlike norms when they interacted with international students or their Canadian friends. These findings indicate that the prevalent norms in the context in which learners live are likely to affect their

pragmatic choices. This can be an explanation for foreign language learners' greater L1 transfer to their interlanguage.

Findings of these studies suggest that ESL learners generally show greater pragmatic development than their EFL counterparts because ESL learners receive more L2 input. However, learners in both settings, despite high proficiency, do not approximate target pragmatic norms completely. Thus, despite advances in ILP research, many questions regarding the process of pragmatic development remain open. Kasper & Schmidt (1996) recommended that the ILP research should focus on the process and the route of L2 pragmatic development, that is, how different pragmatic features unfold in learners' repertoires (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996). For these purposes, it is important that studies shift their focus to younger learners to address *changes* in learners' performance from the early stages of ILP development. Moreover, since EFL learners have relatively fewer opportunities to practice L2, it is interesting to see how these learners compensate for the lack of opportunities and the extent to which they are successful in approximating target language norms. The present study contributes in this literature by focusing on younger beginning learners in a foreign language setting to examine the extent of opportunities available to learn L2 requests. Requests are the focus of this study, hence, following sections explore the request strategies in learners' L1 (French), L2 (English), and their interlanguage, as reported in previous studies on requests.

2.5 Request: The Speech Act in Focus

This section introduces the speech act in focus – request – with a focus on the type of requests and strategies used to realize them. The connection between politeness and indirectness in English requests is also observed by examining findings of cross-cultural research on requests because the present study assumes a close connection between politeness and indirectness in

English requests. Later, specific findings of studies focusing on L1 English and L1 French requests concerning the use of certain request strategies and modifiers are presented to find similarities and differences in French and English requests and to highlight areas which might be challenging for French EFL learners in request realization.

Searle (1976) characterizes illocutionary acts in five categories: representatives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declaratives. Among these, directives are of special relevance here as requests falls into this category, which is the major focus of the present study. Searle (1976) defined directive acts as an attempt “by the speaker to get the hearer to do something” (Searle, 1976, p.11). Although he places other verbs such as order, beg, invite, advise into the same category, requests have received the most attention in ILP research and the term request has even begun to be used interchangeably with directives.

Several other theorists have also attempted to classify requests. Some consider requests as a subcategory of directives (Schmidt, 1983). Others equate requests with directives (Gordon & Ervin-Tripp, 1984), or consider directives as a subtype of requests (see Achiba, 2003, p. 5-6 for details). This study adopts Searle’s definition of requests as a speaker’s attempt to get the hearer to do something.

Márquez-Reiter (2000) identified four types of requests: requests for action, requests for information, requests for attention, and requests for sympathy. One common characteristic shared between these requests is that the speaker wants the hearer to do something for him/her. The difference, however, is observed in the degree of intensity depending on the context of utterances (Searle, 1976). Among these, requests of action seem more imposing and face-threatening as the hearer must render a favour to the speaker as a response to the request, which

may involve physical effort or exchange of goods. Therefore, requests of action have attracted the most attention in ILP literature.

As the risk of imposition is high in requests, speakers use several strategies and modifiers to make their requests less face-threatening. For example, speakers can use endearing terms (e.g., “buddy”, “my friend”), small talk, supportive moves (reasons & explanations), and downgraders (e.g., “a little”, “a bit”) to achieve their goals. Also, speakers use various degrees of directness to make requests more convincing.

Speech act theory proposes that requests can be categorised into two overarching categories: direct and indirect requests. Blum-Kulka (1987) explains that direct and indirect requests are the two opposite poles of explicitness. According to her, “the request patterns considered as the most direct or transparent are the ones in which requestive force is either marked syntactically, or indicated explicitly” (p. 134). In other words, direct requests are clearly identifiable from the utterance and they require very little inference to successfully interpret the meaning (e.g., “move your car” or “I’m asking you to move your car”). Indirect requests, on the other hand, require more intricate processing by the hearer to interpret the illocutionary force of the utterance. The characteristic of indirect requests is that “the speaker communicates to the hearer more than he actually says by way of relying on their mutually shared background information” (Searle, 1975, p. 60). Hence, the meaning in indirect requests is generally beyond the literal meaning of the utterance. For example, the use of a rhetorical question (“can you open the window?”) or an assertion (“it is too hot in here”) is a typical way of making an indirect request in English.

Another distinction between direct and indirect utterances concerns sentence versus speaker meaning (Grice, 1968; Holtgraves, 1997). When the propositional content (or sentence

meaning) of an utterance is consistent with the speaker's intent (or speaker meaning), we speak of direct meaning. Indirect meaning occurs when "communicative meaning (speaker meaning as well as other possible meanings) is not isomorphic with sentence meaning" (Holtgraves, 1997, p. 626). This view negates Searle's claim that only limited things can be done with utterances (Searle, 1976). The use of indirectness suggests that an infinite number of speaker meanings can be conveyed via a limited number of utterances. Perhaps for this reason, indirectness has become a focus of recent politeness research.

2.5.1 Indirectness and politeness.

Motives for indirectness in speech are manifold but it has been repeatedly suggested that "politeness is the chief motivation for indirectness" (Searle, 1975, p. 64). This claim is supported by many early scholars (Clark, 1979; Brown & Levinson, 1987; Lakoff, 1973, 1990; Leech, 1983). Leech (1983) and Brown & Levinson (1987) propose that there is a positive correlation between indirectness and politeness; thus, a greater degree of indirectness increases the level of politeness. Brown & Levinson (1987) cast the net so wide that the prime "*raison d'être*" (p. 142) for indirectness is to serve its politeness function. They argue that indirectness gives an "out" (p. 132) to the addressee, increases optionality, and functions as a hedge on the illocutionary force, and makes it polite.

Later research challenged this view by arguing that there can be many other reasons for employing indirectness in directives (Held, 1992; Locher, 2004). Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) in this regard comment that directness is related to politeness but "by no means coextensive with, politeness" (p. 278). Other scholars argue that indirectness or more precisely, "conventional indirectness" is a culturally relative concept (Grainger, 2011). Conventionalized expressions considered polite/appropriate in one speech community may not correspond to norms of another

linguistic community. For example, Christie (2007) shows that the use of the “can you” formula is considered polite in English and Spanish requests, but it may sound odd or redundant in Russian or Polish, if it is already evident that the hearer is capable of realizing the requestive act.

However, it is also true that indirectness is not the only way to show politeness. Politeness can also be demonstrated via direct utterances (Grainger & Mills, 2016). This view challenges the assumption that all directness is impolite. Pinto (2011) contends that cultures (*e.g.*, Polish or Russian) where direct strategies are preferred (Rathmayr, 1994) may consider English indirectness less polite (see also Ogiermann, 2009), since it is judged to increase the “interpretative demands on the hearer” (Blum-Kulka, 1987, p. 133). Evidence also suggests that direct strategies may be appropriate even in English, particularly in communication between close friends or family, because the use of indirectness in these contexts may create unnecessary distance and formality (Grainger & Mills, 2016).

Therefore, it appears that the relationship between (in)directness and (im)politeness is quite complex and it needs thorough understanding to avoid involuntary mistakes. Several cross-cultural studies have attempted to examine the relationship between indirectness and politeness. Findings of studies focusing on English requests which contribute to our understanding of the link between indirectness and politeness in English are discussed below. It is important to discuss these findings because English is the target language of L2 learners in the present study and this study assumes a close connection between indirectness and politeness in English requests based on findings of previous studies discussed below.

2.5.1.1 Requests in English.

Sifianou (1992) applied Brown and Levinson’s (1987) politeness framework to investigate cross-cultural differences concerning the use of politeness in British English and Greek. Sifianou’s

findings showed that Greek speakers prefer positive politeness (*e.g.*, expression of solidarity or friendliness) in requests in contexts where English speakers indicate more concern for hearer's negative face (*e.g.*, expression of indirectness, formality, mitigation of imposition). House and Kasper (1981) observed that English speakers rely on indirectness in requests, compared with more direct German Behaviour to indicate politeness. Further support comes from Wierzbicka (2003) who claims that English speakers use indirectness predominantly in directives compared to Polish speakers who prefer directness and informality in request behaviour.

The debate on different cultural preference with respect to politeness and indirectness has led to further research. Blum-Kulka (1987) compared American English and Hebrew speakers' *perceptions* of politeness and indirectness, also focusing on requests. In this study, both English and Hebrew speakers perceived direct requests as the least polite strategy and did not consider the most indirect requests (hints) as the politest strategies. In contrast, both groups considered conventional indirectness as the politest strategy. Based on these findings, Blum-Kulka (1987) argued that "a certain adherence to the pragmatic clarity of the message is an essential part of politeness" (p.131). It is best represented in the form of conventional indirectness as it keeps balance between pragmatic clarity and non-coerciveness. Reasons for the lack of popularity of hints are multiple. For instance, they do not offer pragmatic clarity (Blum-Kulka, 1987), contain a multiplicity of alternative meaning (Clark, 1979; Thomas, 1983; Weizman, 1993), and may even appear manipulative (Holtgraves, 1997; Lakoff, 1977; Pinker, 2007). Besides, hints involve a "treasure hunt" (Pinker, 2007, p. 443) making it difficult for hearers to interpret the meaning felicitously (Holtgraves, 1994). Therefore, in many languages including English, hints are not always considered the politest strategy.

In a more recent study, Yu (2011) compared English, Hebrew, and Korean requests and

found that there is a significant correlation between English indirectness and politeness. Direct strategies were considered the least polite whereas conventionally indirect strategies were considered the politest strategies. But nonconventional indirectness or hints were judged as less polite than conventional indirectness, which is contrary to Brown & Levinson's theory as they consider off-record politeness (*e.g.*, hints) politer than negative politeness (*e.g.*, conventional indirectness).

Findings of these studies suggest that the use and interpretation of different (in)directness strategies is culturally determined. However, there is substantial evidence in cross-cultural pragmatic research that indirectness is closely related to politeness (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989), at least in English. However, contrary to previous belief (Brown & Levinson, 1987), speakers of several languages including English consider conventionally indirect strategies politer than non-conventionally indirect strategies or hints. As the present study focuses on the acquisition of politeness strategies by French learners of English, it is also important to examine the preferred request strategies in French to see if there are any differences in English and French requests. Only a few studies have investigated the use of request strategies by native speakers of French; findings of these studies are presented below.

2.5.1.2 Requests in French.

As Bardovi-Harlig (2010) points out, most of the cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatic studies have focused on English language. Despite the scarcity of research on French as a native language, the studies which focused on this area have some potential to shed light on strategy preferences in French requests. Van-Mulken (1996) conducted a cross-cultural research comparing French request behaviour with Dutch speakers. Findings of discourse completion task (DCT) showed that the majority of French requests (62%) were conventionally indirect. A varied

use of direct strategies (19%) and hints (18%) was also found in French data. Dutch speakers, on the other hand, showed a preference for conventional (72%) and nonconventionally indirect strategies (20%) with a limited use of direct strategies (8%). The prevalence of conventionally indirect requests in L2 French is also found in Kerbrat-Orechhioni (2005) and Warga (2007) who examined the use of directness in requests of French speakers.

Unlike these studies, Lundell & Erman (2012) is one of the rare studies which investigated cross-cultural differences between English and French requests, with a focus on request strategies and request modifiers. Findings indicated that English NSs showed a preference for conventional indirectness whereas French NSs showed a tendency towards directness. Differences were also found in the use of request modification; English speakers used more supportive moves than French speakers. However, an increased use of lexical downgraders was observed in English requests but a preference for morpho-syntactic downgraders was found in French requests. Lundell and Erman (2012) concluded that differences in the request behaviour of both languages were statistically significant. As part of the CCSARP, Blum-Kulka (1989) also compared the use of request strategies and request modifiers in English (Australian) and French (Canadian) requests. She found that while English speakers used direct strategy in only 10% of requests, French speakers used this strategy in 24% of requests. Similarly, differences were also found in the frequency of nonconventional indirectness in both languages. With regard to the use of request modification, English speakers used twice as many downgraders as French speakers.

Warga (2007) argues that speakers of French are at the mid-point on a cross-cultural indirectness scale. In other words, French speakers are more direct than English speakers but they are less direct than other neighbouring languages like Polish or German. However, despite

some differences in frequency, conventional indirectness is overall the most preferred strategy both in English and French. Other differences in request modification are noted in the type and frequency of internal/external modifiers and supportive moves. As several dissimilarities are observed in English and French requests, it will be useful to examine whether French learners of English show native-like norms in their L2 requests. However, there is little previous work on the acquisition of French L2 learners of English. Hence, findings of ILP studies focusing on requests of L2 learners of English from diverse L1 backgrounds are presented in the following section to have a general understanding about what is already known with respect to request realization by L2 learners and what remains to be explored in this area. The present study builds its structure on findings of these studies and contributes to this literature by examining the request behaviour of French EFL learners, who have received little attention in ILP research.

2.6 Interlanguage pragmatic studies on requests

This section is dedicated to review ILP studies examining L2 requests: the speech act in focus in the present study. Table 2.1 displays 23 ILP studies which addressed developmental issues in L2 requests, in a chronological order. The table includes details about the native (L1) and the second language (L2) of learners in each study, the number of participants, the speech act(s) in focus, the design of the study, specific methods used for data collection, and variables tested (*e.g.*, proficiency, age, setting).

As shown in table 2.1, the target language in most of these studies is English whereas learners are from different language backgrounds (Japanese, Arabic, Hebrew, Danish, Spanish). A few other relevant studies are also presented in this table which investigated requests in other target languages (Hebrew, German, French). Studies on L2 requests used various designs (cross-sectional or longitudinal) to examine L2 pragmatic development; the number of participants in

Table 2.1 ILP studies on requests

Studies	L1/L2 (n)	Participants (n)	Focus	Data and design	Variables tested
Scarcella (1979)	Arabic/ English (SL)	Beginning (10), advanced (10), Native American English speakers (6)	Invitations, Requests	Role play; Cross-sectional	Effect of proficiency on L2 pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic development
Walters (1980)	Multiple/ English (SL)	Young beginning learners (aged from 6;9 years to 15;6 years), native English children (Total: 123)	Requests	Role plays using puppets; Cross-sectional	Effects of study abroad
Walters (1981)	Spanish/ English (SL)	32 beginning learners: Age: between 7;7 and 11;4 years	Requests	Role plays using puppets; Cross-sectional	Effects of age, sex, and race of the addressee on learners' situational variation
Schmidt (1983)	Japanese/ English (SL)	1 adult beginning participant (Wes)	Requests	Authentic discourse (3 years), Longitudinal	Learning without instruction following acculturation model
Blum-kulka & Olshtain (1986)	Hebrew/ English (SL)	Beginning (80), intermediate (80), advanced (80), native Hebrew (172)	Requests	DCT; Cross-sectional	Effects of proficiency and study abroad on L2 development
Faerch & Kasper (1989)	Danish/ English (FL) and German (FL)	NSs Danish:163, NSs German:200, NSs English:100, German learners: 200, English learners: 200	Requests	DCT; Cross-sectional	Cross-cultural native / non-native differences in the internal and external modification of requests
Takahashi & DuFon (1989)	Japanese/ English (SL)	Beginning, intermediate, advanced (3 at each level) NSs of Japanese and American English	Requests	Role plays, follow-up interviews; Cross-sectional	Effects of proficiency on directness
Ellis (1992)	Portuguese, Punjabi /English (SL)	1 Portuguese and 1 Punjabi learner of English (young learners)	Requests	Authentic classroom discourse, Longitudinal	Learning in an instructed setting

Trosborg (1995)	Danish/ English (FL)	Three levels of learners, age between 16-30 (number not given)	Requests, Complaints, Apologies	Role plays; Cross-sectional	Effects of proficiency on request modification
Takahashi (1996)	Japanese/ English (FL)	Low proficiency learners (65), High proficiency learners (77)	Requests	Rating scale ; Cross-sectional	Effects of proficiency on request strategies
Hill (1997)	Japanese/ English (FL)	Adult learners: Beginning (20), intermediate (20), advanced (20)	Requests	DCT, Cross-sectional	Effects of proficiency on request development
Rose (2000)	Cantonese/ English (FL)	Young beginning learners at three primary school levels (53), young native Cantonese speakers (45)	Requests, Apologies, Compliment responses	Cartoon oral production task (COPT), Cross-sectional	Effects of proficiency on request development
Achiba (2003)	Japanese/ English (SL)	Absolute beginner (7 years old), 17 months stay in Australia	Requests	Authentic recordings, diary entries; longitudinal	Effects of increased age and proficiency in ESL setting on L2 learning
Barron (2003)	Irish/ German (SL)	Irish advanced adult (age:18-21) learners of German (33), Native German, Native Irish speakers	Requests, Refusals, and Offers	DCT/ role play/ retrospective interviews (10 months, one academic year abroad); longitudinal	Impacts of residence in L2 setting on ILP development
Hassall (2003)	Australian English/ Bahasa Indonesian (FL)	Intermediate level university students (20), NSs of Indonesian (18)	Requests	Interactive role plays; Single moment	Native and non-native comparisons
Taguchi (2006)	Japanese/ English (FL)	59 college students at two proficiency levels: Beginning and advanced, native speaker data	Requests	Role plays, rating scale questionnaires; Cross-sectional	Effect of proficiency on appropriateness of L2 requests
Schauer (2007)	German/ English (Both SL and FL)	ESL group (9), EFL group (13), Native British speakers (15) (average age of	Requests	Multimedia elicitation task (tests conducted at three times during the year); longitudinal	Effects of learning context on learners' perception of sociological factors (status, imposition)

		participants at all levels: 24 years)			
Rose (2009)	Cantonese/ English (FL)	Three Age groups: Level 1 (age=13, n=13) Level 2: (Age=15, n=12), Level 3: (Age= 17 years, n=4)	Requests	Oral production task; Cross-sectional	Effects of proficiency on request development
Taguchi (2011b)	Japanese/ English (FL)	48 adult intermediate learners, 24 native speakers of English	Requests, Opinions	Speaking task administered 3 times over an academic year; longitudinal	Effects of immersion setting and individual difference on ILP development
Safont-Jordà (2011)	L1: Catalan L2: Spanish (FL) L3: English (FL)	1 beginning learner (Pau), age = 2.6-3.6 (2 years 6 months - 3 years 6 months)	Requests	Audio and video authentic data; longitudinal	Effects of multilingualism on learners' L2 and L3 pragmatic development
Safont-Jordà (2013)	L1: Catalan L2: Spanish (FL) L3: English (FL)	1 beginning learner (Pau), (age: 3.6-5.6 years)	Requests	Audio and video data; longitudinal	Effects of multilingualism on learners' L2 and L3 pragmatic development
Al-Gahtani & Roever (2013)	Saudi Arabic/ English (SL)	Beginning (10), Intermediate (8,) Advanced (8) (Adult participants)	Requests	Role plays; Cross-sectional	Effects of proficiency on managing extended conversation
Roever & Al-Gahtani (2015)	Saudi Arabic/ Australian English (SL) ³	26 Adult ESL learners (beginning to advanced levels)	Requests	Role plays; Cross-sectional	Impacts of proficiency and learning context on appropriateness of requests

³ SL refers to "Second language", FL refers to "foreign language"

these studies varied from one learner (longitudinal studies) to several groups of learners (cross-sectional studies) with different proficiency levels: beginning, intermediate, advanced. These studies examined the effect of a range of variables on the development of L2 requests including proficiency, age, sex, and length of residence in the target culture.

In the following, the introduction to methods used in ILP research is provided. These methods include discourse completion task, cartoon oral production task, role plays, and authentic data. Later, in section 2.6.2, major findings of ILP studies presented in table 2.1 are discussed in detail concerning stages of L2 pragmatic development and the extent of approximation to nativelike norms.

2.6.1 Methods in ILP research.

The choice of suitable methods to examine research questions has been a fundamental issue in ILP research because methods may vary on the scale of authenticity, reliability, comparability, and time consumption. Even though naturalistic methods are considered to be the most useful form of data (Kasper, 2000), ILP studies have also used elicitation methods because of their lower time consumption and larger data production. Since there are advantages and drawbacks to each, Bardovi-Harlig (1999b) suggested that instead of taking the best-method approach, researchers should customize “the research design to fit the question” (p. 238). In other words, the validity of research methods should be determined with respect to their potential to answer questions of the research (Kasper & Dahl, 1991; Rose, 2000). In the following, different methods used in ILP research are introduced (section 2.7.1.1). Later, findings several studies comparing different ILP methods are presented to examine merits and demerits of different methods (section 2.7.1.2).

2.6.1.1 Types of tasks.

As shown in table 2.1 above, most of the ILP studies on the development of L2 requests employed discourse completion tasks (Barron, 2003; Blum-kulka & Olshtain, 1986; Faerch & Kasper, 1989; Blum-Kulka, 1989; Hill, 1997; Bella, 2012) and role plays (Barron, 2003; Scarcella, 1979; Trosborg, 1995; Hassall, 2003; Félix-Brasdefer, 2007; Al-Gahtani & Roever, 2013; Roever & Al-Gahtani, 2015; Walters, 1980, 1981). Naturalistic data, on the other hand, is used only in a few studies, which opted for longitudinal design (Schmidt, 1983; Ellis, 1992; Achiba, 2003; Safont-Jordà, 2011, 2013; see section 2.7.2.1).

There are two types of discourse completion tasks (henceforth DCTs): written DCTs and oral DCTs. In both types of tasks, the description of the situation is provided to participants and they are asked to respond in writing, or record their responses in the given devices (tape recorders etc.). Here is an example of a DCT used in Barron (2003):

Situation:

You're studying German at university. You missed a class the day before yesterday, so you'd like to borrow some notes. YOU ASK A FRIEND FOR HIS/HERS.

You start.

DCTs are frequently used in ILP research because they offer several advantages including comparability of data, collection of large samples, and high level of control over social variables: distance, power, and rank of imposition.

An improved version of DCT is introduced by Rose (2000) in the form of cartoon oral production task (COPT). COPT is more relevant for the present study because Rose (2000) used COPT to examine speech act patterns of young beginning learners of English as a foreign language in Hong Kong. The difference between DCT and COPT is that not only does COPT

include cartoons with scenario descriptions but also scenarios are based on empirical data, rather on researcher's intuition. Data is collected in oral form in COPT.

An example of a COPT used in Rose (2000, p. 60) is presented below (Caption in Cantonese, translation added);



1. 小強向同學借用一支鉛筆。

(Translation: Xiaoqiang borrowed a pencil from his classmate)

Unlike oral production tasks which generally record one learner's production, role plays (or open role plays) generate simulations of conversations between two (or more) participants. Role plays "specify the initial situation as well as each actor's role and goal(s) on individual role cards, but the course and outcome of the interaction are in no way predetermined" (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p.87). The conversational exchange in role plays can last for many turns. Participants in audio or video role plays have to take on specified roles and interact with an interlocutor. An instance of an open role play is presented below;

You work part-time at a city library. You work every Saturday, but you would like to take next Saturday off because you would like to go camping with your friends. You go to your boss's office and ask her. (Taguchi, 2006, p. 518)

Authentic discourse, on the other hand, is collected using field notes or audio/video recordings. Naturally occurring speech is considered the richest source of data because it allows the examination of language in use (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013; Kasper & Dahl, 1991). However, only a few studies in ILP research have used authentic data to examine L2 learners' pragmatic development (Achiba, 2003; Ellis, 1992; Safont-Jordà, 2011; Safont-Jordà, 2013; Schmidt, 1983) due to its limitations concerning the difficulty to collect sufficient amount of comparable data in limited time (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 2005; Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1990) and the lack of control over several variables.

However, a promising substitute can be found in the form of an institutional setting (*e.g.*, academic setting), which not only allows comparability of data but also a control over several variables (power, distance, imposition), because the distribution of roles in institutional setting is generally even. While highlighting merits of institutional discourse, Rose (2000) adds that “compared to interpersonal conversation, institutional talk has the advantage of being more highly structured, routinized, and recurrent” (p. 318). Although, it might be difficult to gain access to the research site while investigating institutional setting, especially if video recordings are involved.

2.6.1.2 Comparison of tasks in ILP research.

A number of ILP studies have compared these methods and highlighted different characteristics of each methods. Table 2.2 below displays the list of these comparative studies in chronological order. Some of these studies compared written DCTs with oral DCTs, others compared written/oral DCTs with role plays and/or field notes to find methods which produced data similar to naturalistic talk. Participants in these studies include native speakers and/or learners of English as second or foreign language. Findings of these studies are presented below.

Table 2.2 Comparison of different methods in ILP research

Author (year)	Comparison	Focus	Context
Rintell & Mitchell, (1989)	Written DCT vs. Oral DCT	Requests, Apologies	NSs and NNSs of English (ESL)
Eisenstein & Bodman (1993)	DCTs, role plays, field notes	Expressions of gratitude	NSs and NNSs of English (ESL)
Gass & Houck (1996)	Written DCT vs. Role plays	Refusals	NSs and NNSs of English (ESL)
Sasaki (1998)	Written DCT vs. Role plays	Requests, refusals	Japanese learners of English (EFL)
Yuan (2001)	Written DCTs, oral DCTs, field notes, and natural conversations	Compliment and compliment responses	Native speakers of Southwestern Mandarin Spoken in Kunming, China
Safont-Jordá (2005)	Written DCT vs. Role play	Requests	Spanish learners of English (EFL)
Martínez-Flor (2006)	Emails vs. (oral) phone messages	Suggestions	Spanish learners of English (EFL)
Salazar (2008)	DCTs vs. Role plays	Request modification	Spanish learners of English (EFL)
Duan (2008)	DCTs vs. role-plays	invitations, suggestions, offers and requests	Chinese learners of English
Martínez-Flor (2013)	written DCTs vs. Roles plays	Refusals	L2 learners of Spanish (EFL)

As shown in table 2.2, comparison of written DCTs with oral DCTs revealed that written DCTs responses were shorter and more direct than oral DCTs (Rintell & Mitchell, 1989). Martínez-Flor (2006), however, reported contrastive findings with written data more elaborate and longer than oral data. The major difference, however, could be the learning context (Martínez-Flor, 2013). Oral data was richer and more appropriate in ESL studies in which participants were either native speakers or second language learners, whereas written data was more detailed in EFL context in which learners generally have fewer opportunities to practice spoken English (Martínez-Flor, 2013). The comparison of both written and oral DCTs with authentic talk and field notes revealed that DCTs lacked interaction, yet oral DCTs approximated more closely to natural speech than written DCTs (Yuan, 2001).

Several other scholars have also considered written DCTs as less promising (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013; Cohen & Shively, 2007; Martínez-Flor, 2013), mainly because DCT responses fail to represent features of face-to-face interaction (turn-taking mechanisms, hesitations, repetitions etc.). In contrast, if the focus of the study is to explore L2 learners' knowledge about the use of speech acts, carefully designed *oral* DCTs can be successfully used in ILP research (Kasper & Rose, 2002; Rose, 2009). According to Rose (2009), an oral DCT can measure "the changes in knowledge and attitudes across groups that might be indicative of development" (p. 2347).

Several studies have attempted to improve the effectiveness of oral DCTs to examine L2 learners' pragmatic knowledge. For example, Rose (2000) used cartoons with oral DCTs, Nickels (2006) and Schauer (2007) used pictures, and Bardovi-Harlig (2009) used computerized aural turns to increase the naturalness of oral DCTs (see also Bardovi-Harlig & Bastos, 2011). The modification in the design of COPT retains several advantages that DCT offers while reducing its demerits (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013). Among these, Rose's (2000) cartoon oral

production task (COPT) is more relevant because this method is especially designed to elicit responses from younger beginning learners. Another characteristic of COPT is that, unlike other methods, the scenarios in this method are based on real life situations.

A few studies have also compared role plays with other research methods to examine their effectiveness. Findings revealed that role play responses were longer than DCTs because role plays involved turn-taking, repetitions, and negotiation segments (Sasaki, 1998; Safont-Jordá, 2005; Salazar, 2008). However, learners produced more appropriate speech act strategies in written DCTs than role plays because participants had more time to think in DCTs (Martínez-Flor, 2013). However, the comparison of role plays, DCTs, and field notes revealed that role play responses were longer and more complex than DCTs but shorter and less complex than field notes (Eisenstein & Bodman, 1993). But there were many similarities in the use of words and expressions across methods.

Role play responses may not approximate natural conversation completely because they have a planning stage (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 2005). Counterevidence shows that the first few turns may be pre-planned but subsequent turns have the potential to display characteristics of natural discourse (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013). Thus, role plays can be an effective source of data collection to examine learners' ILP knowledge as well as the use of this knowledge to a certain extent.

The two studies which compared authentic data with DCTs and role plays (Eisenstein & Bodman, 1993; Yuan, 2001) found that authentic data was more interactive and complex than other methods. The major advantage of this method is that it is consequential and motivated by the speaker's interpersonal and transactional goals, rather than the researcher's (Kasper, 2000).

Overall, authentic discourse is the most favoured method in ILP research. Written DCTs, in contrast, are less favoured because they lack consequentiality and use written medium to represent oral communication. Improved versions of oral DCTs (*e.g.*, COPT), however, can be successfully used if the focus of the research is to examine L2 pragmatic knowledge and development, rather than language in use. Role plays, on the other hand, are considered to be the closest approximation of authentic discourse (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013; Cohen, 2004; Kasper, 2000). Role plays have the potential to “represent oral production, full operation of the turn-taking mechanism, impromptu planning decisions contingent on interlocutor input, and hence, negotiation of global and local goals, including *negotiation of meaning*” (Kasper & Dahl, 1991, p. 228). Moreover, variables “power”, “distance”, and “rank of imposition” can be controlled in role plays by specifying the context and roles of interlocutors. In the following section, findings of studies on L2 requests (see table 2.1 above) are presented in detail.

2.6.2 Main findings: ILP development in L2 requests.

In this section, major findings of ILP research on requests are presented in detail. This discussion mainly concerns stages of L2 pragmatic development and non-nativelike patterns in both adult and younger beginning learners’ L2 requests.

2.6.2.1 Stages of development.

Different learners may take different routes of pragmatic development (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996; Barron, 2003) and it is difficult to establish a fixed order of development. Some ILP studies have, however, found similar stages of development (Schmidt, 1983; Ellis, 1992; Achiba, 2003), which are summarised by Kasper and Rose (2002, p. 140) as follows:

1. *Pre-basic stage*: learners use highly context-dependent expressions with no syntax and relational goals.
2. *Formulaic stage*: learners rely on unanalysed formulas/routines and imperatives.
3. *Unpacking*: learners show a creative use of routines with a use of conventional indirectness.
4. *Pragmatic expansion*: learners expand their pragmalinguistic repertoire with an increase of mitigation and complex syntax.
5. *Fine tuning*: learners use fine-tuned or sophisticated request forms with social goals.

Schmidt (1983) is one of the earliest studies which reported similar stages of development in L2 requests by an adult Japanese learner, Wes, who was learning English as a second language in Honolulu, without formal instruction. Schmidt (1983) used field notes to record data over a period of three years. Findings showed that Wes relied on unanalysed routines in the beginning (“shall we sit down?” p. 152). He also used imperatives and hints to realize requests at the early stage (“maybe curtain?” Hint: “maybe you open the curtain.” p.152). By the end of the study, Wes’ directives indicated considerable development, with a limited use of conventionalized strategies (“*can I some more coffee?*” p. 155). At this stage, Wes relied on lexical cues such as “please” and “maybe” and made a creative use of routines and mitigation devices (“Ok, if you have time please send two handbag, but if you’re too busy, forget it”, p. 154). Schmidt argues that the increase in Wes’ request modifiers might have been triggered by his increased use of direct strategies in L2 requests.

Similar stages of L2 pragmatic development were reported by Ellis (1992) who examined the request development of two beginning learners of English, J & R, who were 10 and 11 years old, respectively. Unlike Wes in Schmidt’s study, J & R acquired English in a formal instructional setting, although with no explicit pragmatic instruction. The analysis of classroom discourse showed that both learners’ requests were propositionally incomplete and highly

context-dependent at the first stage of development (*e.g.*, using one word “sir” to ask the teacher to staple the card, p.11). At the second stage, J and R’s requests became propositionally complete, but they used imperatives and unanalysed chunks (“leave it,” or “give me”, p. 11). At the third stage, J & R used routine formulas more often and displayed a consciousness of social goals such as a shift in perspective. Compare for example;

Stage 2: “Miss I want (*i.e.*, stapler)” (p.17)

Stage 3: “Can *you* pass me my pencil?” (p.17)

Concerning the use of request strategies, J and R displayed an increase in the use of conventional indirectness with a concomitant decrease in directness at the third stage of their development. However, like Wes in Schmidt’s study, imperatives remained J & R’s preferred strategy, throughout the study.

Unlike these studies, Achiba (2003) focused on an absolute beginner, and found similar stages of ILP development previously reported by Schmidt (1983) and Ellis (1992), with the addition of two more stages (*pragmatic expansion* and *fine tuning*). The participant in the study was the daughter of the researcher, Yao, who was a 7-year old Japanese learner of English. Achiba traced Yao’s request development using audio and video recordings during their 17-month stay in Australia. Kasper and Rose (2002) identified four stages of development in Achiba’s study because Yao skipped *the pre-basic stage* and went straight to *formulaic stage*. During this stage (first 12 weeks in Australia), Yao frequently made use of imperatives such as “hang on” and “let’s play the game” (Achiba, 2003, p. 48-49). Unlike J & R in Ellis’ study, Yao also used a variety of request strategies like conventionally indirect requests (“can I use that?”, p. 50) and hints (“mum your one dollar”, p. 52) at the first stage. The second stage of Yao’s development (From 13th week to 31st week) was marked with a shift from formulaic use of language to a non-formulaic use of language. The linguistic forms which had emerged at the first

stage were used with greater fluency and frequency in the second stage. In the third phase of her development (from 32nd week through 61st week), Yao expanded her linguistic repertoire by using complex syntactic structures and mitigation strategies and a shift in modality (“could I have another chocolate because my children – I have five children.”, p. 60). At the fourth and final stage, Yao showed nativelike preference for conventionally indirect requests with sporadic hints.

Roever and Al-Gahtani (2015) and Al-Gahtani and Roever (2013) reported similar stages of L2 pragmatic development concerning the use of request strategies and modification in two cross-sectional studies while focusing on four levels of ESL learners: beginning, lower intermediate, high intermediate, and advanced. Beginning learners used imperatives and want statements exclusively, indicating *formulaic stage* (stage 2). In comparison, lower intermediate learners showed some progress by replacing imperatives with conventional indirectness (stage 3: *unpacking*). Upper-intermediate learners, on the other hand, demonstrated a *pragmatic expansion* (stage 4) with a broader repertoire of linguistic strategies and modals: “can,” “could,” and “bare if-clauses” (e.g., “if you have time to go to shopping?” Roever & Al-Gahtani, 2015, p.5). Advanced group showed the most prominent gains in the use of formulaic expressions (“I’m just wondering”), indicating the *fine tuning* stage. With regard to learners’ request modification, more robust progress was found at higher levels in Al-Gahtani and Roever (2013). Findings showed that the lower proficiency group used lesser request modifications, including both preceding (“Can I ask you a favour?”, p. 414) and following modifiers (“You are very nice one thank you ((name))” p. 415). In contrast, “mid-proficiency” and advanced groups almost always used preliminary moves before making the request.

Even though other learners may not show the exact same order of development as shown in Schmidt (1983), Ellis (1992), Achiba (2003) and Roever and Al-Gahtani (2015), it is likely that other learners may also go through similar stages of development. However, the above-described order of development only predicts learners' pragmalinguistic development. The order of sociopragmatic development is still unknown in ILP research.

It is also important to note that all learners may not reach the high stages of L2 pragmatic development such as *pragmatic expansion* and *fine tuning*, due to differential learning experiences and input opportunities. Findings of these studies also suggested that despite evident development, learners still showed linguistic problems. For example, learners in Schmidt (1983) and Ellis (1992) preferred direct strategy even at the end of the study. This finding has been recurrently reported in many other ILP studies which are presented in detail below.

2.6.2.2 Non-nativelike patterns in L2 requests.

As shown in table 2.1 above, a number of studies have examined L2 learners' ILP development. Findings of these studies suggested that the increase in proficiency or the length of residence in L2 setting increased learners' approximation to target language norms. (Hill, 1997; Hassall, 2003; Roever & Al-Gahtani, 2015; Rose, 2000, 2009). However, even advanced learners' requests indicated many non-nativelike patterns, including the underuse (Trosborg, 1995) or overuse of some linguistic features (Taguchi, 2006; Trosborg, 1995; Hassall, 2003). Findings of these studies are relevant to the present study because they highlight aspects of L2 pragmatics which pose difficulties to L2 learners. Some of these problems and their potential causes are also investigated in the present study.

Taghuchi (2006) is one such study which found that learners did not approximate nativelike linguistic norms completely even at higher proficiency levels. Focusing on an EFL

immersion setting, Taguchi analysed the appropriateness of requests by Japanese college students at two proficiency levels: beginning and upper intermediate. Using role plays and rating scales, the appropriateness of requests was measured in terms of familiarity with L2 social conventions and the use of nativelike request strategies. Role play data showed that compared to lower proficiency group, higher proficiency group used nativelike conventionally indirect strategy frequently, although with limited sociopragmatic awareness. Lower proficiency group, on the other hand, relied heavily on nonconventional indirectness such as “hints” in high imposition requests to higher in power addressees. Thus, higher proficiency learners’ requests were marked better on appropriateness scale than the lower proficiency level. However, the analysis of baseline data showed that native (English) speakers used mitigated conventionally indirect strategies (*e.g.*, “*I’m wondering if*” + *clause*”) in an embedded structure frequently. But this feature was nearly absent in all learners’ data.

These findings were corroborated in Taguchi (2011b) which focused on another EFL groups’ L2 request development. Data were collected using a speaking task administered three times over an academic year. Findings showed that learners showed a preference for conventionally indirect strategy in their requests overtime but they generally realized this strategy by means of “preparatory questions” such as “could you + verb”. However, they did not use nativelike complex embedded formula or bi-clausal structures with a mitigated preparatory (*e.g.*, “*I’m wondering if* + *clause*”). Taguchi (2011b) also investigated learners’ sociopragmatic development and found that learners produced low imposition requests (“asking a friend for a pen”) with greater ease and speed as compared to high imposition requests (“asking the teacher for an extension of a paper”), because they lacked higher pragmalinguistic skills—a threshold that they were not yet able to cross (Taguchi, 2011b).

A lack of approximation to nativelike norms was also found in request modification of ESL learners in Schauer (2007), except for two participants who used a full range of nativelike modifiers at the end of their stay abroad. Schauer collected data three times over one academic year using an electronically delivered DCT. The first evaluation revealed that all learners used *alerters* (“Professor”) and *grounders* (“I couldn’t find any article on my essay,” p. 204), but only half of them used *disarmers* (“I know it’s quite lengthy but...” p. 204) and *imposition minimizers* (“You get them back pretty fast, I promise,” p. 204). The second evaluation suggested an expansion of learners’ repertoire with the inclusion of other modifiers (*sweetener*, *appreciator*) but this development was not evident in all learners’ production. Similarly, in the last evaluation at the end of the year, two learners used the full range of nativelike modifiers including *small talk* (“good to meet you here”, p. 206) and *considerator* (“I hope you don’t mind”, p. 206), although the same level of development was not found in other learners’ data. Schauer (2007) explained that the differential development of various learners’ pragmatic competence might be affected by several individual factors such as motivation, experience with native speakers, and exposure to L2. Regarding learners’ sociopragmatic development, Schauer (2007) found that learners demonstrated some knowledge about the impact of status and imposition on the modification of requests, but in other instances, learners overused some modifiers compared to NSs, evidencing a tendency away from native speaker use.

Compared to non-nativelike patterns in request strategies and modifiers, Woodfield, H., and Economidou-Kogetsidis (2010) and Economidou-Kogetsidis (2012) found learners’ non-targetlike use of request perspectives which are rarely examined in ILP research. Woodfield, H., & Economidou-Kogetsidis (2010) compared mixed-proficiency ESL learners’ request performance with native speakers using written DCTs whereas Economidou-Kogetsidis (2012)

analysed EFL learners' request performance using role plays. Findings of both studies suggested visible differences in learners' perspective choices as compared to native speakers. Native speakers in both studies used speaker dominant perspective most frequently (72%, 74.7% respectively). They also showed a preference for impersonal perspective in Woodfield, H., & Economidou-Kogetsidis (2010). Learners, on the other hand, did not use impersonal and joint perspective at all. They showed nativelike tendency of using speaker dominant perspective (69%, 42.4% respectively) in their requests. However, despite progress, their use of speaker dominant perspective remained limited.

Hill (1997) also found some regressive patterns in L2 learners' requests in the form of overuse of some strategies. Participants in Hill's study included Japanese EFL learners at three proficiency levels: beginning, intermediate, and advanced. Analysis of DCT data showed that learners' use of direct strategies decreased and their use of conventionally indirect strategies increased with an increase of their proficiency, reaching almost NS levels. However, the examination of data at micro level showed regressive patterns. Learners overused some sub-strategies of conventional indirectness (willingness questions: "Will you..." or "Would you..."), which were not as commonly used by NSs. Native speakers, in contrast, used ability questions ("Can you..." or "Could you...") more frequently. Similar regressive patterns were found in request modification, with the excessive use of syntactic downgraders (interrogatives, conditionals) and the underuse of lexical or phrasal downgraders ("please", "a little", "just"), which were preferred by native English speakers. Concerning Hill's (1997) findings, Kasper and Rose (2002) pointed out that if the analysis is conducted only on a macro level and not on a micro level, results may be misleading.

A lack of correspondence between learners' macro and micro level use of strategies in L2 requests is also found in Hassall (2003). Hassall examined the request performance of intermediate level Australian learners of Bahasa Indonesia using an interactive role play. Learners showed nativelike preference for conventional indirectness in their requests at macro-level, but differences were observed at micro-level. Learners showed a preference for want statements in direct requests instead of nativelike imperatives and performatives, which might be caused by L1 transfer because imperatives were generally avoided in English (Wierzbicka, 1991). Learners also showed non-nativelike patterns by using hints more often than NSs and by using modals which were not preferred by native speakers.

The lack of approximation to nativelike norms was also found in Trosborg (1995) with respect to the use of some sub-strategies of directness, despite the increase in learners' proficiency. Trosborg examined ILP development of three levels of adult Danish learners of English focusing on requests, complaints, and apologies using role plays. Findings showed that there was a general preference for conventional indirectness across all levels like native speakers, which indicated ILP development. However, learners at level 1 and level 2 demonstrated an overuse of speaker-based conventional indirectness (statements of needs and desires *e.g.*, "I need some money please") indicating non-native like patterns. Problems were also observed in the use of hints and direct strategies particularly in level 2 and level 3 learners' requests, with an underuse of hints and an overuse of direct strategies (statements of obligation and imperatives) compared to English speakers.

Compared to Trosborg (1995) who found problems in learners' use of request strategies, Barron (2003) reported learner difficulties concerning the use of lexical and syntactic modifiers. Barron (2003) examined the ILP development of adult Irish learners of German who spent a year

in Germany and compared their data with L1 English and L2 German requests. DCT and role play data showed that learners' use of syntactic downgraders was less frequent than by native speakers of German and it did not increase over time. This pattern was not influenced by L1 English because native speakers used syntactic downgraders frequently. However, at the end of the study, learners' requests became more complex compared to native speakers' requests, mainly due to learners' increased use of "easy to use" syntactic and lexical modifiers (Barron, 2003, p. 235).

The overuse of request modifiers was also reported by Faerch & Kasper (1989) who investigated the request modification of Danish learners of German and English, using a discourse completion task. The German interlanguage data showed that learners used over-complex requests containing many syntactic downgraders, which could be a result of L1 (Danish) transfer, and which could lead to pragmatic failure because the use of "*interrogative + negation*" structure carried a reproachful meaning in L2 German. Learners of English, in contrast, overused supportive moves. With regard to lexical downgraders, both learner groups overused politeness markers such as "please" or "*bitte*".

The overuse of politeness markers was also reported by Scarcella (1979) who examined the ILP development of adult Arabic learners of American English at beginning and advanced levels. Scarcella (1979) argued that learners overused modifiers in direct requests to compensate for their inability to use appropriate indirect forms, thus following "the more the better" principle. Faerch & Kasper (1989) remark that this stage of learners' development is "well beyond the threshold level of communicative competence but still a long way before near-nativeness" (p. 245). Other than pragmalinguistic difficulties, Scarcella (1979) also found sociopragmatic problems in L2 learners' requests. Role play data revealed that learners at both

beginning and advanced levels indicated a lack of awareness about the impact of social factors (status, familiarity) on the realization of requests. The only situational variation observed was the advanced learners' use of declarative sentences for superiors such as "You can't bring your wife and your children to this party" (p. 284), which was contrary to native speakers' use of declarative sentences for familiars only.

Regressive patterns of development were also reported in Takahashi and DuFon (1989) who investigated the development of request strategies by Japanese ESL learners. Role plays and follow-up interviews revealed that learners' requests became more direct as their proficiency increased. Examination of L1 Japanese and L2 English data showed that the use of direct utterances was common in Japanese but speakers mitigated their direct requests with honorific auxiliary verbs in Japanese to indicate politeness. Since there are no honorific auxiliary verbs in English, learners' bare utterances seemed more direct and imposing.

Overall, these findings suggest that L2 learners showed only marginal ILP development. Problems were observed even in advanced learners' L2 requests, both on pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic levels. L1 transfer and the lack of opportunities to learn L2 pragmatics could be some of the major reasons for learners' limited ILP development. Another common feature of studies reviewed in this section is that they are focused on adult learners exclusively. It appears that learners' age might have a significant impact on their pragmatic development.

According to Kasper & Rose (2002), a focus on young beginning learners would benefit ILP research by contributing to our understanding of the correlation between proficiency and ILP development. Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor (2003) claim that "there is no reason to wait to introduce learners to the pragmatics of a second language. In fact, the imbalance between grammatical and pragmatic development may be ameliorated by early attention to pragmatics in

instruction” (p. 7). Thus, it is important that the focus of the research shifts to younger beginning learners which can benefit L2 pedagogy and expedite L2 pragmatic development. The few studies which examined young beginning learners’ L2 request development to-date are presented in the following section.

2.6.2.3 Young beginning learners.

This interest in young beginning learners’ L2 pragmatic development is entrenched in Bialystok’s (1990, 1993) claim that the acquisitional process of the second language may not be the same for young and adult learners. Bialystok argues that compared to young L2 learners, the discourse and linguistic skills of adult learners are already developed in their L1. These skills enable them to control, analyze, and integrate linguistic and contextual information from multiple resources (Lee, 2010) and transfer them to L2 if needed. Young learners, on the other hand, do not possess the same level of expertise in sociolinguistic aspects. Young learners rely heavily on a formulaic system (both in L1 & L2) because their rule-based system is less resourceful and their metalinguistic ability is still in burgeoning state (Mckay, 2006). Thus, the research on young learners can render findings that can contribute in understanding the process of L2 pragmatic development.

Walters (1980) is among the few studies which examined young learners’ (age: 6 to 15 years) L2 sociopragmatic development. Walters used role plays in which children had to make requests on behalf of one puppet to another. Findings showed that learners’ request forms were mostly ungrammatical but they were successful in attaining sociocultural goal: politeness (“Can you tell me where is the can opener, *please*?” p. 341). In some instances, requests were well-formed but learners failed to demonstrate politeness in nativelike manner (“May you write your name on the paper?” p. 342). Walters (1981) conducted another study to trace the sociopragmatic

development of another group of young beginning learners of English (ages 7;7 to 11;4 years). The situational variation in this study was measured with respect to the impact of social parameters including age, sex, setting, and race of the addressee on learners' requests. Role play findings showed that the sex of the addressee and the setting had a notable effect on learners' requests: they used more deferential requests while addressing female puppets but less deferential strategies while talking to male puppets. However, they did not show any variation according to the race or age of the addressee. Walters (1981) explained that the assessment of the social factors and the choice of an appropriate request strategy was a complex task, which was hard for young learners to tackle at the same time.

Rose (2000) also found marginal L2 sociopragmatic development in young L2 learners' requests. However, ample evidence of pragmalinguistic development has been found in this study. Participants in the study include Cantonese EFL learners at three proficiency levels (aged: 7,9,11 years). An innovative method, cartoon oral production task (COPT) was used to elicit requests, apologies, and compliment responses. Rose's findings showed that learners pragmalinguistic skills developed perceptibly with an increase in proficiency. The use of direct strategies and hints in requests was more frequent in the youngest group, but it decreased in older groups. Older learners used conventional indirectness more frequently. Greater development was found in the higher proficiency group with regard to the use of *alerters* and *supportive moves*. The analysis of L1 baseline data revealed that a great majority of learners, even at lower levels, preferred conventional indirectness (up to 92%) in Cantonese, and the use of supportive moves also occurred evenly in Cantonese across levels, which showed that learners could transfer their L1 knowledge to their L2 concerning request strategy and modification (*i.e.*, supportive moves). But their limited pragmalinguistic knowledge did not allow them to do so. Concerning learners'

sociopragmatic development, no significant variation in the distribution of request strategy or modifiers was found at all levels. Based on these findings, Rose (2000) argues that pragmalinguistic development may precede sociopragmatic development in beginning stages of ILP development.

In a follow-up study, Rose (2009) investigated the pragmatic development of three older groups of EFL learners (aged 13, 15, 17 years), using an improved version of cartoon oral production task. Findings showed that learners at all levels preferred conventional indirectness in requests (about 92%) unlike Rose (2000) in which the higher proficiency group used conventional indirectness more frequently than lower levels. Older groups' greater development was also found in Rose (2009) with respect to the use of a variety of modals ("can", "may" "could", "would", "would you mind") compared to lower level learners ("can", "may"). The examination of learners' sociopragmatic development revealed that learners indicated some level of sociopragmatic development by using higher frequency of alerters and supportive moves in high imposition and hearer-dominant requests.

Safont-Jordà (2011) also found the increased use of conventionally indirect strategies in an absolute beginner's requests. This study not only examined learners' pragmatic development in English (L3) but also examined its effect on learners' L1 Cantonese and on L2 Spanish. The study began when Pau was two years and six months old (2.6 years) and lasted for a year, showing that the introduction of the third language (English) considerably affected Pau's request strategies in other languages. Pau showed an overwhelming preference for negative politeness (*e.g.*, conventionally indirect requests) in English but this development negatively affected his acquisition of other languages as he started using negative politeness in L1 Catalan and L2 Spanish as well, because these languages are oriented towards positive politeness. In order to

explore if Pau would show similar patterns of development in the next two years (from 3.6 years to 5.6 years), Safont-Jordà (2013) conducted a follow-up study. Audio and video data showed that over time Pau began to use direct strategies in Spanish and Catalan like native speakers of these languages, losing the influence of L3 English. But he continued using conventionally indirect strategy in English requests with a parallel decrease in direct strategies, showing nativelike performance. Pau also showed some sociopragmatic awareness in English by using conventional indirectness in requests to his mom and by using direct strategies in requests to his toy. Safont-Jordà (2013) argue that Pau's pragmatic development in the second phase of the study may have been influenced by his change from the monolingual Spanish-speaking school to the bilingual Catalan-speaking school.

These findings show that learners indicated ample evidence of pragmalinguistic development even at a young age, but they showed little development concerning L2 sociopragmatic knowledge. These findings are revealing but more evidence is needed from a larger group of participants and multiple methods including naturalistic data. A research design with improved methods will not only produce richer and more reliable findings accounting for learners' L2 pragmatic development, but it will also reveal learners' difficulties concerning ILP development which would be beneficial for L2 pedagogy.

2.7 Research Questions

Findings of ILP studies on requests presented in this section indicate that learners showed clear pragmalinguistic gains, especially with respect to request strategy and modification. However, most of these studies also reported that learners did not reach native speaker levels of appropriateness. They showed a tendency towards nativelike use of conventional indirectness and some modifiers, but even advanced learners overused/underused some request strategies and

modifiers (*e.g.*, “please”). Similarly, mitigated request strategies and some modifiers that require more complex linguistic skills were frequently absent from L2 learners’ requests.

Concerning L2 learners’ sociopragmatic development, only a weak evidence of development is found in both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies. The comparison between ESL and EFL learners revealed that ESL learners showed relatively better sociopragmatic awareness than EFL learners. However, proficiency had a little effect on learners’ L2 sociopragmatic development.

ILP studies have also attempted to identify the order of L2 pragmatic development. Five stages of pragmalinguistic development have been identified (Kasper & Rose, 2002), which are subject to variation in different learners (section 2.7.1). But no specific order of sociopragmatic development has yet been identified.

However, most of the ILP studies have focused on adult learners with little attention to younger beginning learners’ ILP development. It is argued that the process of younger and older learners’ pragmatic development may be significantly different (Bialystok, 1990, 1993). Likewise, a focus on younger learners’ ILP development has a potential to contribute in our understanding of the correlation between proficiency and ILP development.

On methodological front, most of the ILP studies relied on elicited data alone. Some longitudinal studies, however, have used naturalistic data but the number of participants in these studies is very small, which restricts the generalisability of their findings. Likewise, none of these acquisitional studies, to the best of my knowledge, have investigated opportunities for L2 pragmatic development in L2 learners’ textbooks and classroom activities. The evaluation of opportunities in foreign language classrooms is important as it is a major, and in some instances the only, source of input for foreign language learners.

Keeping the issues in ILP research in view, the present study aims to contribute in this research by addressing some of these issues. This study takes a cross-sectional approach to examine the acquisition of politeness in requests by young learners of English in French secondary schools, by means of multiple methods including both elicited and naturalistic data. This study also evaluates classroom activities and textbooks to examine the extent of input opportunities available to learn L2 pragmatics in EFL classrooms in France. The research questions which the present study addresses include;

1. How well are French learners of English able to formulate requests?
2. Is there any evidence of development over time?
3. What kind of input do EFL learners receive in French secondary schools?
4. What opportunities do they have for production? Do they use these opportunities? Do they create others?

Keeping in view merits and demerits of different methods used in ILP research, a mixed methodology approach is taken in the present study to answer the research questions of the study. Procedures of different methods employed in the study are described in the following chapter in detail.

Chapter 3: Method

This chapter presents a detailed account of methods employed in the present study to answer the research questions which explore the use and development of L2 requests by L2 learners, input in foreign language classrooms, and opportunities for learning, producing, and practicing L2 requests. The chapter begins with the introduction to Rose's (2000, 2009) studies which are replicated in the present study, and goes on to introduce extensions of Rose's work. Section 3.2 presents the research design of the study and the type of methods used to collect primary and secondary data. In section 3.3, procedures of instrument development are presented in detail. In section 3.4, procedures of data collection are presented in the order in which data were collected.

3.1 Replication Study: Requests in EFL

The present study replicates and extends Rose's (2000, 2009) investigation of young beginning learners' L2 pragmatic development. As mentioned in Chapter II (see section 2.7.3), so far only a small number of studies have examined young learners' ILP development and Rose's (2000, 2009) work is an exception. Rose used a novel instrument, *cartoon oral production task* (COPT), to elicit requests (Rose, 2000, 2009), apologies, and compliments (Rose, 2000). This method was first used by Rose (2000) and its viability was confirmed in Rose (2009) which further refined it by using empirically validated scenarios. The COPT involved cartoon illustrations with brief captions to describe scenarios. Participants were instructed to imagine what the cartoon character would say in the given situations and then record their responses via tape recorders. Rose's (2000, 2009) findings provided ample evidence of pragmalinguistic development with a movement towards indirectness and increased frequency of request modifiers with level, but only a little evidence of sociopragmatic development was found.

However, Rose's (2000, 2009) studies had some limitations and the most prominent among them were that the number of participants in these studies was somewhat small and the data were collected via one method only. Likewise, Rose did not investigate the potential causes for learners' limited ILP development. Instead, Rose encouraged future research to explore the causes underlying the findings, especially concerning learners' sociopragmatic development. Rose also suggested triangulation of methods in future research to explore instrument effects on findings because some methods might inhibit the display of certain pragmatic features.

Thus, the present study replicates Rose (2000, 2009) by examining young EFL learners' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic development in a different setting: French secondary schools with a greater number of participants and a range of methods: the COPT, role plays, and naturalistic data. This study also extends Rose's work by examining the extent of opportunities available in classroom activities and textbooks for learning ILP knowledge. Thus, the first two research questions in the present study concern the replication of Rose (2009, 2000), whereas the following two research questions are an extension of Rose (2009, 2000).

The present study chose state schools in France as a research site because the compulsory education sector has received lesser attention using well-studied speech acts in ILP research. Moreover, L2 classrooms are a major (and in some cases the only) source for learning foreign languages, because opportunities for practicing foreign languages outside the classroom are generally very small. Therefore, this study pays special attention to input and production opportunities for learning L2 pragmatics in foreign language classrooms in French secondary schools. A number of secondary school teachers were contacted via snowball sampling to participate in the study. Teachers were provided with a detailed account of the study including the aim of the study, methods, and duration of data collection procedures. Teachers who

accepted the offer to participate in the study signed permission letters (see appendix 10) allowing access to their classes for a specific time frame. Permissions were also sought from principals of the schools, learners, and learners' parents via formal authorisation letters (see appendix 11 & 12) which included a brief description of the study and methods. Since methods included film recording of classroom activities, finding volunteers for the study was no mean feat.

3.2 Research Design

The present study adopts a cross-sectional design to examine the pragmatic development of EFL learners at three levels in French secondary schools: *sixième* (11-12 years), *troisième* (14-15 years), and *terminale* (17-18 years). In the French school system, *sixième* refers to the first year of lower secondary school, *troisième* refers to the fourth and last year of lower secondary school, and *terminale* refers to the last year of upper secondary school. These groups will henceforth be referred to as level 1 (*sixième*), level 2 (*troisième*), and level 3 (*terminale*). According to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFRL), EFL learners are expected to reach A2 level by the end of lower secondary school and B2 level at the end of upper secondary school.

Since learners' proficiency skills at a given level may vary, a cloze test is used as a proficiency measure to check whether learners possess synchronous linguistic skills at a particular level. Mean scores of learners' proficiency are also compared across levels to examine whether learners' overall grammatical proficiency increased with level. Moreover, demographic data is collected, which provided background information concerning learners' exposure to L2, native speakers, and access to other sources of learning L2: books, TV, the internet, and the length of residence in L2 communities.

Since the primary goal of the study was to investigate L2 learners' pragmatic development across levels, a triangulation of three methods was employed: 1) the COPT, 2) role plays, and 3) authentic data. Primary data provided both authentic and elicited examples of L2 requests to examine French EFL learners' ILP development. Naturalistic data (filming of classroom activities) also provided a glimpse of the available opportunities for learning interlanguage pragmatics in L2 classrooms. In order to have a deeper understanding regarding the opportunities for learning L2 pragmatics, three additional methods were used: 4) participant interviews, 5) textbook analysis, and 6) French COPT.

3.3 Instrument Development

Following Rose, instruments used to collect data were developed in several steps to ensure their validity and reliability. Procedures involved in the construction of these instruments are explained in detail below.

3.3.1 Proficiency test.

A cloze test was used to examine the proficiency level of second language learners (Atiken, 1977). A cloze procedure is developed by "deleting words from prose" (Oller, 1972, p. 151) and it is considered a "powerful and economical measure of English-language proficiency" (Stubbs & Tucker, 1974, p. 241). However, the word-deletion rate in cloze tests has been a matter of debate. Alderson (1979) argued that changes in deletion-rate sometimes resulted in significant differences between tests. Several authors have suggested different rates of word-deletion, for example, Atiken (1977) suggested deleting every 7th word, Stubbs and Tucker (1974) recommended the 5th word, Abraham and Chapelle (1992) suggested the 11th word, and Kobayashi (2002) every 13th word. Therefore, in the present study, two sets of passages were

chosen from secondary school textbooks (*6ème, 4ème, and terminale*) with different themes (test A: “sports”, test B: “space missions”), so that the selected topics and passages were not too difficult for them to understand. The original intention was to choose one of these passages to include in the final test, but due to the disagreement in literature about the word-deletion rate (Alderson, 1979; Kobayashi, 2002), two more versions of tests were formulated based on the two selected passages, with the deletion rate being every 5th and 8th word. Overall, four tests were piloted in eight different classes involving a total of 189 participants. Table 3.1 displays the number of learners who took part in each cloze test. None of these learners participated any further in data collection.

Table 3.1 Number of participants in pilot cloze tests

Level	Test A (n)	Test B (n)	Test C (n)	Test D (n)	Total (n)
1	21	19	19	19	78
2	17	17	15	16	65
3	12	12	12	10	46
Total	50	48	46	45	189

Any contextually appropriate set of words were accepted in the evaluation of tests. The percentage of learners’ scores in all tests ranged between 3.38 % to 4.62 % at level 1, 17.8% to 18.95 % at level 2, and 44% to 62% at level 3. Table 3.2 below displays the mean and standard deviation of learners’ scores in each test by level. Findings showed that learners at level 1 showed little variation across different tests. Level 2 learners, on the other hand, scored higher in Test A and Test C with 5th-word deletion rate whereas they scored lower in Test B and D with 8th-word deletion rate. In contrast, level 3 learners scored highest in Test A whereas they scored lowest in Test B with a little variation in test C and D.

Table 3.2 Comparison of different tests by mean and standard deviation per test by level

Level		Test A: 5 th word deleted (score:80)	Test B: 8 th word deleted (score: 50)	Test C: 5 th word deleted (score: 83)	Test D: 8 th word deleted (score: 52)
1	mean st d. ⁴	2.23 2.36	2.21 2.50	3.84 4.83	2.26 2.80
2	mean st d.	14.35 12.13	8.80 6.52	15.73 11.67	9.62 7.28
3	mean st d.	45.25 13.74	27.16 9.37	36.83 17.98	32.1 7.51

In order to compare the test results across levels, one-way ANOVA (Analysis of variance) test was used because this test allows the examining the significance of difference among three or more groups. Results showed that the p-value corresponding to the F-statistic of the one-way ANOVA was lower than 0.05 ($P=3.2196e-15^5$), suggesting that one or more treatments were significantly different ($p<0.05$). Therefore, the post-hoc Tukey HSD (honest significant difference) test was conducted to examine which of the pairs of treatments were significantly different from each other. Table 3.3 below displays p-values of different tests across different pairs in the post-hoc Tukey HSD test. Findings showed that all cloze tests showed a significant difference ($p<0.05$) between level 1 and level 2, level 1 and level 3, and level 2 and level 3.

Table 3.3 Comparison of p-values of various cloze test scores across different levels via post-hoc Tukey HSD test

P-values in Post-hoc Tukey HSD Test			
Test	Level 1 vs. Level 2	Level 1 vs. Level 3	Level 2 vs. Level 3
A	0.0010*	0.0010*	0.0010*
B	0.0070*	0.0010*	0.0010*
C	0.0140*	0.0010*	0.0010*
D	0.0010*	0.0010*	0.0010*

* $p<0.05$

⁴ standard deviation

⁵ scientific notation for 0.0000000000000032196

3.3.2 Background questionnaire.

Following Rose (2009), a demographic questionnaire (see appendix 2) was also used in this study to find the extent of learners' exposure to the foreign language (L2) outside classroom setting. Learners were asked questions about the number of years they had been learning English, languages they spoke at home, the frequency with which they read or used English multimedia or online resources and, if applicable, the length of residence in any English-speaking country.

The demographic questionnaire was conducted in each participant class. However, the number of participants in this questionnaire was somewhat low because this questionnaire was conducted at the end of filming sessions (between May and July 2015) when learners were free to skip classes to prepare for impending exams. Findings of the background questionnaire are presented below in detail.

Table 3.6 shows the division of participants by their place of birth. This information was collected to increase the homogeneity of data by eliminating data of participants who were not born in France and started school elsewhere. As shown in table 3.6, a great majority of learners at level 1 were born in France (n=95) with an exception of six learners. Since all except one learner started school in France, only one⁷ learner's data was eliminated. Likewise, at level 2, among 67 learners, only 5 learners were not born in France but they moved to France before the age of 5 and started primary school in France. Thus, all learners' data was retained at level 2. At level 3, 54 learners took part in this questionnaire and only five reported having born in a country other than France. Four among these learners started primary school in their country of birth, therefore, their data was removed to avoid any effect on results.

⁷ This learner came to France when she was 9-10 years old. Since the focus of the study was on *French* EFL learners and this learner had already started school elsewhere, her data was removed.

Table 3.6 Division of participants by place of birth

Level	Total participants (n)	Birth in France (n)		Learner data removed (n)
		Yes	No	
1	101	95	6	1
2	67	62	5	0
3	58	53	5	4
Total	226	210	16	5

Table 3.7 shows the number of years learners spent while learning English. Most of the learners at level 1 and level 2 spent four to six years in schools while learning English. In contrast, learners at level 3 spent seven to twelve years. Some learners at all levels started learning English in elementary schools whereas others started English in lower secondary schools.

Table 3.7 Number of years spent learning L2 English at each level

Years spent learning English									
Level	Less than 4 years	4 years	5 years	6 years	7 years	8 years	9 years	10 years	More than 10 years
1	12	31	31	25	1	0	0	0	0
2	0	27	15	8	6	5	4	2	0
3	0	0	0	0	15	13	8	6	12

Concerning the use of multimedia resources (English TV series / movies / videos etc.), table 3.8 below shows that the use of English multimedia resources was lowest at level 1 since 54% learners did not use such resources at all. The use of multimedia resources increased at level 2 with 30% watching English movies/videos for less than an hour, 21% for an hour, and 15% for more than an hour per day. Level 3 learners, on the other hand, showed a higher tendency to watch English movies/videos, with 17% watching English series or films for less than an hour, 26% for about an hour, and 26% for more than an hour per day.

Table 3.8 Frequency of the use of multimedia resources at each level under study

Frequency of watching English TV series / movies								
Level	Not at all	%	Less than an hour	%	one hour	%	Other	%
1	54	54%	17	17%	18	18%	11	11%
2	23	34%	20	30%	14	21%	10	15%
3	17	31%	9	17%	14	26%	14	26%

Table 3.9 displays the frequency with which learners at different levels used written English materials other than the course work. The use of recreational and other reading materials was low at level 1 and level 2. Some increase in this regard was found at level 3 with 22% using such materials frequently compared to 7% and 4% at level 1 and 2.

Table 3.9 Frequency of reading English materials other than course work

Frequency of reading English novels / books / newspapers etc.						
	Not at all	%	Sometimes	%	often	%
Level 1	59	59%	34	34%	7	7%
Level 2	34	51%	30	45%	3	4%
Level 3	11	20.4%	31	57.4%	12	22.2%

Table 3.10 displays the number of participants with Anglophone parent(s). Findings show that about 14% learners at level 1, 15% at level 2, and 15% learners reported having one or both English-speaking parent(s).

Table 3.10 Number of learners with English parent(s)

Level	Total participants (n)	Participants with at least one Anglophone parent (n)	%
1	100	14	14%
2	67	10	15%
3	54	8	15%

Table 3.11 displays the number of learners who used French and/or English at home. Learners also reported using other languages at home but those findings are not directly relevant to the study, therefore, those findings are not reported here. The overall findings show that

French is a preferred language at almost all participants' homes. A small proportion of learners also used English at home: 16% of total learners at level 1, 13% at level 2, and 15% at level 3.

Table 3.11 Number of learners using French and/or English at home

Level	French (n)	%	English (n)	%
1	97	97%	16	16%
2	67	100%	9	13%
3	53	98%	8	15%

As shown in table 3.12 below, further examination showed that English was more frequently used in only four learners' homes (two at level 1, two at level 2) than other languages spoken in their homes. All the other learners reported using French or other languages more frequently at home.

Table 3.12 Division of learners by the frequency of languages spoken in their homes

Language more frequently practiced at home										
Level	French (n)	%	English (n)	%	Italian (n)	%	Arabic (n)	%	Other (n)	%
1	80	80%	2	2%	1	1%	5	5%	12	12%
2	59	88%	2	3%	2	3%	1	1%	3	5%
3	52	96%	0	0%	1	2%	0	0%	1	2%

As shown in table 3.13, most of the learners at all levels practiced English at school with teachers. Thus, classroom appears to be a major source for learning and practicing English for learners in the study. Some learners also practiced English at home with family and friends, although the intensity/frequency of their practice might vary from learner to learner. None of the

Table 3.13 Frequency of opportunities for practice English in different settings by level

English practicing opportunities								
Level	At school (n)	%	At home (n)	%	With friends (n)	%	Other (n)	%
1	93	93%	29	29%	18	18%	7	7%
2	63	94%	10	15%	4	6%	9	13%
3	48	89%	12	22%	22	41%	19	35%

learners reported taking help from an English-speaking domestic helper.

Concerning learners' travel and residence in an L2 setting, table 3.14 shows that the percentage of learners who had travelled to an English-speaking country was lowest at level 1. The frequency of visits to L2 community increased with level. The length of stay in an English speaking-country at level 1 ranged between one to two weeks, with one exception⁸. In contrast, level 2 and level 3 learners' length of stay in an L2 setting ranged between one to four weeks.

Table 3.14 Frequency of travel to L2 setting by level

Level	Travel to an English-speaking country				Length of stay in L2 setting
	No	%	Yes	%	
1	72	72%	28	28%	1 to 2 weeks
2	31	46%	36	54%	1 to 4 weeks
3	16	30%	38	70%	1 to 4 weeks

3.3.3 Cartoon oral production task (COPT).

Following Rose (2009), the COPT in the present study was developed in three stages;

- a) collection of real-life examples of requests via an *exemplar generation task*,
- b) examination of likelihood of occurrence of selected scenarios via a *metapragmatic assessment*,
- c) selection of scenarios for the COPT and drawing of cartoons.

Procedures of each of these steps are explained below.

3.3.3.1 Exemplar generation.

The exemplar generation task was used to collect real-life examples of requests in a variety of contexts by learners at the three levels under study. This task (see appendix 3) was written in French and administered in French by native French speakers (class teachers). Participants were given approximately 20 minutes to brainstorm and report examples of requests. As shown in table

⁸ One learner at level 1 spent three months in an English-speaking country

3.15, a total of 82 participants from seven different classes volunteered to take part in this task and produced 532 examples of requests. The number of participants across levels could not be controlled because the participation was on a voluntary basis. None of these learners participated any further in data collection.

Table 3.15 The number of participants and responses in exemplar generation task

	Level 1 (n)	Level 2 (n)	Level 3 (n)	Total (n)
Number of participants	42	22	18	82
Number of responses	276	137	119	532

As sample requests in exemplar generation task were produced in French, two bilingual speakers assisted in translating French data into English. Analysis showed that out of 532 requests, 248 referred to school context whereas the remainder were from domestic or other settings. Since the focus was on the school setting, the 248 school scenarios were retained. Further analysis was done to eliminate repetitive, ambivalent, and homogeneous requests yielding 85 unique requests. Examples include;

- I asked my friend to drive me home.
- Can you open the blinds please?
- Can I go to the bin?

Before the selection of scenarios for COPT, following Rose (2009), a metapragmatic assessment of the 85 unique requests was done to determine the likelihood of occurrence of requests, to find requests which could be applicable to all levels under study, and to control the level of imposition in COPT. Procedures involved in the metapragmatic assessment of the selected requests are described below.

3.3.3.2 *Metapragmatic assessment.*

Metapragmatic assessment was conducted to examine the imposition and the likelihood of occurrence of the 85 unique requests selected for further analysis. The imposition of requests was tested because the degree of imposition could vary from one context to another and could significantly affect the request strategies. Likewise, the likelihood of occurrence was also examined to find the scenarios that were more likely to occur in school setting and to eliminate the infrequent suggestions. Following Rose (2009), it was decided that only those requests which passed the criterion of 70% of likelihood, would be considered eligible for COPT.

To constrain the study, only two variables, “status” and “imposition” were included. Scenarios in this test were either addressed to the teacher or the classmate. It was assumed that the teacher was more powerful in classroom than learners, whereas all learners were on equal level in terms of power, with relatively low social distance between them.

The metapragmatic assessment was done by dividing the 85 unique requests into two tests (see appendix 4 & 5) to moderate the length of the test as recommended by Kasper and Dahl (1991). Test A included only requests addressed to the teacher while Test B included requests to the classmate.

Requests were rephrased in a congruous manner in which a learner, “Alex”, made requests to the teacher or to the classmate. These requests were then translated into French by a bilingual speaker because the test was aimed to be written and administered in French. The rating scales in the metapragmatic assessment tests were dichotomous: participants could respond as “yes” or “no” on the likelihood scale and as “big” or “small” on the imposition scale.

Seven teachers and 144 learners volunteered to participate in this test (*sixième* = 43, *troisième* = 51, *terminale* = 50), half of whom took test A and the others took test B. Thirty minutes

were allocated for this test and instructions were given in French by the teacher. Learners had to judge whether Alex's requests were likely to happen in their school setting and they also had to assess the degree of imposition of the given requests. Participants could opt out if they did not know the response for a specific item.

According to the results, 69 requests were marked by more than 70% participants as being likely to occur in classroom setting whereas 16 requests (11 from test A and 5 from test B) did not reach the 70% criterion. However, out of the 69 requests, only 12 requests were marked as "high imposition" requests, 8 high imposition requests were addressed to the teacher and the other 4 were addressed to a classmate.

3.3.3.3 Selection of scenarios for COPT

Since the aim of the COPT was to examine the pragmatic competence of L2 learners in a variety of contexts, while not overtaxing them with a lengthy questionnaire (Kasper & Dahl, 1991), it was decided to include 10 requests in each of two versions of the COPT balancing addressees and level of imposition, with an addition of two distractors (see appendices 6 & 7). The choice of the request scenarios was made systematically by keeping several factors into view such as the variety of contexts, the imposition, and the comparability of requests across different addressees. For each COPT, 5 requests were addressed to a teacher and the other 5 were addressed to a classmate. Among the overall requests addressed to teachers and classmates, about half requests were big (high imposition) and the other half were small. Table 3.16 displays the 20 request scenarios selected for the final COPT questionnaire, with details about the percentage of likelihood of occurrence of requests and the imposition of requests (big requests are highlighted in bold) as marked by learners. Some percentages in the imposition columns do not add up to 100% because a few learners opted out.

Table 3.16 Request scenarios on final COPT

#	Addressee	Description	Likelihood of occurrence: %	Imposition	
				High: %	Low: %
1	Teacher	Translate a French word into English	100%	57%	43%
2	Teacher	Delay the test	83%	61%	35%
3	Teacher	Repeat the sentence	96%	42%	57%
4	Teacher	Go to the toilet	94%	15%	85%
5	Teacher	Throw the paper in the dustbin	97%	7%	90%
6	Teacher	Go to the infirmary/ nurse's office	100%	65%	34%
7	Teacher	Open the window	93%	15%	81%
8	Teacher	Replay the video	86%	65%	34%
9	Teacher	Move to the left	90%	29%	65%
10	Teacher	Explain a lesson	97%	76%	21%
11	Classmate	Borrow a sheet of paper	100%	4%	96%
12	Classmate	Be quiet	72%	53%	41%
13	Classmate	Inform the school about an absence	86%	49%	47%
14	Classmate	Cheating during class test	72%	55%	42%
15	Classmate	Move (your) the head	93%	29%	65%
16	Classmate	Lend a Kleenex	96%	17%	82%
17	Classmate	Borrow yesterday's notes	86%	44%	50%
18	Classmate	Borrow money	74%	54%	42%
19	Classmate	Explain an exercise	97%	32%	67%
20	Classmate	Accompany X to the infirmary/ nurse's office	93%	32%	67%

3.3.4 Role plays.

The present study used role plays to complement COPT data and examine any aspects of L2 requests that might not be visible in COPT data including the negotiation of requests, the repetition, or level of insistence of requests. Eight role play scenarios were selected from the COPT and divided into two groups (Group A, Group B) containing 4 requests in each group with the addition of a distractor (see appendix 8 & 9).

Role play Group A scenarios were taken from COPT B and role play Group B scenarios were taken from COPT A so that learners would have a variety of scenarios to respond to in role plays. Table 3.17 below displays the request scenarios selected for role plays. In each group, two request scenarios were addressed to the teacher and the other two were addressed to a classmate with different imposition values, so that the sociopragmatic aspects of learners' L2 could also be examined.

Table 3.17 Request scenarios on role play questionnaire

	Teacher	Classmate
Role play Group A	Asking to repeat the phrase (Small) ⁹	Asking a to accompany to nurse's office (Small)
	Asking to replay the video (Big)	Asking to give notes from yesterday (Small)
Role play Group B	Asking to explain the lesson (Small)	Asking to explain the exercise (Small)
	Asking to delay the test (Big)	Asking to borrow some money (Big)

3.3.5 Classroom film protocol.

The aim of using classroom films was two-fold: a) to collect naturally occurring examples of requests to complement the COPT and role play data and b) to examine opportunities of learning

⁹ "Small" refers to small imposition of requests and "big" refers to big imposition

L2 pragmatics in L2 classrooms in France. They were requested to present their three best speaking activities so that participants could have maximum opportunity to participate in class. Although the teachers were aware of the focus of the research on L2 pragmatics in general, they were not informed about the precise focus of the study—politeness in L2 requests.

3.3.6 Teacher interviews.

Semi-structured audio-taped interviews of teachers who agreed to participate in classroom filming were also planned (once filming data was collected) to get an emic view of reasons they chose certain activities for filming and difficulties they faced in this regard. A number of questions were included in the interview questionnaires regarding the institutions where they received teacher training, their teaching experience in the country and abroad, their age, teaching techniques, and methods they employ for choosing teaching materials to teach English to L2 learners (see appendices 13 &14).

3.3.7 Textbooks.

The present study also analysed textbooks used in classes under study in order to find opportunities for learning L2 pragmatics in textbooks. Information about the choice and frequency of the use of textbooks was sought in teacher interviews. Additional information was collected via an online survey in which 17 teachers participated. Based on interviews and textbook surveys, the textbooks which were frequently used in *6ème* (level 1), *3ème* (level 2), and *terminale* were selected for a pragmatic analysis. Table 3.18 below shows the names of textbooks selected for the quantitative analysis.

Table 3.18 Textbooks selected for analysis in this study

	Name of the textbook	Date	Author	Publisher
Level 1	1. New Enjoy English 6e	2011	Odile Martin-Cocher et al.	Les Édition Didier
	2. New Step in 6e	2006	Marie-Aude Ligozat et al.	Hatier Paris
	3. Making friends 6e	2013	Jean-Louis Habert et al.	Édition Belin
	4. Welcome 6e	2011	Evelyne Ledru-Germain et al.	Hatier Paris
	5. Connect Anglais 6e	2011	Wendy Benoit et al.	Hachette Livre
Level 2	1. Enjoy English 3e	2009	Odile Martin-Cocher et al.	Les Édition Didier
	2. Step in 3e	2003	Marie-Aude Ligozat et al.	Hatier Paris
	3. Join the team Anglais 3e	2009	Christian Geringon et al.	Édition Nathan
	4. Welcome 3e	2014	Evelyne Ledru-Germain et al.	Hatier Paris
	5. Connect Anglais 3e	2009	Wendy Benoit et al.	Hachette Livre
Level 3	1. Meeting point TLE	2012	Dominique Santoni et al.	Hatier Paris
	2. New Missions TLE	2016	SérAPHINE Lansonneur et al.	Bordas
	3. Full impact Anglais TLE	2012	Brigitte Lallement et al.	Hachette Livre
	4. Project TLE	2009	Anaïs Jolly et al.	Les Édition Didier
	5. Password English TLE	2012	Pascale Fontaine et al.	Les Édition Didier

3.3.8 French COPT.

French COPT was conducted to examine effects of L1 (French) transfer to learners' L2 (English) requests. The French COPT was identical to English COPT except that the French COPT was written in French (see appendices 6 & 7) and it was aimed to collect learners' responses in French.

So far, the process of construction and/or protocols of each instrument have been explained. In the following section, procedures of data collection using all the above-mentioned instruments are described in detail.

3.4 Data Collection

Data for the present study were collected between February 2015 and June 2015. Class films were made at intervals of 1 week to 1 month (3 sessions), role plays and COPT were conducted on the same day or within a week (role plays were not permitted by the teacher in one class at level 1), interviews were conducted two to six weeks later than last classroom filming. Each class was filmed for three hours (except one class with two hours filming) containing several classroom activities. The total number of classes which took part in the study was 13, of which 5 were at level 1, 3 at level 2, and 5 at level 3. Initially, it was planned to collect data from three classes at each level. But more volunteers were found via snowball sampling at level 1 and level 3 and more data were collected.

Data collection began with classroom filming and later the COPT, role plays, and teacher interviews were conducted. Procedures of data collection and details of resultant data are presented below.

3.4.1 Primary data.

As noted earlier, primary data in the present study consists of classroom filming, the COPT and role plays. Since the participation in the present study was voluntary, participants in classroom filming were asked to further participate in the COPT. Later, more volunteers were sought from the group of learners who took part in the COPT to participate in role plays to allow the triangulation of data. The background information about participants in the study was also collected using a proficiency and a background questionnaire.

3.4.1.1 Classroom filming.

The objective with class filming was to record naturally-occurring examples of requests and to investigate the opportunities for learning L2 pragmatics. Teachers reported that speaking activities were generally planned once a week, hence, schedules were drawn accordingly.

On the day of filming, the researcher arrived at the site with two cameras and an audio-recording device. In the beginning of the first filming session, the teacher introduced the researcher to pupils who asked some basic introductory questions about the project and the researcher herself, which was considered (by the teachers) as an opportunity for learners to practice their English. Later, seating arrangements were made for the pupils who did not want to be filmed. Cameras were installed at two different angles but only those pupils who were willing to participate were filmed. Other pupils, however, were not excluded from class, they were encouraged to participate equally. The researcher usually sat in the back of the class after fixing the cameras in different locations in classrooms, observed the activity, and took notes and handouts (if provided).

Table 3.19 below shows the number of classes filmed, the number of participants in filming, the number of hours filmed, and the number of authentic requests found at each level.

Table 3.19 classroom observations

	Classes (n)	Learners (n)	Hours of observation (n)	English requests found (n)	Requests per hour (n)
Level 1	5	131	14	66	4
Level 2	3	73	9	20	2
Level 3	5	104	16	40	2.5
Total	13	308	39	126	

Learners at all levels produced a total of 126 authentic requests and more than half occurred at level 1, perhaps because level 1 learners were repeatedly reminded by teachers to speak English in class.

3.4.1.2 COPT procedures.

At the end of the third filming session, volunteers were sought for the COPT scheduled during regular class time. Learners were informed that the purpose of the COPT was to examine their L2 speaking skills and the task was not graded. Each class was divided into two equal groups (group A & B) and seated in two adjacent rooms, one group completed the COPT first while the other took the cloze test, then switched tasks.

Because COPT involved the use of iPods, two bilingual French and English speakers (a class teacher and a master's student at UNS¹⁰) assisted the researcher in data collection. At the start of the activity, the COPT questionnaires, iPods, and a user guide for iPods was distributed and the research assistants gave instructions (both for COPT and iPod use) in French, which took about 10 minutes. Participants had 18-20 minutes to respond to 12 scenarios in each COPT. They could opt out if they did not know the response to a scenario by simply indicating the item number in the recording and saying, "I don't know" or "*je ne sais pas*". Initially, it was intended that the research assistant would explain each scenario one by one and data would be collected in lock-step like in Rose (2000). But this could not be achieved in the present study because some level 1 learners took slightly longer to start the activity, either because they did not understand the use of iPods, were hesitant/shy to speak in English, or were distracted by the novelty of the task. Thus, pupils who understood the task and wanted to start the activity immediately were permitted to do so. Compared to level 1, data collection was easier at levels 2 and 3 because these participants were already familiar with the use of iPods. Overall, this procedure did not pose many problems as the majority of participants were able to complete the task with little or no difficulty.

¹⁰ University of Nice Sophia-Antipolis

As shown in table 3.20 below, a total of 243 learners took part in COPT, and produced a total of 1712 requests. Despite a high rate of opting out at level 1, after the elimination of ambiguous requests and the ones which were not attempted, the total number of well-formed requests produced at each level were comparable: 584 requests at level 1, 531 requests at level 2, and 597 at level 3.

Table 3.20 Participants in COPT and Cloze tests

Level	Classes (n)	Participants (n)	Well- formed (n)	%	Ambiguous (n)	%	Unattempted (n)	%	Total prompts (n)	%
1	5	106	584	55%	49	5%	427	40%	1060	100%
2	3	69	531	77%	15	2%	144	21%	690	100%
3	5	67	597	95%	10	1.4%	23	3.6%	630	100%
Total	13	243	1712	72%	74	3%	594	25%	2380	100%

3.4.1.3 Role play procedures.

Volunteers for video-taped role plays were sought among participants who took part in COPT earlier. Role plays were organized either on the same day when COPT was conducted or during the following week according to the availability of learners/teachers. Role plays were conducted either in classrooms or in small study rooms in the school libraries.

While conducting role plays, learners were provided the cartoon scenarios and they were given a few minutes to understand the scenarios. Once participants were ready, role plays were conducted with an interlocutor. Overall, one hour was assigned for this task and each participant took roughly 15 minutes to take part in all five role plays. Time constraints were not strictly applied to allow a natural flow of conversation.

Five different interlocutors who were (native) English speakers participated in six different classes. In other 6 classes, the researcher herself had to act as an interlocutor because no other volunteer native speaker could be found. Role plays were conducted in 12 out of 13 participant classes, since a teacher at level 1 claimed that learners' proficiency level was too low to engage in a dialogue in English.

As shown in table 3.21 below, overall 41 learners took part in role plays. Role play data were obtained using eight request scenarios, which produced 160 role plays. Table 3.21 also shows the number of learners who responded for each scenario. Each participant responded to four request scenarios and one distractor, though two participants at level 3 (1 in group A, 1 in group B) could only respond for two scenarios due to the shortage of time.

Table 3.21 Role play participants

Number of responses for each scenario										
Level	Total learners	Total role plays (N)	Sc-1 ¹¹	Sc-2	Sc-3	Sc-4	Sc-5	Sc-6	Sc-7	Sc-8
1	18	72	6	6	6	6	12	12	12	12
2	10	40	8	8	8	8	2	2	2	2
3	13	48	4	3	4	3	9	9	8	8
Total	41	160	18	17	18	17	23	23	22	22

Since the role play scenarios were divided into two groups, participants were assigned role play situations drawn from contexts not addressed in their version of the COPT. The number of responses across scenarios could also not be controlled because participation in role plays was voluntary and the choice of scenarios was further based on the COPT they had taken before.

The primary data collection ended with the completion of the role play activity. Later, teachers who participated in data collection (filming, COPT, role plays) were contacted for video-stimulated semi-structured interviews to get their views about classroom films and other

¹¹ Sc refers to "scenario"

tasks conducted in their classes. Details of these interviews and other secondary data used in the present study are presented below.

3.4.2. Secondary data.

Secondary data in the present study consists of participant interviews, textbook analysis, and the French COPT. Data collection procedures of these methods are given below.

3.4.2.1 Video-stimulated semi-structured interviews.

All teachers who took part in classroom filming were requested to participate in video-stimulated semi-structured interviews, which were audio-taped. Overall, ten teachers took part in interviews (since some teachers taught more than one of the total 13 participant classes) which took about 30-40 minutes including video viewing of extracts.

Before starting the interview, teachers were provided with a brief background questionnaire (see appendix 13). Later, they were shown some extracts of video-recordings of their classes, summarising the three lessons in their classes to remind them the activities they designed for filming sessions. During the interview (see appendix 14), teachers were asked the reasons for choosing particular activities for filming, teaching strategies, and materials development techniques. Teachers gave detailed answers to all questions which are discussed in chapter 5.

3.4.2.2 Textbooks.

The selected L2 English textbooks were analysed thoroughly (page per page) in order to identify activities containing any metapragmatic input regarding L2 requests, which could be a potential source for learning L2 pragmatics. Three types of data were collected during textbook analysis. First, those activities were identified which contained explicit metapragmatic input concerning L2 requests. Second, activities (including texts, tasks, exercises, or transcriptions of audio documents

etc.) which focused on L2 requests but did not contain any explicit metapragmatic input were considered. Finally, activities which focused on other linguistic functions (tenses, story writing etc.) but contained incidental requests were also included in the analysis.

The number of each type of activities was counted to find textbooks which provided a higher number of explicit/implicit metapragmatic activities. The frequency of metapragmatic input in textbooks at a particular level was compared with other levels to examine the extent of input at a particular level. Moreover, the requests found in the textbooks at specific levels were analysed to find the type of request strategies learners might find at each level. Activities with explicit metapragmatic input were further analysed to find the type of metapragmatic input provided in textbooks.

3.4.2.3 French COPT.

The French COPT was conducted on similar lines as the English COPT (see section 3.4.1.4).

First, learners were provided with COPT questionnaires, iPods, and iPod user-guides by bilingual assistants and instructions were given. Later, learners were divided into two groups and one group was taken to the adjacent classroom for the task because the number of iPods was limited. The rest of learners remained in class and did the regular classwork. After 30 minutes, activities were switched between groups. As shown in table 3.22, the total number of participants in the French COPT was 74. After eliminating the missing or ambiguous responses, a total of

Table 3.22 Participants in French COPT

	Participants (n)	Total Prompts (N)	Missing or ambiguous responses (n)	Total responses (n)
Level 1	26	260	19	241
Level 2	24	240	13	227
Level 3	24	240	1	239
Total	74	740	33	707

707 French requests were produced. None of these participants took part any further in the study.

In this chapter, procedures of design, construction, and execution of different methods are explained in detail. The analysis of resultant data and findings for each of these methods are presented in the following chapter.

Chapter 4: Analysis and Results

This chapter presents the analysis and results for both primary and secondary data collected in the study. Results for Research Questions #1 and #2 are provided in the first part of the chapter (sections 4.1 to 4.3) whereas results for Research Questions #3 and #4 are presented in the second part (sections 4.4 to 4.6) of the chapters. Research Question #1 “How well are French learners of English able to formulate requests?” explores the extent to which French learners of English are able to make polite requests. Research Question #2 “Is there any evidence of development over time?” concerns L2 learners’ pragmatic development with an increase in proficiency from level 1 to level 3 in French secondary schools. The answers for these questions are sought by triangulation of three types of interlanguage data: the COPT, role plays, and authentic data which will henceforth be referred to as oral production, free production, and classroom requests respectively. As mentioned in chapter 3, participants are learning English as a foreign language (EFL) at three different levels in French secondary schools: *sixième* (age: 11-12), *troisième* (age: 14-15), and *terminale* (age: 17-18), which will be referred to as level 1, level 2, and level 3 respectively.

Research Question #3 “What kind of input do classroom learners get in France?” concerns L2 pragmatic input in L2 classrooms. Research Question #4 “What opportunities do learners have for production? Do they use these opportunities? Do they create others?” examines the additional opportunities for learning and practicing pragmatics in L2 classrooms. Answers to these two questions are provided in the second part (section 4.4 to 4.6) by means of two methods: the analysis of classroom activities and the textbooks analysis. The objective is to examine the extent of opportunities learners have in their classrooms to learn L2 pragmatics.

4.1 Analytical Framework for L2 Requests

Results for primary data (oral production, free production, and classroom requests) are presented in this section. Primary data is analysed for learners' pragmalinguistic as well as sociopragmatic competence and development. The analysis is based on the taxonomy of requests which was developed in the CCSAR project by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) after an extensive study of five languages (English, French, Danish, German, and Hebrew). This framework of analysis is used in a number of other ILP studies on requests (*e.g.*, Rose, 2000, 2009), which facilitates the comparison of the present study with previous ILP research.

The classification system of Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) consists of three components: alerters, head act, and supportive moves. The head act is the core of the request. Alerters and supportive moves, on the other hand, are optional additions to the request. Each head act has two obligatory parts: the request perspective and the request strategy. Some internal modifiers can also be added optionally to the head act, *e.g.*, downgraders and upgraders.

In the present study, all types of request data (oral production, free production, classroom requests) were analysed according to Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989) classification of requests. The data were coded for the use of request perspective, request strategy, internal modification (downgraders, upgraders), external modification (alerters, supportive moves), and modals. The only coding category identified in Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) which was not included in the analysis was "mode" because the analysis of "mode" involved an examination of irony and related phenomena which was beyond the scope of this study. When two head acts were found in a request sequence, each head act was analysed separately for the request perspective and the request strategy. The overall frequency of internal and external modifiers in a request sequence was also counted: if an element occurred more than once, its frequency was coded accordingly.

Although it is generally a standard practice in ILP research to employ more than one person for coding and reporting interrater reliability, learners in the present study used a narrow range of strategies in L2 requests, which made the need for a second rater unnecessary. For example, about 76% requests at level 1, 82% at level 2 and 90% at level 3 in oral production data were realized by means of conventionally indirect strategies. Moreover, “can” was used in 99% of conventionally indirect requests at level 1, 97.5% at level 2, and 81.5% at level 3. Therefore, the coding was mostly unproblematic in the study. In a few instances, when complications were faced regarding coding decisions (*e.g.*, coding the element which occurred twice in a request sequence), difficulties were resolved through discussion with a second, experienced rater. Moreover, in order to confirm the coding quality, a number of masters’ students were trained to code the requests according to Blum-Kulka et al.’s (1989) framework. These participants were given some data to code which was later compared with the researcher’s coding. Slight differences noted in this comparison were discussed and negotiated. Taking these factors into account, the lack of multiple raters might not appear to be a serious problem, since the nature of this study is exploratory.

The same coding principles were applied to all types of interlanguage data: oral production, free production, and classroom requests. The analysis of learners’ pragmalinguistic development will shed light on the extent of learners’ knowledge about the use of different request strategies and modifiers. The examination of sociopragmatic development, on the other hand, will reveal learners’ awareness about the manipulation of different linguistic devices according to the context.

4.2 Pragmalinguistic Development

Pragmalinguistic knowledge enables speakers to choose appropriate linguistic strategies from a range of linguistic resources. As noted earlier, in the present study, learners' pragmalinguistic development is measured by investigating their use of request strategies and modification in different conditions: oral production (COPT), free production (role plays), and classroom requests (authentic data). Statistical significance using one-way ANOVA and post-hoc Tukey HSD test is also presented for oral production and free production data based on results of the total scenarios for each measure (request perspectives, strategies, internal and external modification, and modals). However, statistical significance of results for authentic data is not presented because the number of scenarios and responses for each type of scenarios were not controlled in this data.

4.2.1 Analysis of request perspectives in different conditions.

The request perspective is one of the several dimensions for which requests are analysed in the present study. According to Blum-Kulka et al. (1989), requests can be realized by means of one of the four possible perspectives: "hearer dominant", "speaker dominant", "speaker and hearer dominant", and "impersonal" perspective (see table 4.1 for examples).

Table 4.1 Empirical examples of different request perspectives

Request Perspective	Examples
Hearer dominant	"Could <i>you</i> lend me some money, please?" (#12, Level 3, Item 8) "Miss, can <i>you</i> open the window please?" (#29, Level 3, Item 18)
Speaker dominant	"Can <i>I</i> go to the toilet please?" (#4, Level 1, Item 5) "Uh miss, can <i>I</i> please open the window?" (#6, Level 3, Item 18)
Speaker and Hearer dominant	"Can <i>we</i> have the silence please?" (#46, Level 1, Item 16) "I'm sorry miss, I'm tired. Can <i>we</i> do this test next week please?" (#24, Level 3, Item 3)
Impersonal	" <i>Is it possible to</i> put the test another day please?" (#10, level 3, Item 3)

The correct choice of perspective plays an important role in lightening the imposition of the request. For example, the request “can *I* borrow the notes?” has a different effect on the addressee as compared to “can *you* lend me the notes?” For instance, “can *I*” structure lends a permission-seeking force to the request which might be politer than using “can *you*” structure in some cases. Likewise, by using the viewpoint of both participants (*e.g.*, “we”) the speaker “calls upon the cooperative assumptions and thereby redress[es] FTA¹²” (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 127). Moreover, a deliberate avoidance of the hearer’s reference (as in impersonal perspective) might reduce the perceived coerciveness of the request. Findings regarding the use of request perspective in L2 learners’ requests in different conditions are presented below.

4.2.1.1 Oral production.

Table 4.2 displays the distribution of the request perspective in COPT data per request by level. Findings showed that learners at all levels indicated a general preference for hearer dominant perspectives (*e.g.*, “Could *you* lend me some money, please?” (#12, Level 3, Item 8). Learners at level 1 used this perspective in 65% of requests, level 2 learners in 61% of requests, and level 3 learners in 70% of requests.

Table 4.2 Distribution of request perspectives in COPT data per request by level

	Hearer dominant	%	Speaker dominant	%	S & H dominant	%	Impersonal	%	Total	%
Level 1	379	65%	169	29%	1	0%	35	6%	584	100%
Level 2	322	61%	163	31%	8	1%	38	7%	531	100%
Level 3	419	70%	133	22%	16	3%	29	5%	597	100%

¹² FTA refers to “face-threatening act”

With regard to the use of the speaker dominant perspective, table 4.2 shows that all participants in the study used the speaker dominant perspective less frequently than the hearer dominant perspective (“Uh miss, can *I* please open the window?” #6, Level 3, Item 18). Level 1 learners used this perspective in 29% of requests, level 2 learners showed a greater use of this perspective (31%), whereas level 3 learners used this perspective in 22% of requests. However, as table 4.2 above displays, the use of Speaker and Hearer dominant perspective was restricted at all levels (*e.g.*, “I’m sorry miss, I’m tired. Can *we* do this test next week please?” #24, Level 3, Item 3). Regarding the use of impersonal perspective, table 4.2 shows that learners at all levels exhibited some awareness about the use of impersonal perspective in L2 requests (“*Is it possible to put the test another day please?*” #10, level 3, Item 3), but the frequency of this perspective was limited (6% at level 1, 7% at level 2, 5% at level 3).

Results across levels were also compared using one-way ANOVA test to examine the statistical significance of differences across levels. Table 4.3 displays the p-values of different request perspectives across levels. Findings showed that the overall differences among all three levels were not statistically significant.

Table 4.3 p-values of different request perspectives across levels corresponding to the F-statistic of one-way ANOVA test

The p-value corresponding to the F-statistic of one-way ANOVA test				
	Hearer dominant	Speaker dominant	S & H dominant	Impersonal
p-values across three levels (20 scenarios)	0.3342	0.8480	0.2616	0.9451

p<0.05

4.2.1.2 Free production.

Table 4.4 displays the distribution of request perspectives in role play interactions per head act by level. Like oral production, the analysis of free production data (role plays) also revealed a

general prevalence of hearer dominant perspectives in learners' requests (*e.g.*, "Sorry teacher, can you uh delay the test, to the next week please?" #20, Level 1, Item 5), 74% at level 1, 79% at

Table 4.4 Distribution of request perspective in role plays per head act by level

Level	HD	%	SD	%	S & H ¹³ dominant	%	Impersona l	%	Ambiguou s	%	Total head acts
1	64	74 %	16	18 %	2	2 %	3	4%	2	2 %	87
2	41	79 %	10	19 %	0	0 %	0	0%	1	2 %	52
3	35	58 %	19	32 %	3	5 %	3	5%	0	0 %	60

level 2, 58% at level 3. Role play results also revealed that speaker dominant perspective ("Can I have your notes of yesterday?" #34, Level 3, Item 5) was the second most frequent perspective in L2 requests. Learners showed an increase in the use of speaker dominant perspective with increased proficiency (18% at level 1, 19% at level 2) especially at level 3 (32% at level 3).

With regard to the speaker and hearer dominant perspective (*e.g.*, "Can we delay it please to next week?" #34, Level 3, Item 5), role play data showed no sizeable development in learners' requests. As shown in table 4.4, learners at level 1 and level 3 used this perspective in only 2% and 5% of requests respectively. Learners at level 2, on the other hand, did not use this perspective at all. The use of the impersonal perspective (*e.g.*, "... It's possible to use your, notes please? #16, level 3, Item 2) was also scarce in learners' requests (see table 4.4 above). This perspective occurred at level 1 and level 3 only in 4% and 5% of requests respectively, whereas learners at level 2 did not use this perspective at all. Learners' results across levels were also compared using one-way ANOVA test and post-hoc Tukey HSD test to examine the statistical

¹³ Speaker and hearer, HD refers to "hearer dominant", SD refers to "speaker dominant"

significance of differences across levels (see tables 4.5 & 4.6 below). Findings showed that the use of the hearer dominant perspective is significantly different across levels.

Table 4.5 p-values of the use of request perspectives in free production data across all three levels

The p-value corresponding to the F-statistic of one-way ANOVA test				
	Hearer dominant	Speaker dominant	S & H dominant	Impersonal
p-values across three levels (20 request scenarios)	0.0480*	0.3988	0.4496	0.2760

p<0.05

In order to see which level, in particular, differed significantly from others in the use of hearer dominant perspective, a post-hoc Tukey HSD test was conducted (see table 4.6 below). Results of this test, however, showed that despite sizeable differences across levels, no significant difference was observed at any level.

Table 4.6 The comparison of different pairs of levels using p-values corresponding to the post-hoc Tukey HSD test

Post-hoc Tukey HSD test results (p-values)				
Comparison across levels	Hearer dominant	Speaker dominant perspective	S & H dominant	Impersonal
Level 1 vs. Level 2	0.1384	0.6345	0.6708	0.3430
Level 1 vs. Level 3	0.0506	0.8930	0.8999	0.8999
Level 2 vs. Level 3	0.8552	0.3796	0.4311	0.3430

p<0.05

4.2.1.3 Classroom requests.

Table 4.7 displays the distribution of request perspectives in authentic classroom requests by level. Findings showed that the speaker dominant perspective (*e.g.*, “Can *I* come to the board please?” Item 18, level 1, authentic request) was predominantly used by learners at level 1 and level 2 with a frequency of 56% and 60%. Learners at level 3 also realized 40% of their requests

Table 4.7 Distribution of request perspective in authentic requests per head act by level

	H Dominant	%	S dominant	%	S & H Dominant	%	Impersonal	%	Total requests
Level 1	23	35%	37	56 %	0	0%	6	9%	66
Level 2	6	30%	12	60 %	0	0%	2	10%	20
Level 3	16	40%	16	40 %	3	7%	5	13%	40
Total	45	36%	65	52 %	3	2%	13	10%	126

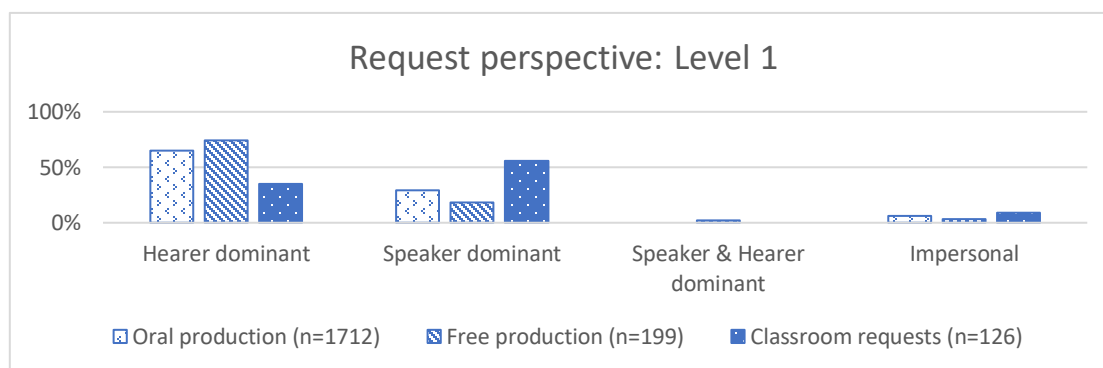
by using the speaker dominant perspective. The hearer dominant perspective (*e.g.*, “Can you write your [email address on board]?...”, Item 6, level 3, authentic data), on the other hand, was the second most frequent perspective in authentic requests (see table 4.8 above). Learners at level 1 used this perspective in 35% of requests, which lowered at level 2, that is, 30%, and increased again at level 3 (40%).

With regard to the use of Speaker and Hearer dominant perspective (Miss can we go? Item 14, level 3, authentic requests), table 4.7 shows that learners at level 1 and level 2 did not use this perspective at all. In contrast, learners at level 3 showed some development by using this perspective in 7% of requests. Likewise, use of the impersonal perspective (*e.g.*, “Is it possible to uh put uh, your bag...” #Item 28, level 3) was also limited at all levels (9% at level 1, 10% at level 2, and 13% at level 3).

4.2.1.4 Comparison of findings across methods: use of request perspectives

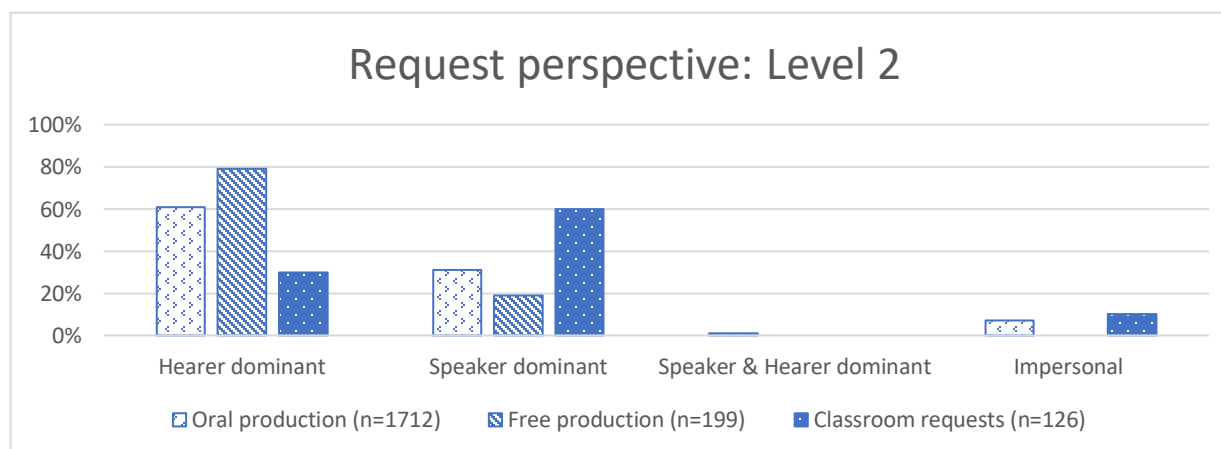
In this section, the use of different request perspectives is compared across levels and methods to examine the evidence of development with proficiency. Figure 4.1 displays the distribution of request perspectives at level 1. Findings revealed that learners preferred hearer dominant perspective in requests, as shown in oral production (COPT) and free production (role plays)

data. They only showed preference for speaker dominant perspective in classroom requests. In contrast, all types of data confirmed that the use of the speaker and hearer dominant perspective and the impersonal perspective was limited in level 1 learners' requests.



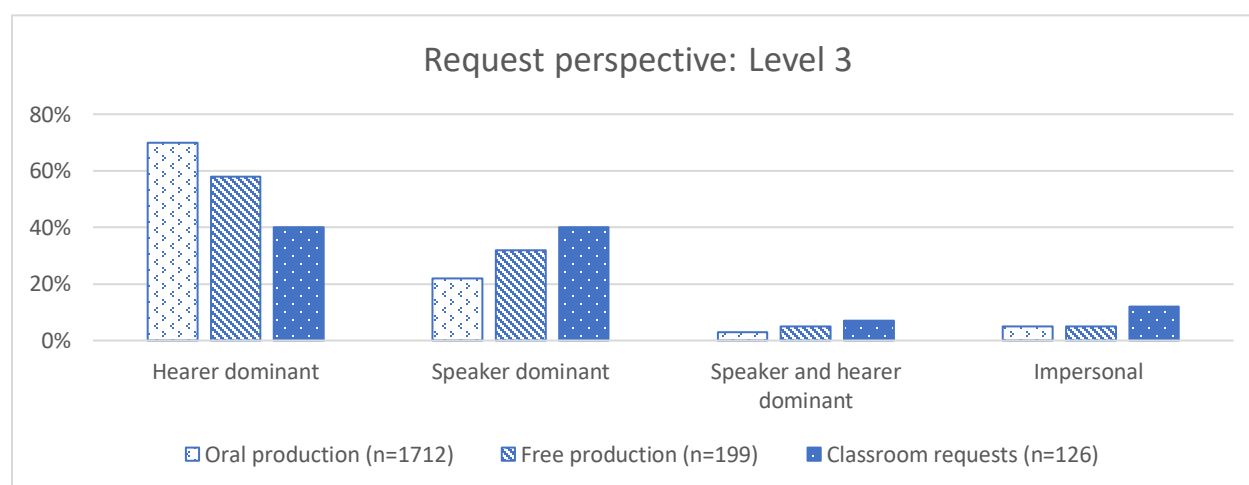
4.1 Distribution of request perspectives in L2 requests across method at level 1

The distribution of request perspectives in level 2 learners' requests is displayed in Figure 4.2 below. These findings revealed that level 2 learners also showed a preference for the hearer dominant perspective in COPT and role plays. Like level 1, level 2 learners also used the hearer dominant perspective less frequently in classroom requests but they used the speaker dominant perspective predominantly in classroom requests. With regard to the speaker and hearer perspective and the impersonal perspective, there was no change between levels 1 and 2 on this parameter.



4.2 Distribution of request perspectives in L2 requests across method at level 2

Figure 4.3 displays the distribution of request perspectives in level 3 learners' requests. Findings showed that level 3 learners also preferred hearer dominant perspective, although with slightly different frequencies compared to level 1 and level 2. Similarly, the use of the speaker dominant perspective was less frequent at level 3 like other levels. However, like level 1 and level 2, the speaker dominant perspective was relatively more frequent in classroom requests as compared to oral production and free production data. Concerning the use of the speaker and hearer dominant perspective and the impersonal perspective, only a little development was found at level 3. The use of the speaker and hearer perspective and the impersonal perspective was generally limited at all levels.



4.3 Distribution of request perspectives in L2 requests across methods at level 3

Overall, free production (role-play) results are half-way between oral production (COPT) and classroom requests. In contrast, level 1 and level 2 learners showed similar trends in oral production and free production data, but they performed somewhat differently in authentic data, suggesting either that the proficiency level of learners might influence results of specific elicitation methods or that the classroom work, especially at lower levels is formulaic – always

asking the same question or making the same request in the same form, especially at level 1 and level 2.

4.2.2 Analysis of request strategies in different conditions.

In this section, the use of request strategies in different conditions is presented in detail.

According to Blum-Kulka et al. (1989), each head act is realized by means of one exclusive request strategy. It is possible, however, to have more than one head act in a request sequence. Request strategy is the obligatory choice of directness in requests. Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) defines the directness in requests as “the degree to which the speaker’s illocutionary intent is apparent from the locution” (p. 278). The nine request strategies identified in Blum-Kulka et al.’s (1989) framework are subsumed into three broad categories in the present study: direct requests, conventionally indirect requests, and nonconventionally indirect requests. Examples of each type of request with their subtypes identified in this data are illustrated in table 4.8 below.

Table 4.8 Examples of different types of request strategies

Category of requests	Request strategies	Example
Direct requests	1) Mood derivable	“Give me a paper” (Level 2, #1A, item 1) “The paper please!” (Level 1, #35A, item 1)
	2) Want statement	“I want to go the toilet.” (Level 1, #27A, item 5)
Conventionally indirect requests	3) Preparatory	- “Can you give me money please?” (Level 3, #23A, item 8) - “Miss, can you move to the left please?” (Level 3, #21A, item 9)
Nonconventionally indirect requests	4) Strong hint	- “Do you have um answer to questions, on the tasks, of the tasks?” [Intent: cheating in class test] (Level 2, #15B, item 14) - “I no um going to school.” [Intent: Asking a classmate to inform the school for his/her absence] (Level 1, #45A, item 4)

4.2.2.1 Oral production.

Table 4.9 displays a distribution of request strategies in oral production data per request by level. Findings suggested an overwhelming preference for conventionally indirect requests (“Can I have a paper please?”, #29, level 2, Item 1) at all levels. Learners at level 1 used conventional indirectness in 76% of requests compared to level 2 and level 3 learners who used this strategy in

Table 4.9 Distribution of request strategies in oral production data per request by level

	Direct	%	Conventionally indirect	%	Non-conventionally indirect	%	Total head acts analysed
Level 1	128	22%	444	76%	12	2%	584
Level 2	84	16%	437	82%	10	2%	531
Level 3	42	7%	536	90%	19	3%	597
Total	254	15%	1417	83%	41	2%	1712

82% and 90% requests respectively. As table 4.9 above shows, the direct strategy (“Give me a paper.”, #1, Level 2, Item 1) was least preferred by learners at all levels. Learners at level 1 used the direct strategy slightly more frequently than higher levels. A significant decrease in the use of direct strategy is observed with the increase in proficiency. The use of nonconventionally indirect requests or hints (“I don’t understand please” Intent: explain the lesson, #22, Level 2, Item 7), however, appeared to be restricted at all levels since only 2% requests overall were realized by means of this strategy.

A micro-level analysis of oral production data showed that out of several request strategies presented in Blum-Kulka et al. (1989), learners used only a few strategies. They used Preparatory Strategy to be conventionally indirect (“Can I have a paper please?” #29, Level 2, Item 1), Mood derivable strategy to be direct (“Give me a paper” #1, Level 2, Item 1) with some exceptions when learners at level 1 and level 2 also used Want Statements (“I want to go the

toilet.” Level1, #27A, item 5) to be direct. Likewise, Strong Hint was the only strategy learners used to be nonconventionally indirect at all levels (“I don't understand please” Intent: Explain the lesson, #22, Level 2, Item 7). Thus, out of the nine request strategies, only three strategies were frequently used by learners: Mood derivable, Preparatory strategy, and Strong hints.

Statistical analyses of results across levels using one-way ANOVA test revealed that there were major differences across levels concerning the use of direct and conventionally indirect strategies but none of the differences were statistically significant (see table 4.10 below).

Table 4.10 The p-values of different requests strategies corresponding to the F-statistic of one-way ANOVA test

The p-value corresponding to the F-statistic of one-way ANOVA test			
	Direct requests	Conventionally indirect requests	Nonconventionally indirect requests
p-value across all three levels (20 scenarios)	0.1048	0.1219	0.5418

p<0.05

4.2.2.2 Free production.

Table 4.11 displays the distribution of request strategies in free production data per head act by level. The preference for conventionally indirect strategies, observed in oral production data, was also found in free production data. Differences in oral production and free production data however, were noted in terms of frequency of this strategy. In oral production data (see table 4.9 above), the frequency of conventional indirectness increased with proficiency, but not in free production data. As shown in table 4.11 below, findings showed that learners realized about 74% of their requests via conventionally indirect strategies at level 1. Level 2 learners showed an

Table 4.11 Distribution of request strategies in free production data per head act by level

	Direct	%	Conventionally indirect	%	Nonconventionally indirect	%	Total head acts analysed
Level 1	8	9%	64	74%	15	17%	87
Level 2	6	11%	44	85%	2	4%	52
Level 3	7	12%	37	61%	16	27%	60

increase by using this strategy in about 85% of requests. But level 3 learners indicated a decrease by using this strategy in only 61% of requests. A typical example of the use of the conventionally indirect strategy in role plays is shown below (S refers to the speaker and A refers to the addressee):

Example 4.1.1

- 1 S: Excuse me I have no money. I have to to to buy something. Just can you give just may be, ten euros please?
- 2 A: Okay. But I don't have euros, I have dollars. Will, will that work?
- 3 S: Yes because, because I'm friend so uh.....

(#39, Level 3, Item 8, Role play)

Concerning the use of nonconventional strategy, table 4.11 shows that learners realized 17% of their requests at level 1 and 27% of requests at level 3 using nonconventional indirectness, though level 2 learners produced no notable examples in this corpus. With regard to the use of direct strategy, learners at all levels used this strategy very infrequently. Level 1 learners used direct strategies in only 9% of their requests, level 2 learners in 11% and level 3 learners in 12% requests.

Table 4.12 displays results of one-way ANOVA test comparing the use of different request strategies across levels. Learners showed higher variation in conventionally indirect and nonconventionally indirect requests but none of the differences were statistically significant.

Table 4.12 *p-values of the use of request strategies in free production data across all three levels*

The p-value corresponding to the F-statistic of one-way ANOVA test			
Types of requests	Direct requests	Conventionally indirect requests	Nonconventionally indirect requests
p-value across all levels (20 scenarios)	0.6805	0.0565	0.0810

p<0.05

Like oral production data, micro-level analysis of free production data also showed that learners used only three out of nine request strategies which were identified in Blum-Kulka et al. (1987): Mood Derivable (“Please report the test at the next week.” #31, Level 2, Item 1, Role play), Preparatory Strategy (“Can you give just may be, ten euros please?” (#39, Level 3, Item 8, Role play), and Strong Hints (“I’m sorry to ask you this but um I have forgotten my money uh for lunch” (#41, Level 3, Item 8, Role play).

4.2.2.3 Classroom requests.

Evidence is also sought from authentic data to examine whether learners showed pragmatic development in the use of request strategy in classroom requests from level 1 to level 3. Table

Table 4.13 *Distribution of request strategies in authentic data per head act by level*

	Direct	%	CI ¹⁴	%	NCI	%	Total requests
Level 1	8	12%	49	74%	9	14%	66
Level 2	5	25%	11	55%	4	20%	20
Level 3	10	25%	16	40%	14	35%	40

4.13 displays the distribution of request strategies in classroom requests (authentic data) per head act by level.

¹⁴ CI refers to conventionally indirect requests, NCI refers to nonconventionally indirect requests

Findings showed that the conventionally indirect strategy was commonly used at level 1 (74%), but it decreased at level 2 (55%) and level 3 (40%). Regarding the use of direct strategy, findings showed that level 1 learners used this strategy in 12% of their requests. Moreover, the use of this strategy increased at level 2 with a frequency of 25%. However, no further increase in the use of direct strategy was found at level 3 (25%). An example of direct strategy in authentic data is shown below:

Example 4.1.2

- 1 A (teacher to pupils): Okay uh can you see? (referring to the document displayed on board
via projector)
- 2 S: Uh zoom little please.

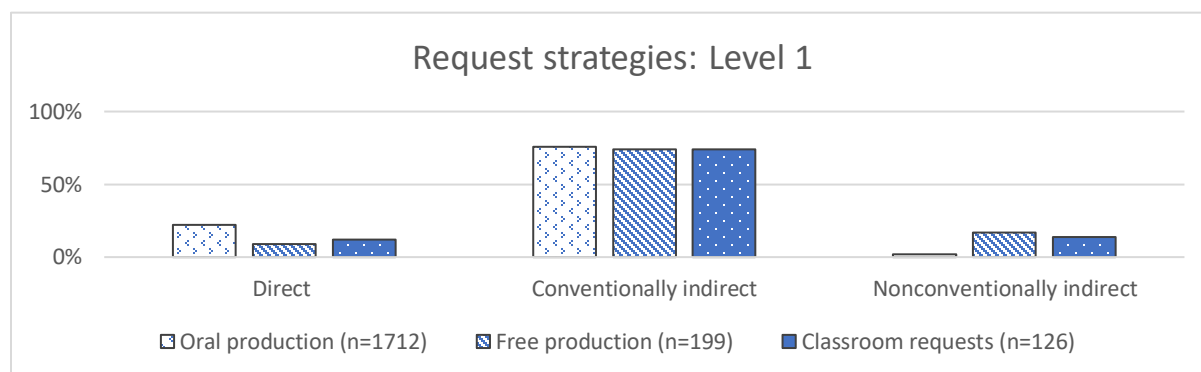
(Level 3, Item 10, Authentic data)

Table 4.13 also shows that the use of the nonconventionally indirect strategy increased as learners' proficiency increased. That is, learners at level 1 realized 14% of their requests using nonconventionally indirect strategies. Level 2 learners showed an increase by using this strategy in 20% of requests, whereas level 3 learners evidenced a further increase with a frequency of 35%.

The micro-analysis of data showed that most of the direct requests at all levels were realized by means of the Mood Derivable strategy (*e.g.*, "Speak up please"). Only one instance is observed at level 2 in which a learner used an Explicit Performative to make a direct request ("Teacher I have *demand* (asked) the, the paper" Level 2, Item 1, Authentic request). Likewise, all conventionally indirect strategies were realized by means of the Preparatory Strategy ("Can I come to the board please?"). Findings revealed that all nonconventionally indirect requests were realized with Strong Hints such as "I don't have a paper" (Intent: Give me a paper).

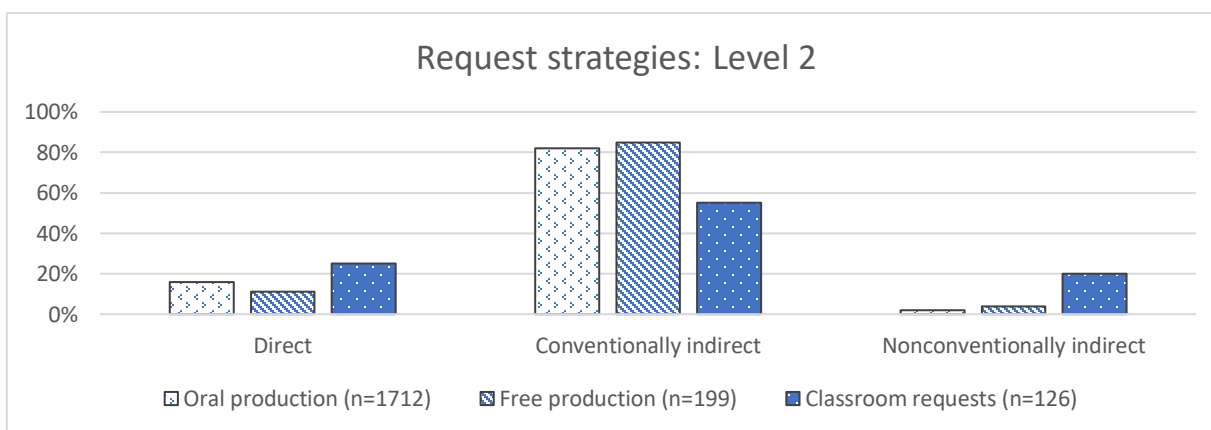
4.2.2.4 Comparison of findings across methods: use of request strategies.

In this section, the use of request strategies in L2 requests is compared to examine patterns of development across levels. Figure 4.4 displays the distribution of request strategies at level 1. Findings of all types of data confirmed that the conventionally indirect strategy occurred most



4.4 Distribution of request strategies across methods at level 1

frequently in level 1 learners' requests. Use of the direct strategy, in contrast, occurred less frequently, although the frequency of the direct strategy was slightly higher in oral production data (COPT) than other types of data. With regard to the use of the nonconventionally indirect strategy, findings showed that the use of this strategy was uncommon at level 1, which was evident in all types of data. However, the use of this strategy was even lower in oral production

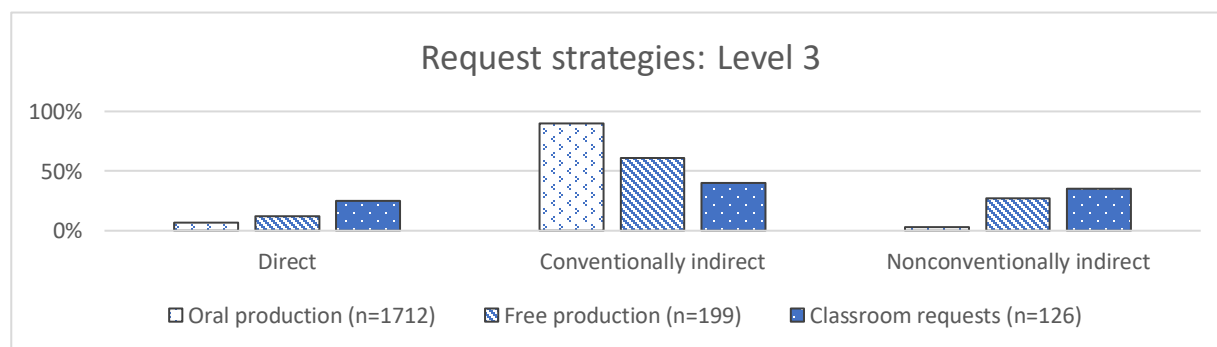


4.5 Distribution of request strategies across methods at level 2

data as compared to other types of data (free production & classroom requests).

Figure 4.5 below displays the distribution of request strategies at level 2. Findings revealed that learners at level 2 showed a higher preference for conventionally indirect strategies than level 1 learners. The use of direct strategies, however, was slightly higher at level 2 than level 1, as shown in free production (role plays) and classroom requests. Compared to level 1, the use of nonconventionally indirect strategies at level 2 was lower in oral production and free production data whereas it was higher at level 2 in classroom requests.

Figure 4.6 displays the distribution of request strategies at level 3. Findings showed that compared to level 1 and level 2, learners at level 3 showed a higher tendency of using conventionally indirect requests in oral production data whereas they showed a lower use of conventional indirectness in free production data and classroom requests. All types of data confirmed that the use of direct strategies was limited at level 3 like other two levels, but the use of nonconventionally strategy was higher at level 3, compared to other levels.



4.6 Distribution of request strategies across methods at level 3

4.2.3 Analysis of internal modification in L2 requests in different conditions.

This section explores another dimension which is optionally added to the request for modulating the face-threat: internal modification. Internal modifiers are classified under two broad

categories: “downgraders” and “upgraders” which serve two contrastive functions. Downgraders are used to soften the force of the request whereas upgraders contribute in aggravating its force.

Both types of modifiers have several sub-categories. Definitions and examples of different internal modifiers identified in data are shown below in table 4.14.

Table 4.14 Empirical examples of internal modifiers

Internal modifiers	Sub-types	Subcategories	Examples
Downgraders	Syntactic downgraders	Interrogative	“I have authorisation to go to the nurse please?” (Level 2, #15B, item 15)
	Lexical and phrasal downgraders	Politeness marker	“Can I go to the bin <i>please</i> ?” (Level 3, #18B, item 13)
		Understater	“Excuse me, can you move <i>a little bit</i> so I can see the board please?” (Level 3, #8A, item 6)
		Downtoner	“Uh miss I'm sorry and <i>I don't know if it's possible</i> but, they are a lot of noise, at the beginning of the video and I, don't understand. Can you replay please?” (#16, Level 3, Item 3)
		Subjectivisor	“Uh, for once again I, I just, <i>I don't think</i> I can take take this test uh because I uh have problem last night...” (#33, level 3, Item 5)
		Hedge	“Uh well, I <i>kindda</i> missed, well, the beginning...” (Intent: to replay the video) (#38, Level 3, Item 3)
		Cajoler	“Sorry can I have your notes from history yesterday because uh hmm <i>you know</i> I was missing and I heard there is a big test next week so, can I have your notes please?” (#38, Level 3, Item 2)
Upgraders		Repetition of request	“Please um <i>please can you uh come with me, of the nurse?</i> Please I'm sick. <i>Come with me.</i> ” (Level 3, #16B, item 19) “ <i>Shush</i> , I need to listen the teacher. <i>Please shush.</i> ” (Leve 2, #25B, item 16)
		Lexical uptoner	“Hey guys, <i>shut up</i> please.” (Level 2, #20B, item 16) “Can you <i>close your mouth</i> please?” (Level 3, #3B, item 16)

4.2.3.1 Oral production.

Table 4.15 below displays the frequency of internal modifiers in oral production data per request by level. Since the use of these modifiers is optional, the percentage of these modifiers does not add up to 100%.

Table 4.15 Frequency of internal modifiers per request by level

COPT: Internal modifiers							
Level	Downgraders				Upgraders		Total requests
	Syntactic downgraders (n)	%	Lexical downgraders (n)	%	Upgraders (n)	%	
1	3	.5%	359	61%	4	.7%	584
2	5	1%	359	67%	8	1.5%	531
3	8	1%	456	76%	7	1%	597
Total	16	1%	1174	68.5%	19	1%	1712

Findings showed that compared to syntactic downgraders and upgraders, learners preferred lexical downgraders (“Um sorry miss, can you *just* move, uh *just a little notch* to the left *please*?” #2, Level 3, Item 9). Level 1 learners used lexical downgraders in about 61% of requests, level 2 learners showed an increase by using these modifiers in 67% of requests. Further development is noted in the use of lexical downgraders at level 3 with a use of lexical modifiers in 76% of requests. Compared to lexical downgraders, syntactic downgraders (“*I wanted to know*, if you could uh give me your notes...?”, #5, Level 3, Item 17) and upgraders (“*Shut up* guys! Guys!”, #19, Level 2, Item 16) were rarely used in learners’ requests (see table 4.15 above).

Results of one-way ANOVA test indicated that differences in the use of different internal modifiers across levels were not statistically significant (see table 4.16 below).

Table 4.16 *p-values concerning the use of internal modifiers in oral production data across all three levels*

The p-value corresponding to the F-statistic of one-way ANOVA test			
	Syntactic downgraders	Lexical downgraders	Upgraders
p-value across all three levels (20 scenarios)	0.2604	0.0546	0.8802

$p < 0.05$

Since lexical modifiers were increasingly used by learners at all levels, further analysis was conducted to examine the range of lexical modifiers in learners' requests at each level. Table 4.17 below displays the subdivision of lexical modifiers into two categories a) Politeness Markers and b) Understaters. Findings showed that learners relied heavily on Politeness Markers

Table 4.17 *Frequency of lexical modifier "please" compared to other lexical modifiers in COPT per request by level*

Level	Politeness markers ("Please")	%	Understaters	%	Total lexical downgraders
1	358	99.7%	1	.3%	359
2	359	100%	0	0%	359
3	433	95%	23	5%	456
Total	1150	98%	24	2%	1174

(e.g., "please") compared to other lexical modifiers such as Understaters (e.g. "just", "a little", "a few"). About 100% of lexical modifiers at level 1 and level 2 were realised by means of Politeness Markers. Some development was found at level 3 where 5% of lexical modifiers were realized via modifiers other than Politeness Markers (e.g., "just"). However, learners even at level 3 showed a reliance on Politeness Markers.

4.2.3.2 Free production.

Table 4.18 displays the frequency of internal modifiers in free production data (role plays) per head act by level. Internal modifiers found in role play interactions include lexical downgraders and upgraders, but no evidence of syntactic downgraders was found in this data. Findings

showed that a high frequency of lexical modifiers¹⁵ was found in role plays. Learners at level 1 used lexical downgraders in about 57% of requests, which increased at level 2 (82%) and doubled at level 3 with a frequency of 140%, because learners used more than one lexical

Table 4.18 Frequency of internal modifiers in role plays per head act by level

Role plays: Internal modification							
Level	Lexical or phrasal downgraders (n)	%	Upgraders (n)	%	Upgraders with external modifiers (n)	%	Total head acts analysed (n)
1	51	57%	1	1%	0	0%	87
2	43	82%	1	2%	0	0%	52
3	84	140%	13	22%	24	40%	60

downgraders in their requests (*e.g.*, “Marie could you *please* lend me *some* money you have, to eat to the cafeteria?” #34, Level 3, Item 8).

The microanalysis of lexical or phrasal downgraders showed that the majority of downgraders at level 1 and level 2 consisted of Politeness markers. Significant development was found at level 3 because these learners used a variety of lexical downgraders other than Politeness markers: Understaters (49%), Subjectivisors (10%), Downtoners (4%), Cajolers (2%), and Hedges (1%) (see 4.14 above for examples).

With regard to the use of upgraders, table 4.18 above shows that the use of upgraders (*e.g.*, “really”) was restricted at level 1 and level 2. In contrast, significant development was found at level 3 with an unprecedented increase of upgraders (22%).

¹⁵ It is important to mention here that some lexical modifiers were used as part of the head act but others occurred before or after the head act during the negotiation of the request. Even if some of these did not occur as part of the head act, they were analysed together with other lexical modifiers to make findings manageable.

Table 4.19 below shows results (p-values) of the statistical analysis of the use of internal modifiers across levels. Findings showed that the measure on which learners differed significantly was the use of upgraders in requests.

Table 4.19 p-values of the use of internal modifiers in free production data across all three levels

The p-value corresponding to the F-statistic of one-way ANOVA test			
	Syntactic downgraders	Lexical downgraders	Upgraders
p-value across all levels (20 scenarios)	0.8370	0.1323	0.00078

p<0.05

Further analysis using the post-hoc Tukey HSD test showed that a significant difference between level 3 and other two levels was found concerning the use of upgraders, due to the high use of upgraders at level 3 (see table 4.20 below).

Table 4.20 Comparison of different pairs of levels based on p-values corresponding to the post-hoc Tukey HSD test

Post-hoc Tukey HSD test results (p-values)			
Comparison across levels	Syntactic downgraders	Lexical downgraders	Upgraders
Level 1 vs. Level 2	0.8559	0.8999	0.8999
Level 1 vs. Level 3	0.8559	0.2663	0.0020*
Level 2 vs. Level 3	0.8999	0.1386	0.0020*

p<0.05

4.2.3.3 Classroom requests.

Table 4.21 displays the frequency of internal modifiers in classroom requests per request by level. Findings showed that lexical and phrasal downgraders were the only type of internal modifiers found in authentic classroom requests. Level 1 learners used lexical or phrasal downgraders in about 35% of their requests. Compared to level 1, a notable drop in the use of lexical and phrasal downgraders was found in level 2 learners' requests (15%), which rose again at level 3 (35%).

Table 4.21 Frequency of internal modifiers in authentic requests by level

Level	Lexical or phrasal downgrader (n)	%	Total requests at this level (n)
1	23	35%	66
2	3	15%	20
3	13	33%	40
Total	39	31%	126

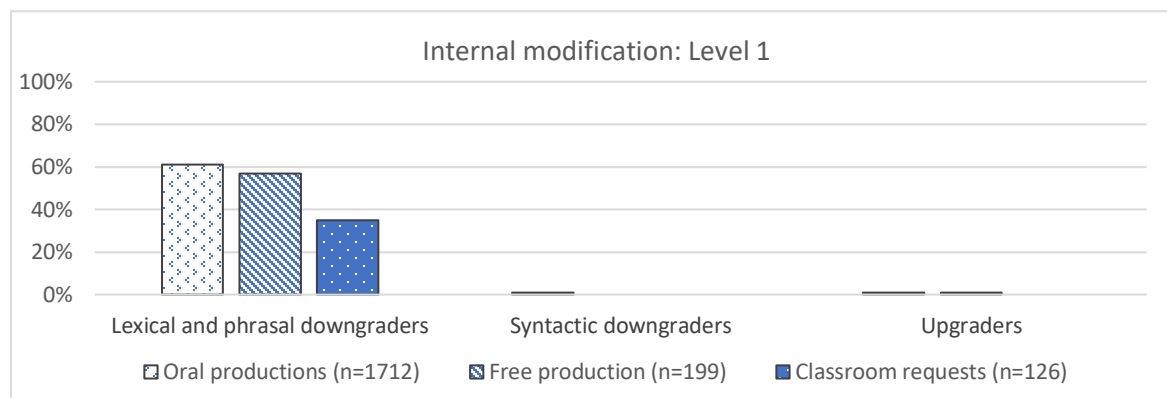
The microanalysis of lexical and phrasal downgraders in authentic data also showed that most of the lexical modifiers were realized by means of Politeness Markers. Table 4.22 displays the distribution of lexical or phrasal downgraders into subcategories per request by level. Findings showed that almost 96% of lexical and phrasal downgraders at level 1 consisted of Politeness Markers (“please”). However, about 100% of lexical modifiers at level 2 consisted of Politeness Markers, which reflected no development concerning the range of lexical modifiers at level 2. Some variation in the use of lexical modifiers was found at level 3 with an increase of Understaters (*e.g.*, “Zoom *little* please”) which were used in about 27% of requests at this level.

Table 4.22 Distribution of lexical or phrasal downgraders per request by level

Level	Politeness Marker	%	Understater	%	Total	%
1	23	96%	1	4%	24	100%
2	3	100%	0	0%	3	100%
3	8	73%	3	27%	11	100%

4.2.3.4 Comparison of findings across methods: use of internal modifiers.

In this section, the use of internal modifiers (lexical & phrasal downgraders, syntactic downgraders, and upgraders) is compared across levels to find the evidence of development with the increase in proficiency. Figure 4.7 displays the frequency of internal modifiers across

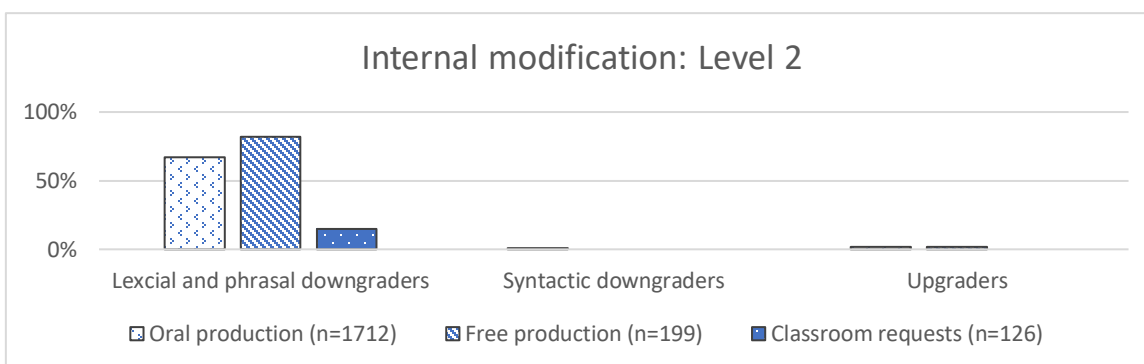


4.7 Frequency of internal modifiers at level 1 per request by method

methods at level 1. Findings showed that learners at level 1 used lexical and phrasal downgraders with a high frequency, although the frequency across methods varied significantly. In contrast, level 1 learners showed no significant use of syntactic downgraders and upgraders.

Level 2 learners showed a similar tendency regarding the use of internal modifiers.

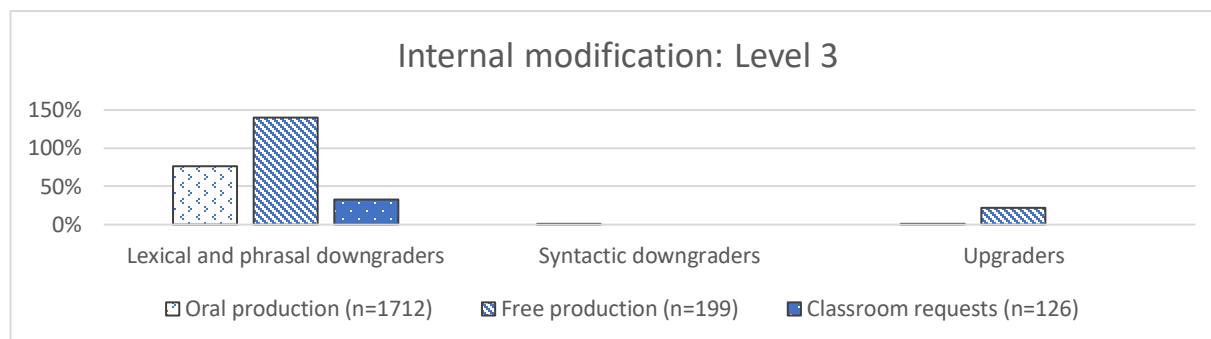
Figure 4.8 below displays the frequency of internal modifiers per request at level 2. Findings showed that compared to level 1, level 2 learners used a higher frequency of lexical and phrasal



4.8 Frequency of internal modifiers at level 2 per request by method

downgraders, as evidenced in oral production and free production data. In contrast, learners at level 2 used lesser lexical and phrasal downgraders in classroom requests. Concerning the use of syntactic downgraders and upgraders at level 2, all types of data (oral production, free production, and authentic data) confirmed that learners showed no evidence of development in this regard.

Further increase in the use of lexical and phrasal downgraders was found in level 3 learners' requests. Figure 4.9 displays the frequency of internal modification in level 3 learners'



4.9 Frequency of internal modifiers at level 3 per request by method

requests in different types of data. Findings showed that level 3 learners used a higher frequency of lexical and phrasal downgraders compared to level 1 and level 2 learners, especially in oral production and free production data. However, even level 3 learners showed no significant development in the use of syntactic downgraders. A little development can be observed at level 3 with regard to the use of upgraders as shown in free production data.

So far, learners' development concerning the use of internal modification is presented. In the following, learners' use of external modifiers at all three levels is presented in detail.

4.2.4 Analysis of external modification in different conditions.

The external modifiers which are optionally added to requests to mitigate the face-threat include

Table 4.23 Types and examples of alerters

Alerters	Subcategories	Examples
	Title or role	"Miss," "teacher"
	First name	"Sophie," "Sarah"
	Endearment term	"My friend," "buddy"
	Attention getter	"Excuse me"

alerters and supportive moves. Blum-Kulka et al., (1989) define an *alerter* as “an opening element preceding the actual request” (p. 276). Some alerters identified by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) are also found in the present study;

A supportive move is defined as “a unit external to the request, which modifies its impact

Table 4.24 Types and examples of supportive moves

Supportive moves	Types of supportive moves	Examples
	Apology	“uh <i>I'm sorry</i> miss, could we uh replay the video please?” (Level 3, #11B, item 20)
	Grounder (give reasons or explanations)	“Excuse me, can I have your class notes please? <i>I wasn't there yesterday I was sick and, I will just write it at home and give it to you back tomorrow</i> ” (Level 3, #10B, item 17)
	Gratitude	“Laurine. Do you have your notes? Yes, because I'm absent yesterday. <i>Thank you</i> Laurine. You are very nice.” (Level 3, #7B, item 17)
	Preparator	“ <i>oh, I think you have finished the exercise.</i> Could you explain to me...?” (#11, Level 3, Item 10)
	Promise of Reward	“Can you get me some money? <i>I bring it back tomorrow. I need it.</i> ” (#6, Level 3, Item 8)
	Imposition minimizer	“...give me a little paper <i>if you not a problem for you</i> ” (#27, Level 3, Item 1),
	Disarmer	“Uh Claire I don't understand the lesson and <i>we have a test, I know</i> , but can you bring me at nurse please?” (#16, Level 3, Item 4)
	Insult	“Ho my friend, <i>you are, you are very very very very very énervent</i> (annoying), Shut up please...” (#7, Level 3, Item 16)

by either aggravating or mitigating its force” (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 276). Several types of supportive moves are identified in the data which are illustrated in table 4.24 below. Findings regarding the use of external modifiers in different types of request data (oral production, free production, authentic data) are presented in the following.

4.2.4.1 Oral production.

Table 4.25 displays the frequency of external modifiers in COPT data per request by level. Findings showed that learners’ use of external modifiers increased with proficiency. The development regarding the use of alerters, however, was more noteworthy than supportive moves. At level 1, learners used alerters in only 12% of requests whereas at level 2 in 27% requests. A greater development was found at level 3 with three times as many alerters as level 2: 83%. Level 3 learners also showed greater development concerning the use of supportive moves, though with much lower frequency than alerters. Level 1 learners used supportive moves in only 4% of their requests, level 2 learners in 13% requests, whereas level 3 learners in 39% of requests. These findings suggest that level 2 learners showed some progress in the use of alerters

Table 4.25 Frequency of external modifiers in COPT data per request by level

External modifiers					
	Alerters	%	Supportive Moves	%	Total requests
Level 1	72	12%	21	4%	584
Level 2	143	27%	71	13%	531
Level 3	494	83%	231	39%	597

and supportive moves compared to level 1 learners. In contrast, the developmental leap from level 2 to level 3 was more prominent.

Further analysis of alerters and supportive moves revealed that most of the alerters, especially at level 1 consisted of Titles or Roles (71%) such as “Miss” and “Teacher”. Level 2 and level 3 learners, however, showed a lower reliance on Titles or Roles with a frequency of 47% and 41% respectively. Attention Getters (*e.g.*, “excuse me”) were the second most frequent alerters in the data, learners at level 1 used these alerters in 16% of their requests, level 2 and level 3 learners, in contrast, showed a slight increase by using these alerters in 24% and 35% of their requests respectively.

Table 4.26 displays p-values comparing the frequency of alerters and supportive moves at all levels via one-way ANOVA test. Findings showed that there was a significant difference among the three levels concerning the use of alerters and supportive moves ($p < 0.05$).

Table 4.26 p-values of the use of external modifiers in oral production data across all three levels

The p-value corresponding to the F-statistic of one-way ANOVA test		
	Alerters	Supportive moves
p-value across all levels (20 scenarios)	1.1102e-16*	7.1873e-05*

$p < 0.05$

Further statistical analysis using the post-hoc Tukey HSD test showed that the significant difference in the use of alerters and supportive moves was found in level 3 learners’ requests compared to both lower levels (see table 4.27).

Table 4.27 The comparison of different pairs of levels based on p-values corresponding to post-hoc Tukey HSD test

Post-hoc Tukey HSD test results (p-values)		
Comparison across levels	Alerters	Supportive moves
Level 1 vs. Level 2	0.0670	0.7575
Level 1 vs. Level 3	0.0010*	0.0010*
Level 2 vs. Level 3	0.0010*	0.0012*

$p < 0.05$

The micro-analysis of supportive moves revealed that learners at all levels used Grounders (*e.g.*, reasons/explanations) as the most frequent supportive moves. About 95% of supportive moves at level 1 and level 2 consisted of Grounders whereas 87% of supportive moves at level 3 were realized via Grounders. Other than Grounders, level 1 learners also used Gratitude (5%) whereas level 2 learners used Gratitude (4%) as well as Apologies (1.4%). Level 3 learners, in contrast, showed a higher variation in the use of supportive moves by using Preparators (.4%), Promises of Reward (1%), Imposition minimizers (.4%), Insults (.4%), Gratitude (9%), and Apologies (2%) other than Grounders (87%) (see table 4.24 for examples). These findings suggest an onset of the expansion of pragmalinguistic repertoire at level 3.

4.2.4.2 Free production.

Like oral production, free production (role plays) findings also suggested an increase in the use of alerters and supportive moves with proficiency, although the frequency of alerters and supportive moves in free production data (see table 4.28) was much higher than oral production data (table 4.25). Table 4.28 below displays the frequency of external modifiers in oral production data per request sequence by level. Findings showed that level 1 learners used alerters

Table 4.28 Frequency of external modifiers per request sequence in role play interactions by level

Free production: External modification					
	Alerters (n)	%	Supportive moves (n)	%	Total role plays analysed (n)
Level 1	38	53%	103	143%	72
Level 2	32	80%	107	268%	40
Level 3	63	131%	170	354%	48
Total	133	83%	380	238%	160

in 53% of their requests, level 2 learners, on the other hand, used alerters in 80% of their requests, whereas level 3 learners' frequency of alerters was 131%, because they used more than one alerters in several requests.

As shown in table 4.28, the use of supportive moves was prominent because level 1 learners also used a high frequency of supportive moves in this data with a frequency of 143%. The use of supportive moves almost doubled at level 2 (268%) and it further increased at level 3 (354%), indicating that the average number of supportive moves at level 3 was up to three to four supportive moves per role play sequence. It is assumed that the presence of the interlocutor must have also had a significant effect on the high frequency of supportive moves in role play interactions.

Further analysis of free production data was done to examine if learners showed familiarity with variant forms of external modifiers. The microanalysis of alerters revealed that the distribution of subcategories of alerters was comparable across levels. Most of the alerters at all levels consisted of titles or roles: 47% at level 1, 41% at level 2, and 40% at level 3. A frequent use of attention getters (*e.g.*, "excuse me") was also found at all levels, that is, 26% at level 1, 31% at level 2, and 28% at level 3. Apologies emerged as the third most frequent Alerters with a frequency of 16% at level 1, 16% at level 2 and 17% at level 3. Other alerters included First name (11% at level 1, 12 at level 2, and 10% at level 3) and Endearment terms (*e.g.*, "mate", 5% at level 3 only).

The statistical analysis of learners' use of external modifiers revealed that differences among the three levels under study were not significant (see table 4.29 below).

Table 4.29 *p*-values of the use of external modifiers in free production data across all three levels

The <i>p</i> -value corresponding to the F-statistic of one-way ANOVA test		
	Alerters	Supportive moves
<i>p</i> -value across all levels (20 scenarios)	0.5501	0.1963

$p < 0.05$

The microanalysis of supportive moves revealed that Grounders were predominantly used as supportive moves at all levels (*e.g.*, “Sarah sorry but *I was sick yesterday* and, it's possible to use your, notes please?” #16, Level 3, Item 2). However, the dependence on Grounders slightly lowered with proficiency, that is, level 1 learners used Grounders in 78% of the overall supportive moves they used, as compared to level 2 and level 3 learners who used Grounders in 70% and 65% of their supportive moves, respectively. Higher level learners showed a greater use of Gratitude (9% in level 1, 17% in level 2, and 22 in level 3). The use of Promise of reward and Apologies were also found but it was limited at all levels.

4.2.4.3 Classroom requests.

Unlike COPT and role plays, findings of classroom requests revealed that the use of alerters decreased with increasing proficiency. Table 4.30 displays the frequency of alerters and supportive moves per request by level. Results showed that level 1 learners used alerters in 70% of their requests. The use of alerters decreased slightly at level 2 (60%) and it further decreased at level 3 (23%). The decrease in the use of alerters from level 1 to level 2 was notable but the decrease from level 2 to level 3 was more prominent.

As shown in table 4.30 below, findings regarding the use of supportive moves revealed an opposite trend. The use of supportive moves was almost non-existent at level 1 (1%) and level 2 (5%), but level 3 learners showed some development by using supportive moves in 28% of

their requests. Overall, compared to oral production and free production, the use of supportive moves in classroom requests remained restricted even at level 3.

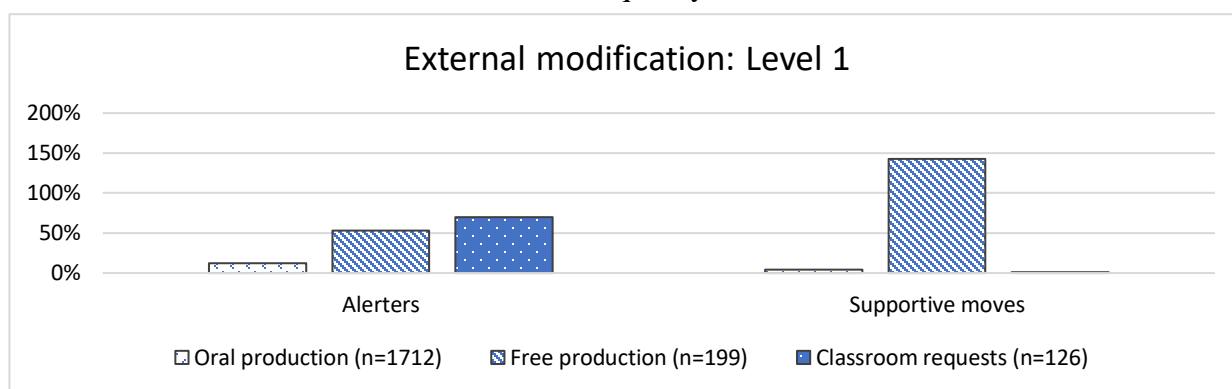
Table 4.30 Frequency of external modifiers in classroom requests per request by level

Level	Alerters (n)	%	Supportive moves (n)	%	Total requests (n)
1	46	70%	1	1%	66
2	12	60%	1	5%	20
3	9	23%	11	28%	40
Total	67	53%	13	10%	126

Since the number of supportive moves across levels was small, the micro-analysis only focused on alerters to examine learners' range of alerters in L2 requests. Findings showed that most of the alerters, especially at level 2 and level 3, consisted of Titles or Roles. In contrast, Level 1 learners showed a greater variation because they also used addressees' First Names as alerters frequently, other than Titles or Roles. They used a little percentage of Attention getters (4%). The use of Titles or Roles almost doubled at level 2 (84%) and it further increased at level 3 (90%). A limited use of First name and Apologies was observed at level 2 with a frequency of 8% each. A limited use of Attention getters and Apologies was found at level 3 with a frequency of 8% and 2% respectively. As the number of requests addressed to teacher and classmates was not even across levels in authentic requests, it might be the main reason for an increased use of Titles or Roles at level 2 and level 3.

4.2.4.4 Comparison of findings across methods: Use of External modifiers.

In this section, the use of external modifiers (alerters and supportive moves) in L2 learners' requests is compared across levels and methods (oral production, free production, and authentic data) to examine the evidence of ILP development with the increase in proficiency. Figure 4.10 below displays the frequency of external modifiers at level 1 per request by method. Findings showed that level 1 learners used a differential frequency of alerters in different methods. The

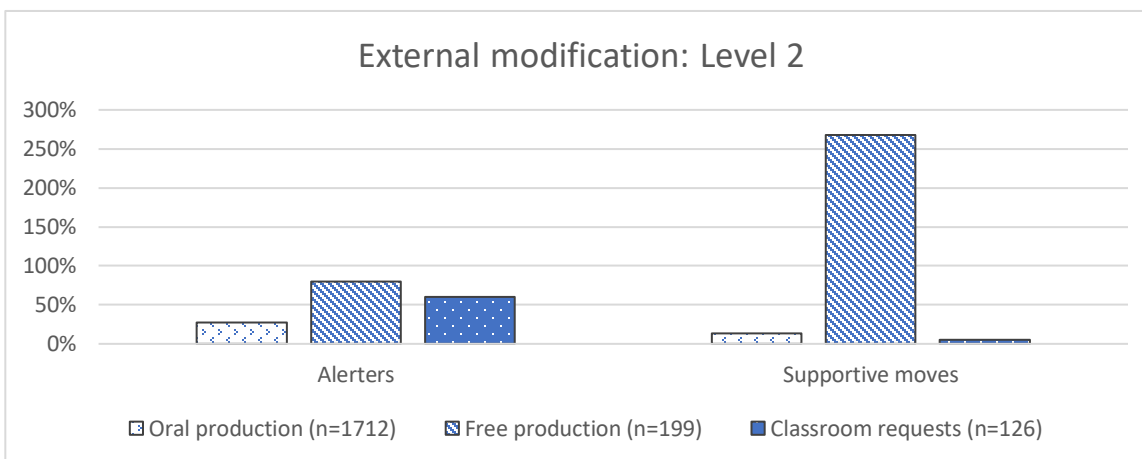


4.10 Frequency of external modifiers at level 1 per request by method

highest frequency of alerters at this level was used in classroom requests. Concerning the supportive moves, level 1 learners' use of alerters was almost non-existent both in oral production and classroom requests. In contrast, level 1 learners showed a frequent use of supportive moves in free production (role plays) data which might be greatly affected by the presence and the support of the interlocutor.

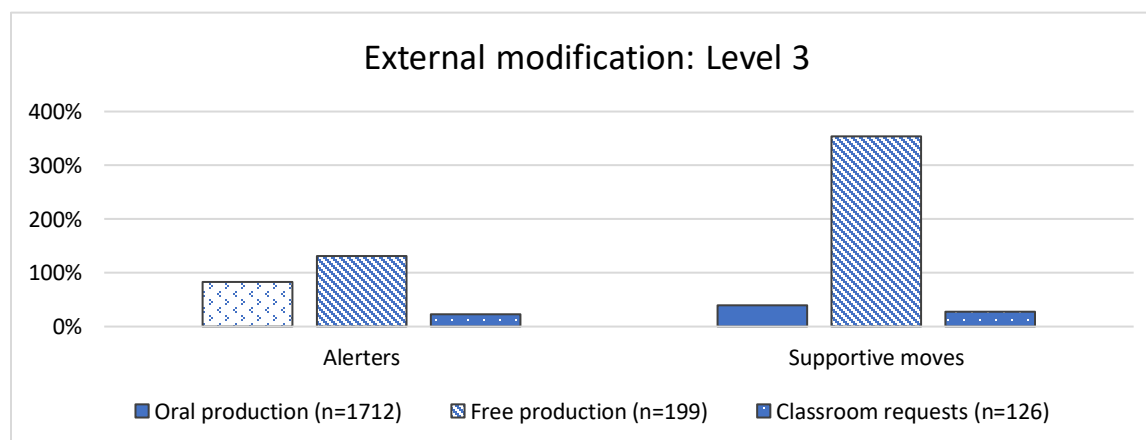
Level 2 learners' frequency of external modifiers was also differential across methods. Figure 4.11 displays the frequency of external modifiers (alerters and supportive moves) at level 2 per request by method. Findings showed that level 2 learners used a higher frequency of alerters than level 1 learners, as evidenced in oral production and free production data. Concerning the use of supportive moves at level 2, learners at this level showed similar tendencies as were found in level 1, that is, learners' use of supportive moves was very limited in

oral production and classroom requests data, but they used a remarkably high frequency of supportive moves in free production data. However, the frequency of supportive moves at level 2 was much higher than level 1, showing substantial development at level 2.



4.11 Frequency of external modifiers at level 2 per request by method

Figure 4.12 displays the frequency of external modifiers at level 3 per request by level. Findings showed that level 3 learners used a higher frequency of alerters than both level 1 and level 2 learners, as shown in oral production and free production data. Regarding the use of supportive moves, level 3 learners also showed a higher tendency of using supportive moves than level 1 and level 2 learners in all methods, especially in free production data.



4.12 Frequency of external modifiers at level 3 per request by method

Main findings of this part of analysis include the use of alerters increased with proficiency in elicited data (oral production, free production). However, opposite trend was observed in classroom requests with increased proficiency. Concerning the use of supportive moves, all types of data showed that the frequency of supportive moves increased with level/proficiency. The increase in the use of supportive moves from level 1 to level 2 was notable but it was more remarkable between level 2 and level 3, especially in oral production and free production data. In the following, we are going to present findings regarding the use and development of modals across levels.

4.2.5 Analysis of the use of modals in different conditions.

Learners in the present study used modals exclusively in conventionally indirect requests which were mostly produced in interrogative form such as “Can I go to the bin *please*?” (Level 3, #18B, item 13). The modals identified in different types of data include “can”, “could”, “may”, and “would”. Findings regarding the use of these modals in different conditions of requests are presented below.

4.2.5.1 Oral production.

Table 4.31 displays the distribution of modals across conventionally indirect requests in COPT data per request by level. Findings showed that “can” is frequently used by learners at all levels, accounting for almost 92% of conventionally indirect requests overall (*e.g.*, “Can you give me a paper please?” #8, Level 1, Item 1). The highest percentage of the use of “can” is found at level 1 (99%), which suggests that level 1 learners evidenced the least variation in their choice of modals in oral production data. An overwhelming reliance on “can” is also found at level 2 because they also realized about 98% of their conventionally indirect requests with “can”.

Table 4.31 Distribution of modals in conventionally indirect requests in COPT data per request by level

Level	Can %		Could %		Would %		May %		Other structures %		Total CI ¹⁶ requests
1	439	99%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	5	1%	444
2	426	97.5%	10	2.3%	0	0%	1	.2%	0	0%	437
3	437	81.5%	71	13.3%	1	.2%	5	.9%	22	4.1%	536

Learners at level 3, on the other hand, showed some development by using a greater variety of modals such as “could” (*e.g.*, “Excuse me mam, could you please um step to the left a little?” #17, Level 3, Item 9), “may” (“Sorry miss, may I go to the toilet please?” #31, Level 2, Item 5), and “would” (“I’m sorry miss. Would you allow me to go to the toilet?” #9, Level 3, Item 5). However, with the exception of “could”, which was used in about 13% of conventionally indirect requests at level 3, the use of other modals at this level was limited.

The statistical analysis using one-way ANOVA test revealed that differences across levels were significant concerning the use of “could” (see table 4.32 below).

Table 4.32 *p*-values of the use of different modals in oral production data across all three levels

The <i>p</i> -value corresponding to the F-statistic of one-way ANOVA test		
	Can	Could
<i>p</i> -value across all levels (20 scenarios)	0.9704	1.1102e-16 ¹⁷

$p < 0.05$

Further analysis of data using post-hoc Tukey HSD test revealed that the level which significantly different from others was level 3 (see table 4.33 below).

¹⁶ CI requests refers to conventionally indirect requests

¹⁷ 1.1102e-16 is a scientific notation (for 0.00000000000000011102) indicating that $p < 0.05$.

Table 4.33 Comparison of different pairs of levels based on p-values corresponding to the post-hoc Tukey HSD test

Post-hoc Tukey HSD test results (p-values)		
Comparison across levels	Can	Could
Level 1 vs. Level 2	0.8999	0.2436
Level 1 vs. Level 3	0.8999	0.0010*
Level 2 vs. Level 3	0.8999	0.0010*

p<0.05

4.2.5.2 Free production.

Table 4.34 displays the distribution of modals (can, could) in conventionally indirect requests in role play interactions. Results showed that “can” was most frequently employed by the majority of learners at all levels. As shown in table 4.34 below, participants at level 1 showed the highest reliance on “can” with a frequency of 95%. Level 2 learners used “can” in 84% of their requests, but their reliance on “can” slightly lowered with the emergence of “could” which was used in about 11% of conventionally indirect requests at this level. In contrast, learners at level 3 showed a greater variation by using modals including “could”, “would”, “may”, and “might” other than “can” in their requests. Nevertheless, it is important to note that modals “would,” “may,” and “might” occurred only once in level 3 learners’ data.

Table 4.34 Distribution of modals in conventionally indirect (CI) requests in role plays by level

Level	Can (n)	%	Could (n)	%	Would (n)	%	May (n)	%	Might (n)	%	other structure (n)	%	Total CI requests (n)
1	61	95 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	3	5 %	64
2	37	84 %	5	11 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	2	5 %	44
3	32	86 %	2	5 %	1	3 %	1	3 %	1	3 %	0	0 %	37

The comparison of learners' progress across levels using one-way ANOVA test showed that learners showed major differences across levels in the use of both “can” as well as “could”, but the difference in the use of “can” across levels was statistically significant.

Table 4.35 p-values of the use of modals in free production data across all three levels

The p-value corresponding to the F-statistic of one-way ANOVA test		
	Can	Could
p-value across all levels (20 scenarios)	0.0080*	0.0665

p<0.05

The post-hoc Tukey HSD test revealed that the level which differed significantly from others concerning the use of “can” was level 1 compared to both level 2 and level 3 (see table 4.36 below).

Table 4.36 Comparison of different pairs of levels based on p-values corresponding to post-hoc Tukey HSD test

Post-hoc Tukey HSD test results (p-values)		
Comparison across levels	Can	Could
Level 1 vs. Level 2	0.0279*	0.0552
Level 1 vs. Level 3	0.0108*	0.5884
Level 2 vs. Level 3	0.8999	0.3195

P<0.05

4.2.5.3 Classroom requests.

Table 4.37 below displays the distribution of modals in classroom requests (authentic data) per conventionally indirect request by level. Findings showed that learners at all levels relied heavily on “can” (e.g., “can you get me some money? I bring it back tomorrow. I need it.” #6, Level 3, Item 8). About 100% of conventionally indirect requests were realized with “can” at level 1, 91% at level 2, and 94% at level 3. No other modal was found in this data. The rest of the conventionally indirect requests at level 2 and level 3 were realized with other structures such as

the interrogative structure with syntactic downgrading function (e.g., “I have authorisation to go to the nurse please?” Level 2, #15B, item 15).

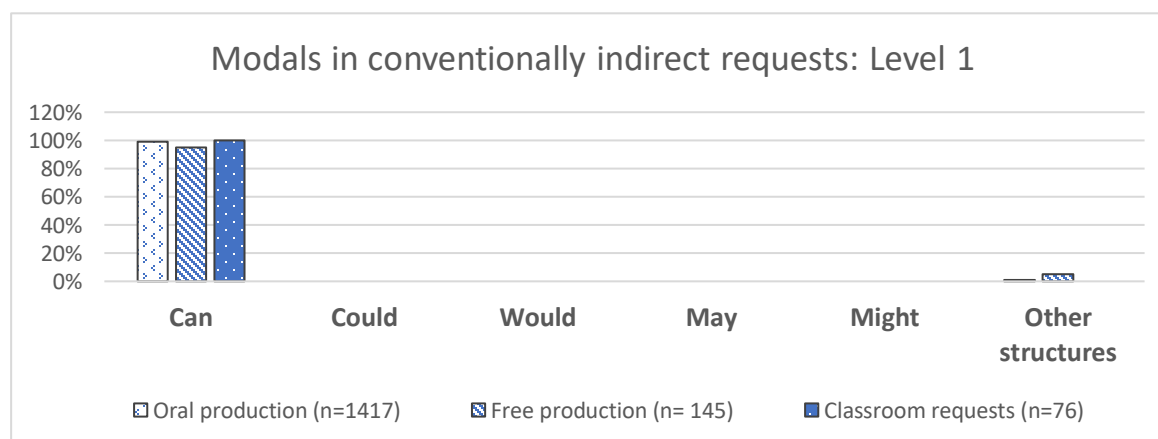
Table 4.37 Distribution of modals in conventionally indirect requests in authentic data by level

	Can	%	Other structure	%	Total conventionally indirect requests
Level 1	49	100%	0	0%	49
Level 2	10	91%	1	9%	11
Level 3	15	94%	1	6%	16
Total	74	97%	2	3%	76

So far, findings regarding the use of modals are presented separately in each dataset (oral production, free production, and classroom requests). In the following section, the use of different modals in conventionally indirect requests is compared across levels and methods in detail.

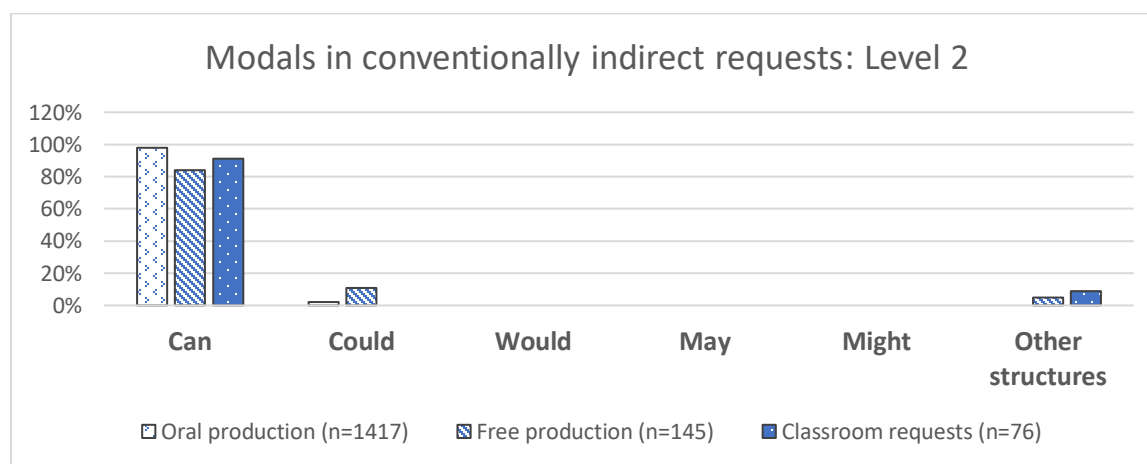
4.2.5.4 Comparison of findings across levels: use of modals.

Figure 4.13 below displays the distribution of modals at level 1. Findings showed that the only modal that level 1 learners used in their requests was “can”. All types of data (oral production, free production, classroom requests) confirm these findings.



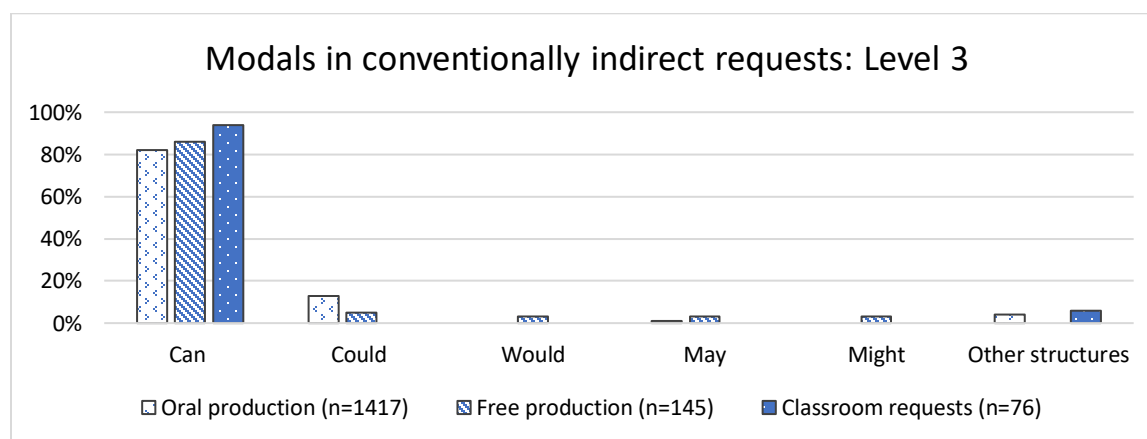
4.13 Distribution of modals across methods at level 1

Concerning the use of modals at level 2, figure 4.14 below displays the distribution of modals in conventionally indirect requests at level 2. Findings showed that “can” remained the most frequent modal at level 2 as well. These learners showed some development by using “could” in some of their requests in free production data. However, the use of “could”



4.14 Distribution of modals across methods at level 2

was deficient at this level. In comparison, findings at level 3 showed some development with the increase in variety of modals at this level. As shown in figure 4.15 below, level 3 learners also relied heavily on “can” but they showed a limited use of a variety of modals, which shows an unprecedented development in this regard.



4.15 Distribution of modals across methods at level 3

So far, the analysis has concerned learners' pragmalinguistic development. Findings showed some evidence of development across levels in the use of request strategies, perspectives, internal and external modifiers, but little development was found concerning the use of syntactic downgraders, upgraders, and the variety of modals. Now we turn to learners' sociopragmatic development.

4.3 Sociopragmatic Development

In this study, learners' sociopragmatic development is measured by examining their awareness / sensitivity to several variables including the status of addressees and the imposition of requests, and how this awareness/sensitivity affects their choice of linguistic choices. In this section, findings of oral production, free production, and classroom requests are analysed to examine learners' sociopragmatic development concerning their choice of request perspectives, request strategies, request modification, and modals. The analysis is based on Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1987) categorisation of requests.

As noted in chapter 3, requests in each type of data were addressed to the teacher (higher status than the speaker) or the classmate (equal status as the speaker). The imposition of requests was controlled in oral production and free production data. The imposition of classroom requests, however, could not be controlled. Thus, findings of oral production and free production data are analysed for effects of both dominance and imposition on the choice of request modifiers and strategies in L2 requests, whereas classroom requests are analysed for dominance only.

In the following, results are presented for request perspectives, request strategies, internal modification, external modification, and modals in different conditions of requests: oral

production, free production, and classroom requests. In each section, findings are presented for the influence of high/low status and high/low imposition on learners' L2 requests.

4.3.1 Situational variations in request perspectives in different conditions.

In this section, findings of different types of request data are presented to examine learners' awareness about effects of situational variation on the choice and the manipulation of request perspectives in L2 requests.

4.3.1.1 Oral production.

Table 4.38 displays the distribution of request perspectives by dominance in oral production data by level along with p-values comparing learners' performance in requests to higher and equal status addressees. Findings showed that learners at all levels showed a visible preference for the hearer dominant perspective (see table 4.1 above for examples) in requests to equal status addressees (77% at level 1, 74% at level 2, 84% at level 3) as compared to requests to higher status addressees (55% at level 1, 49% at level 2, 56% at level 3). Similarly, concerning the use of the speaker dominant perspective, learners at all levels used a relatively higher frequency of this perspective in requests to higher status addressees (40% at level 1, 39% at level 2, 33% at level 3) than equal status addressees (16% at level 1, 21% at level 2, 12% at level 3). With regard to the use of the speaker and hearer dominant perspective, findings showed that only level 2 and level 3 learners used this perspective, especially in requests to higher status addressees. However, no major situational variation was noted regarding the use of the impersonal perspective at all levels. The p-values using the t-tests across requests to higher and equal status addressees also showed no significant variation in the use of different perspectives at all levels.

Table 4.38 Distribution of request perspectives by dominance in oral production data

Request Perspectives: Distribution by dominance														
	Hearer's status	HD (n)	%	p-values	SD (n)	%	p-values	S & HD (n)	%	p-values	Imp ¹⁸ (n)	%	p-values	Total requests
Level 1	Higher	175	55%	0.5826	125	40%	0.0919	0	0%	0.3306	17	5%	0.9470	317
	Equal	204	77%		44	16%		1	0%		18	7%		267
Level 2	Higher	141	49%	0.3617	112	39%	0.2121	7	3%	0.3349	26	9%	0.6162	286
	Equal	181	74%		51	21%		1	0%		12	5%		245
Level 3	Higher	167	56%	0.0531	97	33%	0.1950	15	5%	0.1334	18	6%	0.6172	297
	Equal	252	84%		36	12%		1	0%		11	4%		300

p<0.05

Further statistical analysis using one-way ANOVA test was done to find whether there were some significant differences across levels concerning the use of different perspectives in requests to higher and equal status addressees. Findings showed that differences among levels were not significant (see table 4.39 below).

Table 4.39 p-values comparing all three levels concerning the use of request perspectives in oral production data by dominance

Results of one-way ANOVA test for requests to higher and equal in power addressees								
Comparison across levels	Hearer dominant		Speaker dominant perspective		S & H dominant		Impersonal	
Addressee's status	Higher	Equal	Higher	Equal	Higher	Equal	Higher	Equal
p-values (across all 3 levels)	0.8204	0.0837	0.9007	0.7962	0.2450	1.0000	0.9273	0.8061

p<0.05

As shown in table 4.40 below, the comparison of different pairs of levels using the post-hoc Tukey HSD test further showed that differences between different pairs of levels were not significant concerning the use of request perspectives in requests to addressees with varying social status.

¹⁸ Impersonal

Table 4.40 Comparison of different pairs of levels based on p-values corresponding to the post-hoc Tukey HSD test

Post-hoc Tukey HSD test results (p-values) to higher in power addressees								
	Hearer dominant		Speaker dominant perspective		S & H dominant		Impersonal	
Hearer's status	Higher	Equal	Higher	Equal	Higher	Equal	Higher	Equal
Level 1 vs. Level 2	0.8054192	0.7272920	0.8999947	0.8999947	0.6918910	0.8999947	0.8999947	0.8520099
Level 1 vs. Level 3	0.8999947	0.2862417	0.8888708	0.8999947	0.2161139	0.8999947	0.8999947	0.8023241
Level 2 vs. Level 3	0.8865280	0.0748583	0.8999947	0.7634699	0.6264268	0.8999947	0.8999947	0.8999947

p<0.05

Analysis of request perspectives is also done for the imposition of requests. Table 4.41 displays the distribution of request perspectives in oral production data (COPT) by imposition and level. The p-values using t-tests are also displayed in table 4.41, comparing the use of specific request perspectives in high and low imposition requests at all levels. Findings showed that learners (at all levels) did not show any variation in high and low imposition requests concerning the use of the hearer dominant and the speaker and hearer dominant perspective. However, learners at all levels used a slightly higher frequency of the speaker dominant perspective in low imposition requests compared to high imposition requests: compare 23% with 33% at level 1, 21% with 38% at level 2, and 15% with 28% at level 3 in high and low imposition requests respectively. However, learners at all levels used a somewhat higher frequency of the impersonal perspective in high imposition requests (11% at level 1, 15 % at level 2, 10% at level 3) than low imposition requests (3% at level 1, 1% at level 2, 1% level 3). Interestingly, learners at all levels chose similar perspectives in their requests in different contexts. The p-values across high and low imposition requests showed that the difference in use of diverse perspectives was not statistically significant.

Table 4.41 distribution of request perspective in oral production data per request by imposition

Division of oral production data by imposition: Request perspectives														
Level	I ¹⁹	HD	%	p-values	SD ²⁰	%	p-values	S & HD	%	p-values	Imp ²¹	%	p-values	Total
1	High	156	65.6%	0.5794	55	23%	0.3928	1	.4%	0.2806	26	11%	0.1585	238
	Low	223	64%		114	33%		0	0%		9	3%		346
2	High	145	61%	0.9964	49	21%	0.3206	6	3%	0.4403	36	15%	0.1636	236
	Low	177	60%		114	38%		2	1%		2	1%		295
3	High	189	71%	0.9844	40	15%	0.4032	10	4%	0.5570	26	10%	0.0507	265
	Low	230	69%		93	28%		6	2%		3	1%		332

p<0.05

The statistical analyses using one-way ANOVA indicated that the use of different perspectives in high and low imposition requests across levels was not significant (see table 4.42).

Table 4.42 p-values concerning the use of request perspective in oral production data across levels by imposition

Results of one-way ANOVA test for high and low imposition requests								
Request perspective	Hearer dominant		Speaker dominant perspective		S & H dominant		Impersonal	
Degree of imposition	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Comparison across levels	0.5402	0.5585	0.9342	0.9026	0.5547	0.3642	0.9079	0.0966

p<0.05

So far, learners' sociopragmatic development across levels is presented in oral production data. In the following, findings of free production data are presented on the same lines.

4.3.1.2 Free production.

In this section, the use of request perspectives is analysed in free production (role play) data by dominance and imposition. Table 4.43 displays the distribution of request perspectives in free production data by dominance per request by level. Findings showed that level 1 and level 2 learners used the hearer dominant perspective more frequently in requests to higher status

¹⁹ Imposition

²⁰ SD refers to "Speaker dominant perspective", HD refers to "hearer dominant"

²¹ Impersonal

addressees than equal status addressees (83% as compared to 75% at level 2, 61% as compared to 56% at level 2). Level 1 learners, on the other hand, showed no variation in the use of hearer dominant perspective. Concerning the use of other perspectives, learners did not show any discernible variation in requests to equal and higher status addressees at all levels. Results also indicated that differences in the use of different request perspectives in requests to higher and equal status addressees were not significant.

Table 4.43 Distribution of request perspective in free production data by dominance per request by level

Request perspectives by dominance: Free production data (Role plays)																
Level	Hearer Status	HD	%	p-values	S D	%	p-values	S & HD	%	p-values	Imp ²²	%	p-values	U ²³	%	Total
1	Higher	31	74 %	0.7921	9	22 %	0.6932	0	0 %	0.3559	1	2%	0.6704	1	2 %	42
	Equal	33	73 %		7	17 %		2	4 %		2	4%		1	2 %	45
2	Higher	21	75 %	0.9371	6	21 %	0.4532	0	0 %	0	0	0%	0	1	4 %	28
	Equal	20	83 %		4	17 %		0	0 %		0	0%		0	0 %	24
3	Higher	15	56 %	0.3785	9	33 %	0.8748	2	7 %	0.6704	1	4%	0.5370	0	0 %	27
	Equal	20	61 %		10	30 %		1	3 %		2	6%		0	0 %	33

p<0.05

The use of different perspectives in requests to higher and equal status addressees was compared across levels using one-way ANOVA test (see table 4.44 below) which also showed that differences across levels were not significant.

Table 4.44 p-values concerning the use of request perspective in free production data across levels by dominance

Results of one-way ANOVA test for requests to higher and equal status addresses across all three levels								
	Hearer dominant		Speaker dominant perspective		S & H dominant		Impersonal	
Addressee's status	Higher in power	Equal in power	Higher in power	Equal in power	Higher in power	Equal in power	Higher in power	High Equal in power
Comparison across all three levels	0.2289	0.2822	0.7805	0.5305	0.4053	0.5694	0.6224	0.4997

²² Impersonal

²³ "U" refers to "unclear", HD refers to "hearer dominant", SD refers to "speaker dominant"

Free production data is also analysed for effects of imposition on the choice of request perspectives in L2 requests. Table 4.45 displays the distribution of request perspectives across levels by imposition. Findings showed that the use of the hearer dominant perspective was comparable across high and low imposition requests at all levels (76% in high and 71% in low imposition at level 1, 79% in both high and low imposition requests at level 2, and 59% in high and 58% in low imposition requests at level 3). Little variation, however, was found in the use of speaker dominant requests in which learners at all levels used slightly higher frequency of speaker dominant perspectives in low imposition requests compared to high imposition requests.

Table 4.45 Distribution of request perspectives in free production data by imposition per request by level

Division of Request Perspectives by imposition: Role plays																
Level	I ²⁴	HD %		p-values	SD %		p-values	S&H %		p-values	Impersonal %		p-values	Unclear %		Total head acts
1	Big	29	76%	0.1340	6	16%	1.0000	0	0%	0.4816	3	8%	0.0554	0	0%	38
	Small	35	71%		10	21%		2	4%		0	0%		2	4%	49
2	Big	11	79%	0.4650	2	14%	0.3574	0	0%	0	0	0%	0	1	7%	14
	Small	30	79%		8	21%		0	0%		0	0%		0	0%	38
3	Big	16	59%	0.2880	7	26%	0.9676	3	11%	0.0554	1	4%	0.8754	0	0%	27
	small	19	58%		12	36%		0	0%		2	6%		0	0%	33

p<0.05

Similarly, no major patterns of development were found in the use of the impersonal perspective. The p-values (using t-tests) also indicated that the variation in learners' requests in high and low imposition requests was not significant (see table 4.45 above). The comparison across levels using one-way ANOVA test (see table 4.46 below) showed that differences across

²⁴ Imposition

Table 4.46 *p*-values concerning the use of request perspective in free production data across levels by imposition

One-way ANOVA test results (<i>p</i> -values) for high and low imposition requests								
Request perspectives	Hearer dominant		Speaker dominant perspective		S & H dominant		Impersonal	
Degree of imposition	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High
Comparison across all three levels (<i>p</i> -values)	0.1990	0.1330	0.8159	0.2963	0.3966	0.1250	0.1101	0.2519

$p < 0.05$

levels in the use of request perspectives in high and low imposition requests were overall not significant.

4.3.1.3 Request perspectives: classroom requests.

In this section, the use of request perspectives is examined in classroom requests to investigate the effect of addressee's status on the use of perspectives in authentic requests. The impact of imposition, however, could not be examined because the imposition of classroom requests could not be assessed empirically unlike scenarios in oral production and free production data.

Table 4.47 displays the distribution of request perspectives by dominance in classroom requests by level. Findings showed a substantial variation in the use of request perspectives in different contexts. However, *t*-tests could not be conducted for this data because the number of requests addressed to higher and equal status addressees were not controlled. Findings showed that learners at all levels used the hearer dominant perspective with small frequency in requests

Table 4.47 *Distribution of request perspectives by dominance in classroom requests by level*

Request perspective by dominance: Authentic data										
Level	Addressee' Status	HD	%	SD	%	S & H dominant	%	Impersonal	%	Total
1	Higher	2	5%	35	87.5%	0	0%	3	7.5%	40
	Equal	19	73%	2	8%	0	0%	5	19%	26
2	Higher	2	13.3%	11	73.4%	0	0%	2	13.3%	15
	Equal	3	60%	1	20%	0	0%	1	20%	5
3	Higher	8	23%	14	40%	3	8.5%	10	28.5%	35
	Equal	3	60%	1	20%	0	0%	1	20%	5

to higher in status addressees (5% at level 1, 13.3% at level 2, 23% at level 3). However, they used this perspective very frequently in requests to equal status addressees (73% at level 1, 60% at level 2, and 60% at level 2). A relative increase in the use of speaker dominant perspectives was found in requests to higher status addressees at all levels (87.5% at level 1, 73.4% at level 2, and 40% at level 3), as compared to requests to equal status addressees (8% at level 1, 20% at level 2, 20% at level 3). With respect to the use of the impersonal perspective, level 1 and level 2 learners used a higher percentage in requests to equal status addressees. However, level 3 learners used the impersonal perspective more frequently in requests to higher status addressees.

4.3.1.4 Comparison of findings across methods: request perspectives.

In this section, the use of request perspectives in different contexts and methods is compared across levels. Figures 4.16 and 4.17 display the distribution of request perspectives in requests to higher and equal status addressees respectively, at level 1. Findings showed that level 1 learners showed preference for the hearer dominant perspective in requests to higher as well as equal status addressees, though with greater frequency in equal status requests. Concerning the use of the speaker dominant perspective, learners used a relatively higher frequency in requests to higher status addressees. With regard to the use of the speaker and hearer and the impersonal

perspective, learners showed no significant variation in requests to higher and equal status addressees.

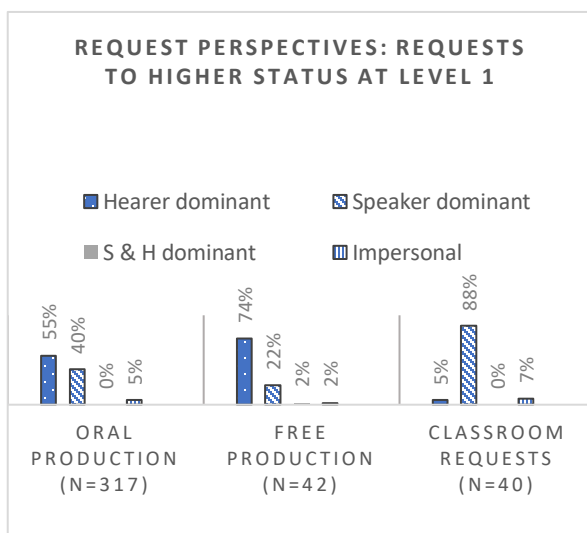


Figure 4.16 request perspective in requests to higher status at level 1

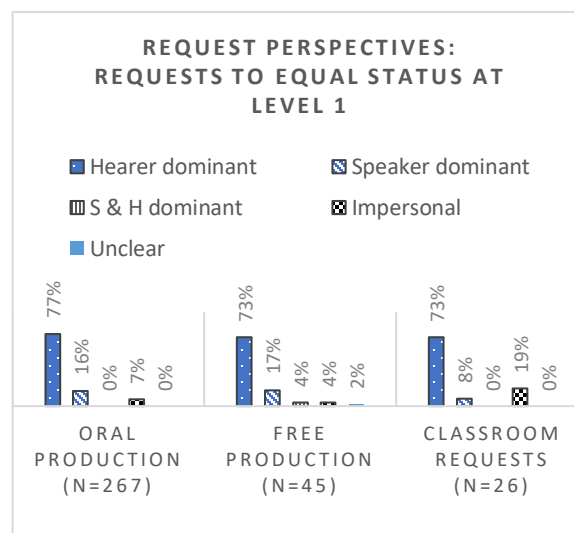


Figure 4.17 request perspective in requests to equal status at level 1

Figures 4.18 and 4.19 display the distribution of request perspectives in requests to higher and equal status addressees, at level 2. Findings revealed that level 2 learners showed similar patterns of development as were found at level 1 concerning the use of request perspectives in both types of requests (addressed to higher and equal status addressees). Learners used the hearer dominant perspective more frequently in requests to equal status addressees, as compared to requests to equal status addressees. Likewise, level 2 learners' use of the speaker dominant perspective was greater in requests to higher status addressees. Although, the use of the impersonal perspective was low in both types of requests, learners used slightly higher frequency

of impersonal perspectives in requests to equal status addressees. However, the use of the speaker and hearer dominant perspective was too restricted at this level to merit any discussion.

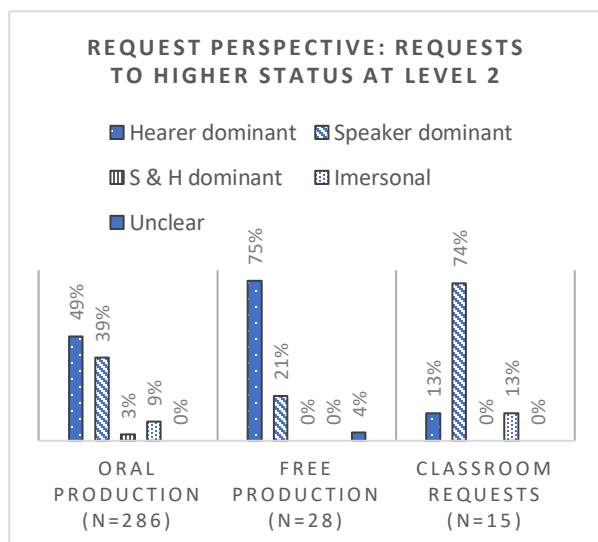


Figure 4.18 request perspective in requests to higher status at level 2

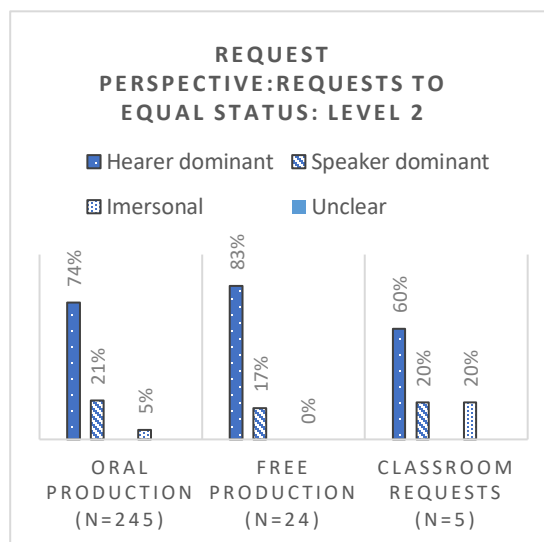


Figure 4.19 request perspective in requests to equal status at level 2

Figures 4.20 and 4.21 display the distribution of request perspectives in level 3 learners' requests to higher and equal status addressees respectively. Findings showed that level 3 learners also used the hearer dominant perspective more frequently in requests to equal status addressees. In contrast, the use of speaker dominant, impersonal, and speaker and hearer dominant perspectives were relatively higher in requests to higher status addressees.

Overall, findings revealed that all levels indicated similar trends in the choice of request perspectives by frequently using hearer dominant perspective in all types of requests. Learners showed higher variation in the choice of request perspectives in requests to higher status addressees across methods, especially at level 3.

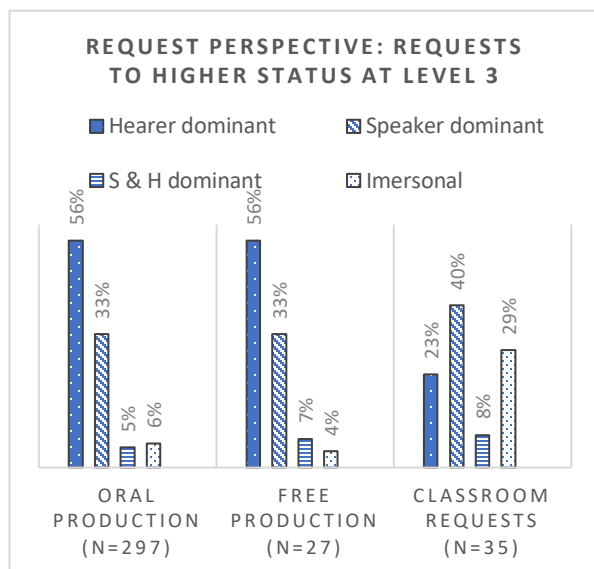


Figure 4.20 request perspective in requests to higher status at level 3

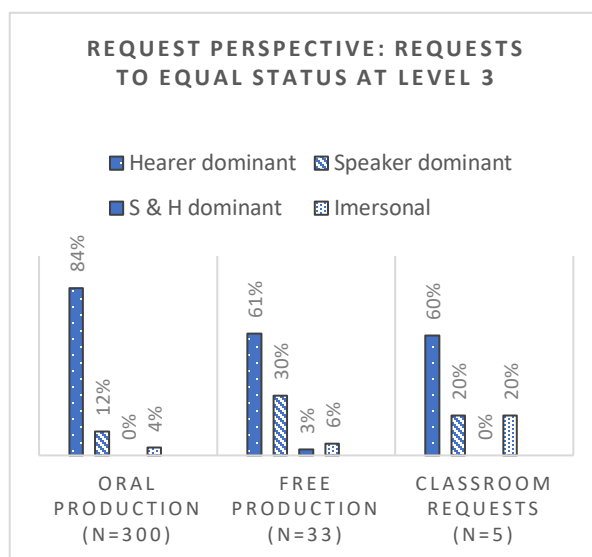


Figure 4.21 request perspective in requests to equal status at level 3

In the following, a comparison of findings regarding the use of request perspectives in high and low imposition requests across levels is presented. Figures 4.22 and 4.23 display the distribution of request perspectives in high and low imposition requests in different conditions

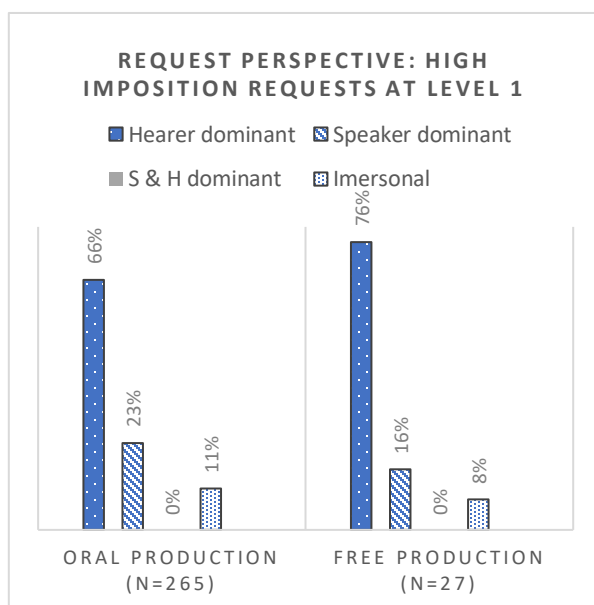


Figure 4.22 Request perspective in high imposition requests at level 1

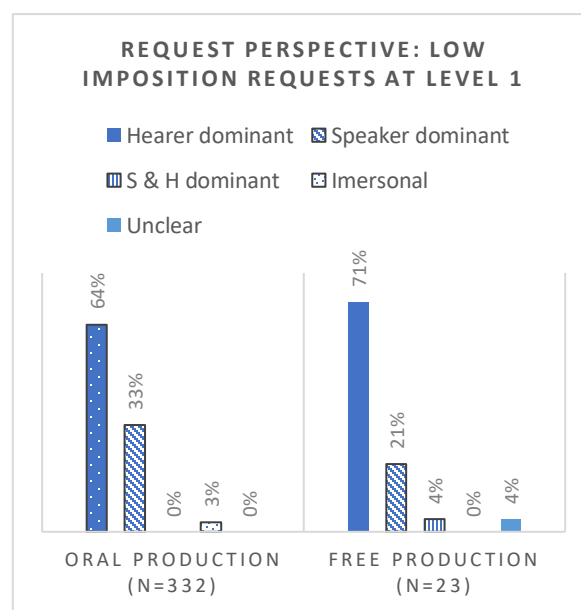


Figure 4.23 Request perspective in low imposition requests at level 1

(oral productions, free production, and classroom requests) at level 1. Findings showed that level 1 learners used the hearer dominant perspective both in high and low imposition requests, although with slightly higher frequency in high imposition requests. In contrast, the use of the speaker dominant perspective was slightly more frequent in low imposition requests. The use of speaker and hearer dominant perspective, on the other hand, was rare in both high and low imposition requests. However, the use of the impersonal perspective was more frequent in high imposition requests.

Figures 4.24 and 4.25 display the distribution of request perspectives in high and low imposition requests respectively at level 2. Findings indicated that level 2 learners showed no significant variation in the use of the hearer dominant perspective in high and low imposition

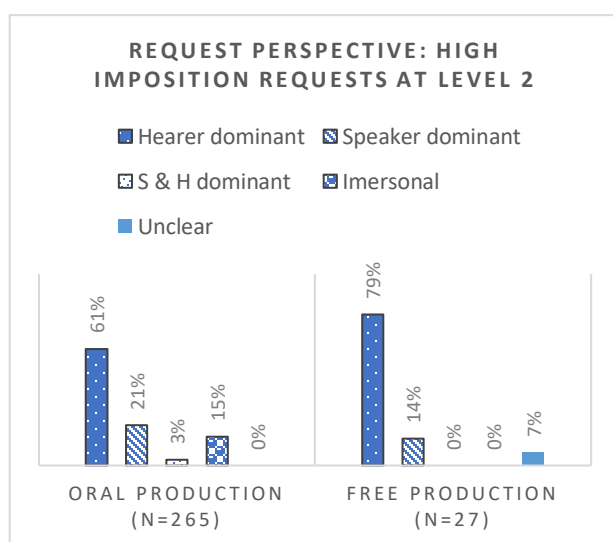


Figure 4.24 Request perspective in high imposition requests at level 2

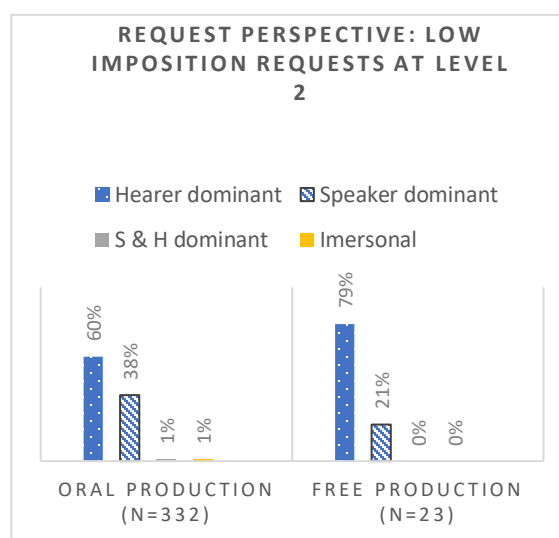


Figure 4.25 Request perspective in low imposition requests at level 2

requests. However, they used the speaker dominant perspective relatively more frequently in high imposition requests. Similarly, the use of the impersonal perspective was also found in high imposition requests only. However, the use of speaker and hearer dominant perspectives at this level was very limited.

Figures 4.26 and 4.27 display the comparison of high and low imposition requests concerning the use of request perspectives at level 3. Findings showed that the use of the hearer dominant perspective was comparable in both high and low imposition requests, like level 2. The use of the speaker dominant perspective, in contrast, was higher in low imposition requests.

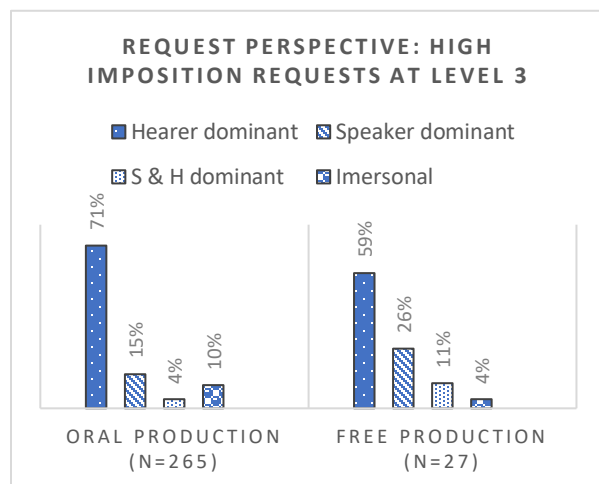


Figure 4.26 Request perspective in high imposition requests at level 3

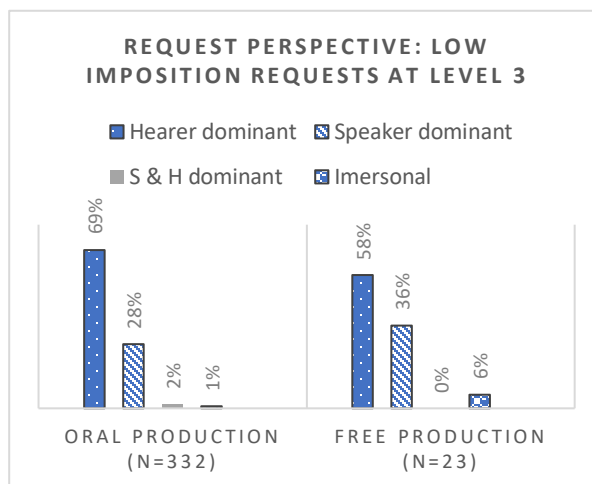


Figure 4.27 Request perspective in low imposition requests at level 3

Learners also used a greater frequency of impersonal, and speaker and hearer dominant perspectives in high imposition requests.

Overall findings presented in this section indicated that learners at all levels showed a little variation across high and low imposition requests concerning the choice of request perspectives. They employed hearer dominant perspective in majority of requests and showed a little difference across methods and levels. So far, learners' sociopragmatic development concerning the choice of request perspectives has been examined across levels using multiple methods. In the following, learners' progress with regard to their choice of request strategies is investigated in detail.

4.3.2 Situational variation in request strategies in different conditions.

In this section, the use of request strategies is analysed based on results of several measures (oral production, free production, classroom/authentic requests) to examine learners' sociopragmatic development across levels under study.

4.3.2.1 Request strategies: oral production.

Table 4.48 displays the distribution of request strategies in oral production data by dominance. Findings showed that little variation across requests to higher and equal status addressees was found at all levels. Compared to other levels, the highest level of variation was found at level 1. Learners at this level used the direct strategy more frequently in requests to equal status addressees (28%) as compared to higher status addressees (17%). The variation in the choice of the direct strategy was found with much lower frequency at level 2 and level 3 (see table 4.56 below). Comparably, learners at all levels used conventionally indirect strategies more frequently in requests to higher status addressees (82% at level 1, 85% at level 2, and 94% at level 3) compared to equal status addressees (69% at level 1, 79% at level 2, and 86% at level 3). Concerning the use of nonconventionally indirect strategies, even if the use of this strategy was

Table 4.48 Distribution of request strategies in oral production data by dominance per request by level

Distribution of request strategy in oral production data by dominance												
	Hearer's status	Direct	%	P-values	CI	%	P-values	NCI	%	P-values	Total	%
Level 1	Higher	55	17%	0.2251	259	82%	0.1231	3	1%	0.1589	317	100%
	Equal	73	28%		185	69%		9	3%		267	100%
Level 2	Higher	41	14.4%	0.9480	244	85.3%	0.1765	1	.3%	0.0723	286	100%
	Equal	43	18%		193	79%		9	3%		245	100%
Level 3	Higher	18	6.1%	0.6578	278	93.6%	0.4041	1	.3%	0.0390	297	100%
	Equal	24	8%		94	86%		18	6%		300	100%

p<0.05

infrequent at all levels, learners used a slightly higher percentage of this strategy in requests to equal status addressees. The statistical analysis using t-tests indicated that the difference in the choice of strategies across requests to higher and equal status addressees at all levels was not significant, except at level 3 in the use of nonconventionally indirect requests.

In order to examine learners' sociopragmatic development across levels, learners' performance was compared both in requests to higher and equal status addressees. As shown in table 4.49 below, findings of one-way ANOVA test indicated that differences across levels in the choice of requests strategies were not significant.

Table 4.49 p-values of the use of request strategies in requests oral production data across levels by dominance

Results for one-way ANOVA for requests to higher and equal status addressees						
	Direct		Conventionally indirect		Nonconventionally indirect	
Hearer's status	Higher	Equal	Higher	Equal	Higher	Equal
Comparison across all three levels (p-values)	0.8349	0.1050	0.6552	0.1013	0.4095	0.4114

$p < 0.05$

Oral production data is also analysed for effects of imposition on the choice of request strategies in L2 requests. Table 4.50 displays the distribution of request strategies in oral production data by imposition per request by level. Findings showed that learners used direct strategies ("Give me a paper." Level 2, #1A, item 1) more frequently in high imposition requests at all levels: compare 33% in high imposition requests with 14% in low imposition requests at level 1, 28% with 6% at level 2, and 14% with 1% at level 3. Even though the use of the conventionally indirect strategy was the most frequent at all levels, but learners at all levels showed a relatively higher tendency of using the conventionally indirect strategy ("Can you give me money please?" (Level 3, #23A, item 8) in low imposition requests: compare 65% in high imposition requests as compared to 84% in low imposition request at level 1, 70% compared to

92% at level 2, and 83% with 95% at level 3. However, learners at all levels showed no substantial variation in the use of nonconventionally indirect strategy in low and high imposition requests. The statistical analysis using t-tests indicated that learners' use of specific requests strategies in high and low imposition requests were not significant.

Table 4.50 Distribution of request strategies in oral production data by imposition per request by level

Request strategies: distribution by imposition in oral production data											
Level	Imposition	Direct	%	P-values	CI	%	P-values	NCI	%	P-values	Total requests
1	High	78	33%	0.2171	154	65%	0.0503	6	2%	0.7829	238
	Low	50	14%		290	84%		6	2%		346
2	High	65	28%	0.0610	166	70%	0.0982	5	2%	0.8291	236
	Low	19	6%		271	92%		5	2%		295
3	High	38	14%	0.0638	219	83%	0.0519	8	3%	0.8994	265
	Low	4	1.2%		317	95.5%		11	3.3%		332

In order to compare learners' performance in high and low imposition requests across levels, one-way ANOVA test was conducted. As shown in table 4.51 below, findings showed that learners evidenced a little difference across levels except in low imposition requests in which the difference across levels was significant.

Table 4.51 p-values of the use of request strategies in requests oral production data across levels by imposition

Results for one-way ANOVA test (p-values) for high and low imposition requests						
	Direct		Conventionally indirect		Nonconventionally indirect	
Degree of imposition	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Comparison across levels	0.5439	0.0007*	0.1613	0.4241	0.8663	0.6271

p<0.05

As shown in table 4.52 below, further analysis using post-hoc Tukey HSD test revealed that the level which differed significantly from the other two was level 1: compare the use of direct strategy in low imposition requests at level 1 vs. level 2 and level 3.

Table 4.52 Comparison of different pairs of levels based on p-values corresponding to the post-hoc Tukey HSD test

Post-hoc Tukey HSD test results (p-values) for high and low imposition requests						
Comparison across levels	Direct		Conventionally indirect		Nonconventionally indirect	
Degree of imposition	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Level 1 vs. Level 2	0.8999947	0.0208000*	0.8999947	0.8373192	0.8999947	0.8999947
Level 1 vs. Level 3	0.5259245	0.0010053*	0.1706196	0.7062271	0.8999947	0.7169432
Level 2 vs. Level 3	0.7291581	0.3655365	0.2995170	0.3955916	0.8501390	0.6305976

p<0.05

Overall, findings of oral production data indicated that the differences across levels in the use of request strategies by dominance as well as by imposition were mostly not significant. In the following, learners' use of request strategies in different contexts (high/low imposition requests to higher/equal status addressees) across levels is examined in free production data.

4.3.2.2 Request strategies: free production.

Table 4.53 below displays the distribution of request strategies in free production data by dominance. Findings showed that learners exhibited a little variation in the use of direct strategies in requests to both high and equal status addressees (compare 10% to higher status with 9% to equal status at level 1, 14% with 8% at level 2, and 11% with 12% at level 3). Concerning the use of conventionally indirect strategies, findings showed that learners used a slightly higher percentage of conventionally indirect strategy in requests to equal status addressees (76% at level 1, 79% at level 2, 67% at level 3) as compared to higher status addressees (71% at level 1, 79% at level 2, 56% at level 3). With respect to the use of nonconventionally indirect requests, learners at all levels used a higher percentage of this strategy in requests to higher status addressees than requests to equal status addressees.

Table 4.53 Distribution of request strategies by dominance in free production data per request by level

Request strategies by dominance: Free production (role plays)											
Level	Hearer's status	Direct	%	p-values	CI	%	p-values	NCI	%	p-values	Total head acts
1	Higher	4	10%	1.000	30	71%	0.4454	8	19%	0.8619	42
	Equal	4	9%		34	76%		7	15%		45
2	Higher	4	14%	0.4680	22	79%	1.0000	2	7%	0.1340	28
	Equal	2	8%		22	92%		0	0%		24
3	Higher	3	11%	0.7502	15	56%	0.1532	9	33%	0.7681	27
	Equal	4	12%		22	67%		7	21%		33

p<0.05

The comparison of learners' performance across levels using one-way ANOVA test showed that the difference across levels in the use of request strategies (direct, conventionally indirect, nonconventionally indirect) in requests to higher and equal status addressees was not significant (see table 4.54 below).

Table 4.54 p-values of the use of request strategies in free production data across all three levels by dominance

One-way ANOVA test results (p-values) for requests to higher and equal status addressees						
	Direct		Conventionally indirect		Nonconventionally indirect	
Addressee's status	Higher	Equal	Higher	Equal	Higher	Equal
Comparison across all three levels (p-values)	0.9331	1.0000	0.2293	0.2867	0.3786	0.2864

p<0.05

Table 4.55 displays the distribution of request strategies by imposition in free production data per request by level. Findings showed that the use of direct strategy was relatively greater in high imposition requests at all levels as compared to low imposition requests, especially at level 1 (16% compared to 4%) and level 3 (18.5% compared to 6%). However, the use of the conventionally indirect strategy was comparable in high and low imposition requests at all levels. Regarding the use of nonconventionally indirect strategy, findings showed that learners used a higher percentage of this strategy in low imposition requests (23% at level 1, 5% at level 2, 33%

at level 3) compared to high imposition requests (10% at level 1, 0% at level 2, and 18.5% at level 3). Results of t-tests (p-values) showed that the difference in the choice of request strategies in high and low imposition requests was not significant, at any level.

Table 4.55 Distribution of request strategies by imposition in free production data per request by level

Request strategies by imposition: Free production data											
Level	Imposition	Direct	%	P-values	CI	%	P-values	NCI	%	P-values	Total head acts
1	High	6	16%	0.0924	28	74%	0.0790	4	10%	0.5535	38
	Low	2	4%		36	73%		11	23%		49
2	High	2	14%	0.8546	12	86%	0.4624		0%	0.2666	14
	Low	4	11%		32	84%		2	5%		38
3	High	5	18.5%	0.0740	17	63%	0.1947	5	18.5%	0.7606	27
	Low	2	6%		20	61%		11	33%		33

p<0.05

As shown in table 4.56 below, comparison of the use of request strategies in low and high imposition requests across levels using one-way ANOVA test also revealed that the difference across levels was not significant.

Table 4.56 p-values of the use of request strategies in free production data across all three levels by imposition

One-way ANOVA test results (p-values) for high and low imposition requests						
	Direct		Conventionally indirect		Nonconventionally indirect	
	low imposition	High imposition	low imposition	High imposition	low imposition	High imposition
Comparison across all three levels	0.5566	0.5060	0.1677	0.1529	0.2877	0.2282

p<0.05

In this section, findings regarding the use of request strategies in different conditions (low/high imposition requests to equal/higher status addressees) in free production data are presented. Overall, findings indicated that learners showed a notable variation in the use of

different strategies across levels but most of the differences were not statistically significant. The use of request strategies is further examined in authentic data in the following.

4.3.2.3 Request strategies: classroom requests.

In this section, findings regarding learners' use of strategies in high/low imposition requests to higher/equal status addressees is examined in authentic data. Table 4.57 below displays the distribution of request strategies by dominance in classroom requests by level. Findings showed that learners used a remarkably higher percentage of direct strategies in requests to equal status addressees (15.5% at level 1, 60% at level 2, 60% at level 3) compared to higher status addressees (10% at level 1, 13.3% at level 2, 20% at level 3). However, the use of conventionally indirect strategies was relatively more frequent in requests to higher status addressees (82.5% at level 1, 60% at level 2, 46% at level 3) than equal status addressees (61.5% at level 1, 40% at level 2, 0% at level 3) at all levels. Surprisingly, learners at level 3 did not use the conventionally indirect strategy at all in requests to equal status addressees. Regarding the use of nonconventionally indirect strategies, level 1 and level 3 learners used a higher percentage of this strategy in requests to equal status addressees (7.5% vs. 23% at level 1, 34% vs. 40% at level 2),

Table 4.57 Distribution of request strategies by dominance in classroom requests by level

Request strategies by dominance: Classroom requests									
	Hearers' status	Direct	%	CI ²⁵	%	NCI ²⁶	%	Total	%
Level 1	Higher	4	10%	33	82.5%	3	7.5%	40	100%
	Equal	4	15.5%	16	61.5%	6	23%	26	100%
Level 2	Higher	2	13.3%	9	60%	4	26.7%	15	100%
	Equal	3	60%	2	40%	0	0%	5	100%
Level 3	Higher	7	20%	16	46%	12	34%	35	100%
	Equal	3	60%	0	0%	2	40%	5	100%
Total		23	18.3%	76	60.3%	27	21.4%	126	100%

²⁵ CI refers to "conventionally indirect requests"

²⁶ NCI refers to "nonconventionally indirect requests"

as compared to level 2 learners who used a higher percentage of nonconventional indirectness in requests to higher status addressees (26% vs. 0%). The statistical analysis of authentic data was not performed due to the lack of control over the type of scenarios involved in authentic requests.

4.3.2.4 Comparison of findings across methods: request strategies.

In this section, the use of request strategies in different social situations and elicitation methods is compared across levels. Figures 4.28 and 4.29 below display the distribution of request strategies in requests to higher and equal status addressees respectively, at level 1. Findings showed that level 1 learners used conventionally indirect requests frequently in both types of requests: requests to higher and equal status addressees. These learners showed only a little

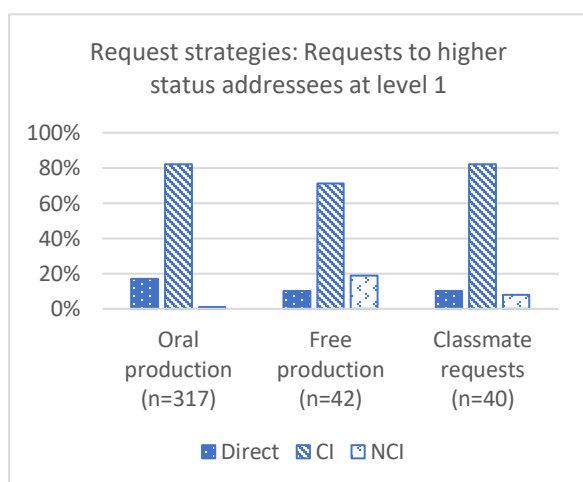


Figure 4.28 Request strategies in requests to higher status addressees at level 1

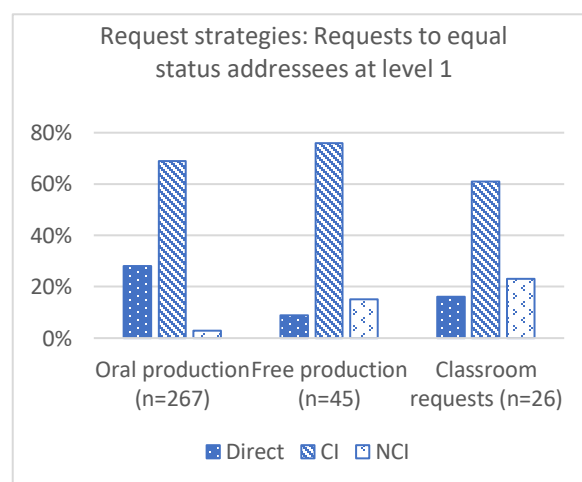


Figure 4.29 Request strategies in requests to equal status addressees at level 1

variation in the choice of request strategies by using direct and nonconventionally indirect strategies with a slightly higher frequency in requests to equal status addressees as compared to requests to higher status addressees. Figures 4.30 and 4.31 display the distribution of request strategies in requests to higher and equal status addressees respectively, at level 2.

Compared to level 1, findings revealed that level 2 learners showed a little more variation in the choice of request strategies in requests to higher status addressees compared to requests to equal status addressees. Even though conventionally indirect requests remained a preferred choice by level 2 learners in both types of requests but they used a small frequency of conventionally indirect strategy in requests to higher status addressees (as shown in free production and classroom requests). However, they did not use this strategy in requests to equal status addressees with as much frequency. Rather, they used the direct strategy more frequently in requests to equal status addressees. However, these differences in the choice of request strategies across different contexts at this level were not statistically significant.

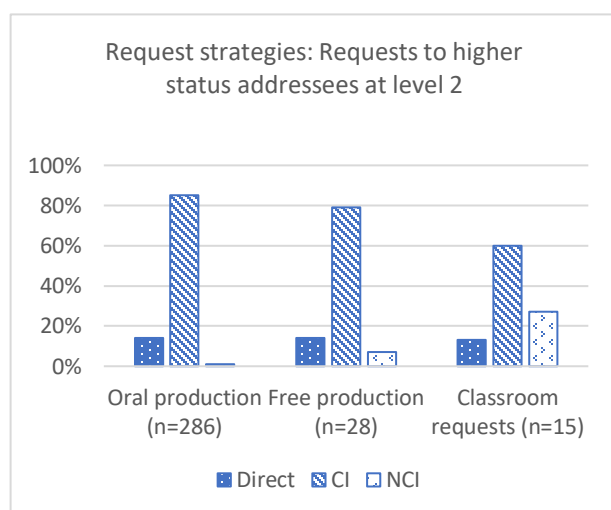


Figure 4.30 Request strategies in requests to higher status addressees at level 2

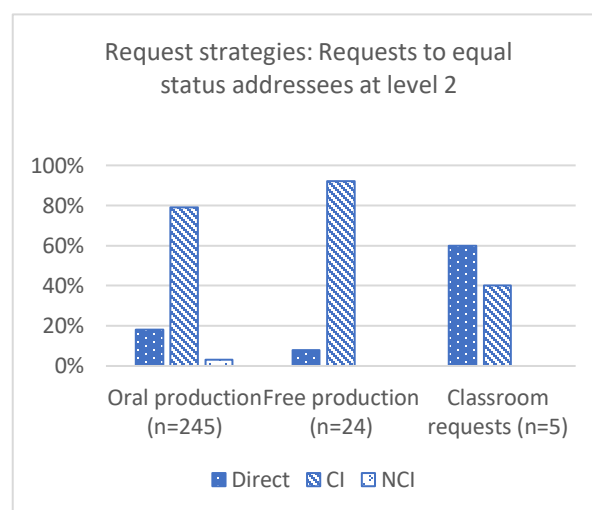


Figure 4.31 Request strategies in requests to equal status addressees at level 2

Figures 4.32 and 4.33 display the distribution of request strategies in requests to higher and equal status addressees respectively, at level 3. Findings showed that conventionally indirect strategies were predominantly used at level 3 as well, in both types of requests under study: requests to higher and to equal status addressees. However, as expected, level 3 learners showed a much higher variation in the choice of request strategies than level 1 and level 2 learners across

different elicitation methods, especially in role plays and classroom requests. In oral production data, in contrast, learners showed very similar tendencies which were found in both lower levels.

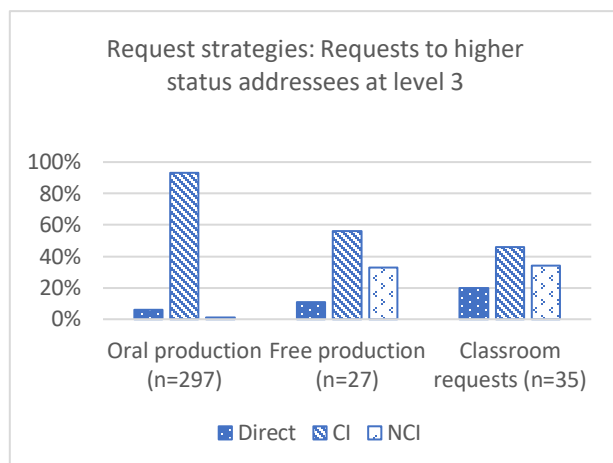


Figure 4.32 Request strategies in requests to higher status addressees at level 3

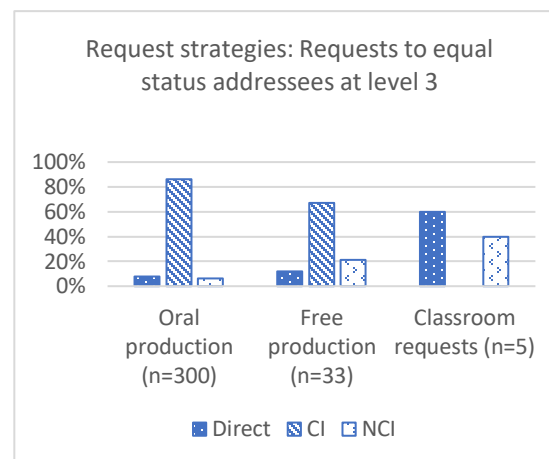


Figure 4.33 Request strategies in requests to equal status addressees at level 3

Overall, findings indicated that learners at all levels used conventionally indirect strategies predominantly in both types of requests: requests to higher and equal status addressees. However, learners at all levels showed one major variation in the use of strategies by using a slightly higher frequency of direct strategy in requests to equal status addressees than in requests to higher status addressees.

In the following, learners' performance in high and low imposition requests across levels and elicitation methods is compared. Figures 4.34 and 4.35 display the distribution of request strategies in high and low imposition requests in different conditions (oral productions, free production, classroom requests) at level 1. Findings showed that level 1 learners showed similar patterns in the choice of request strategies across methods: oral production, free production. Even though they used conventionally indirect strategies most frequently in all types of requests and in all elicitation methods, a relatively higher frequency of direct strategies in high imposition requests was found at level 1 as compared to low imposition requests.

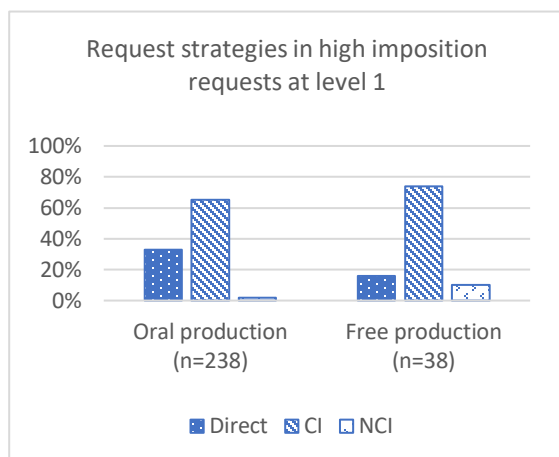


Figure 4.34 Request strategies in high imposition requests at level 1

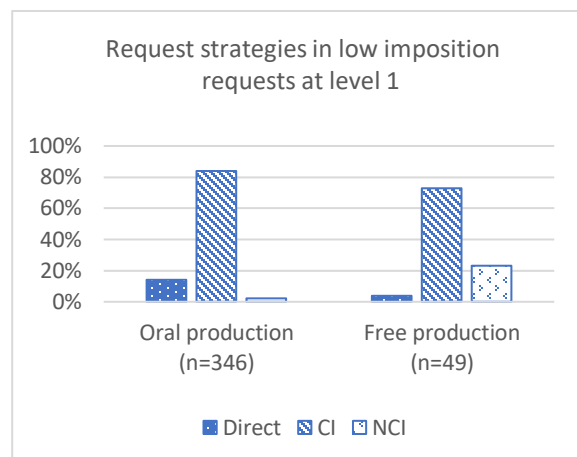


Figure 4.35 Request strategies in low imposition requests at level 1

Figures 4.36 and 4.37 display the distribution of request strategies in high and low imposition requests in different methods at level 2. Like level 1 learners, level 2 learners also used a relatively higher frequency of direct strategies in high imposition requests as compared to low imposition requests. However, like level 1, level 2 learners also showed a preference for conventionally indirect strategies in both types of requests: low and high imposition requests.

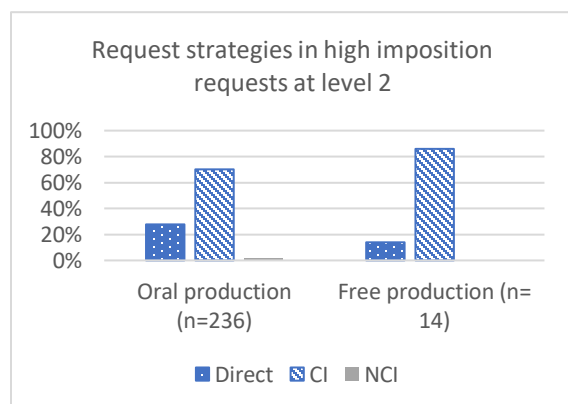


Figure 4.36 Request strategies in high imposition requests at level 2

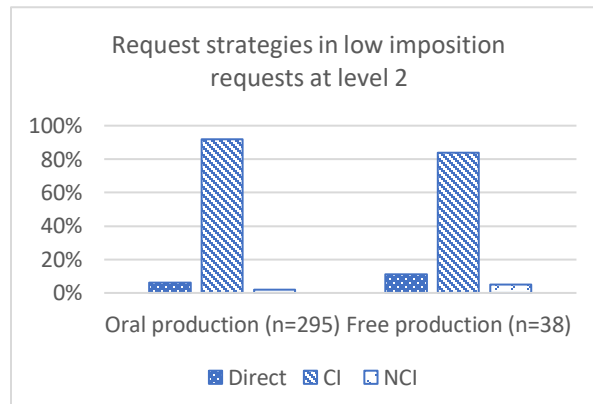


Figure 4.37 Request strategies in low imposition requests at level 2

Figures 4.38 and 4.39 display the distribution of request strategies in high and low imposition requests in different methods at level 3. Findings showed that level 3 learners used conventionally indirect strategies frequently in both high and low imposition requests in all

elicitation methods. However, these learners also used a slightly higher frequency of direct strategies in high imposition requests compared to low imposition requests which might have been affected by the type of request scenarios used in the study. Like level 1, learners at level 3

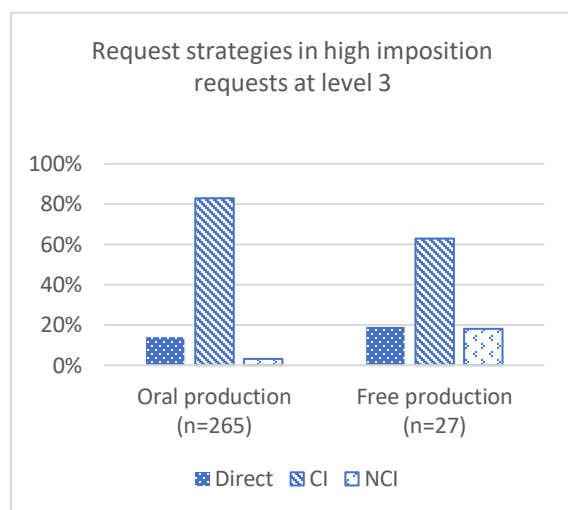


Figure 4.38 Request strategies in high imposition requests at level 3

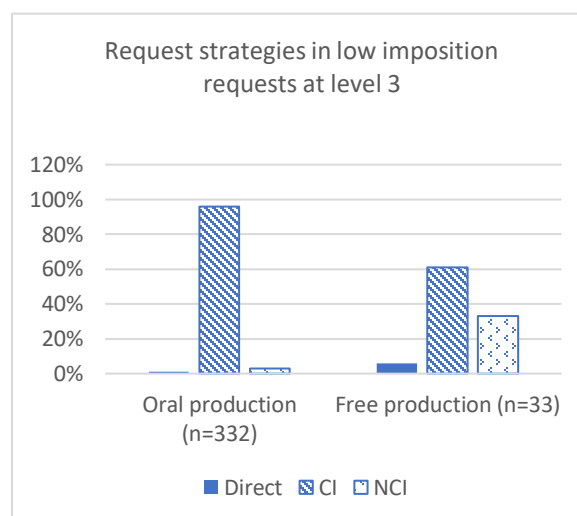


Figure 4.39 Request strategies in low imposition requests at level 3

used a slightly higher frequency of nonconventionally indirect requests in low imposition requests as compared to high imposition requests.

Major findings discussed in this section indicate that learners at all levels make similar sociopragmatic choices by using conventionally indirect strategies frequently in both high and low imposition requests. Likewise, learners at all levels used a somewhat higher frequency of direct strategies in high imposition requests as compared to low imposition requests.

So far, learners' sociopragmatic development with proficiency has been discussed with regard to their use of request perspectives and strategies. In the following, learners' sociopragmatic development is examined concerning their use of request modification.

4.3.3 Situational variations in internal modification in different conditions.

In this section, learners' sociopragmatic development concerning their use of internal modifiers in L2 requests is examined based on their performance in three types of data: oral production, free production, and authentic classroom requests.

4.3.3.1 Internal modifiers: oral production

In this section, learners' sociopragmatic development is examined concerning their use of internal modifiers: downgraders, upgraders. Table 4.58 displays the frequency of downgraders and upgraders in oral production data by dominance per request by level. Findings showed that learners displayed no significant variation in the use of request modifiers: lexical and phrasal downgraders, syntactic downgraders, and upgraders. As shown in table 4.58 below, p-values showed significant differences in learners' use of internal modifiers in requests to higher status addressees as compared to equal status addressees.

Table 4.58 Frequency of internal modifiers by dominance in oral production data per request by level

Internal modifiers by dominance: oral production											
Level	Hearer's status	Lexical	%	P-values	Syntactic	%	P-values	Upgraders	%	P-values	Total
1	Higher	194	61%	0.3874	2	.6%	0.4486	0	0%	0.1036	317
	Equal	165	62%		1	.4%		4	1.5%		267
2	Higher	190	66%	0.4794	4	1.4%	0.2323	0	0%	0.1510	286
	Equal	169	69%		1	.4%		8	3%		245
3	Higher	237	80%	0.7536	4	1.3%	1.0000	0	0%	0.1929	297
	Equal	229	76%		4	1.3%		7	2%		300

p<0.05

As shown in table 4.59 below, findings of one-way ANOVA test comparing learners' performance in requests to higher and equal status addressees across levels showed that the overall differences among all three levels were not significant.

Table 4.59 *p*-values of the use of internal modifiers in oral production data across all three levels by dominance

One-way ANOVA test results (p-values) for requests to higher and equal status addressees						
Comparison across levels	Syntactic downgraders		Lexical and phrasal downgraders		Upgraders	
Addressee's status	Higher	Equal	Higher	Equal	Higher	Equal
p-values (across 3 levels)	0.5336	0.5336	0.3246	0.4377	N/A	0.6425

p<0.05

Concerning the use of internal modifiers with respect to the imposition of requests, table 4.60 displays the frequency of downgraders and upgraders in oral production data by imposition per request by level. Findings showed that learners evidenced some variation in the use of lexical and phrasal modifiers in high and low imposition requests, especially at level 2 (57% in high, 64% in low imposition) and level 3 (60% in high, 74% in low imposition). Data showed that learners at all levels used a relatively higher frequency of lexical modifiers in low imposition requests compared to high imposition requests. However, as shown by p-values in table 4.60 below, no significant difference in the use of internal modifiers across high and low imposition requests was found at any level.

Table 4.60 *Frequency of downgraders and upgraders by imposition in oral production data per request by level*

Internal modifiers by imposition: oral production data											
Level	Imposition	Lexical	%	P-values	Syntactic	%	P-values	Upgraders	%	P-values	Total
1	High	136	57%	0.2980	1	.4%	0.5955	3	1%	0.6505	238
	Low	223	64%		2	.6%		1	.3%		346
2	High	142	60%	0.1775	2	1%	0.8080	8	3%	0.2806	236
	Low	217	74%		3	1%		0	0%		295
3	High	194	73%	0.2059	4	1.5%	0.7309	5	2%	0.4967	265
	Low	272	82%		4	1%		2	.6%		332

p<0.05

Table 4.61 displays results of one-way ANOVA test concerning the use of internal modifiers in high and low imposition requests at all levels. Findings showed that learners showed no significant variation in the use of internal modifiers across levels.

Table 4.61 *p-values of the use of internal modifiers in oral production data across all three levels by imposition*

Results for one-way ANOVA test (p-values) for high and low imposition requests						
	Syntactic downgraders		Lexical downgraders		upgraders	
Degree of imposition	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Comparison across levels	0.6464	0.8165	0.1438	0.3042	0.8250	0.5095

$p < 0.05$

In this section, findings regarding learners' use of internal modifiers is examined in oral production data by dominance as well as by imposition. Findings showed that learners at all three levels under study showed similar choices of modifiers in different scenarios. Moreover, differences across levels concerning the choice of internal modifiers in high/low imposition requests to higher/equal status addressees were found to be of no major statistical significance. In the following, similar investigation is done in free production data.

4.3.3.2 Internal modifiers: free production

Table 4.62 displays the frequency of internal modifiers by dominance in free production data per request by level. Findings showed that learners at all levels used a considerably high frequency of lexical and phrasal downgraders (*e.g.*, “please”) in requests to higher in status addressees. Level 1 learners used lexical downgraders in 80% of requests addressed to higher status addressees compared to 64% in requests addressed to equal status addressees. Level 2 learners used a much higher percentage of lexical modifiers in requests to higher status addressees: 208% (by using more than one modifier per request to higher status addressees) compared to 64% in requests to equal status addressees. In contrast, level 3 learners used a high frequency of lexical

modifiers in both types of requests: 181% in requests to higher and 170% in requests to equal status addressees. Concerning the use of syntactic downgraders no significant variation regarding the effect of status/dominance on requests is found at any level. However, level 3 learners showed notable progress in the use of upgraders (*e.g.*, “really”) by using upgraders in 52% of requests to higher status addressees compared to 93% in requests to equal status addressees. The p-values calculated via t-tests showed that differences found across requests to higher and equal status addressees were not statistically significant.

Table 4.62 Frequency of internal modifiers by dominance in free production data per request by level

Downgraders and Upgraders by dominance: Free production data											
Level	Hearer's status	Lexical	%	p-values	Syntactic	%	p-values	Upgraders	%	p-values	Total head acts
1	Higher	24	80%	0.4136	1	3%	0.5370	0	0%	0.3559	30
	Equal	27	64%		2	5%		1	2%		42
2	Higher	25	208%	0.5805	0	0%	0.3559	0	0%	0.3559	12
	Equal	18	64%		1	4%		1	4%		28
3	Higher	38	181%	0.7480	1	5%	0.3559	11	52%	0.1961	21
	Equal	46	170%		0	0%		25	93%		27

p<0.05

The comparison of learners’ performance across all three levels using one-way ANOVA test showed that learners did not show significant variance across levels in the use of internal modifiers in requests to higher and equal status addressees, except in the use of upgraders in requests to equal status addressees (see table 4.63 below).

Table 4.63 p-values of the use of internal modifiers in free production data across all three levels by dominance

One-way ANOVA test results (p-values) for requests to higher and equal status addressees						
	Syntactic downgraders		Lexical downgraders		Upgraders	
	Higher in power	Equal in power	Higher in power	Equal in power	Higher in power	Equal in power
Comparison across all three levels	0.2740	0.3227	0.6553	0.1921	0.1275	0.0030*

As shown in table 4.64 below, further analysis using the post-hoc Tukey HSD test revealed that the specific level which differed significantly from other levels concerning the use of upgraders in requests to equal status addressees was level 3 as compared to both lower levels.

Table 4.64 Comparison of different pairs of levels based on p-values corresponding to the post-hoc Tukey HSD test

Post-hoc Tukey HSD test results (p-values) for requests to higher and equal status addressees						
Comparison across levels	Syntactic downgraders		Lexical downgraders		Upgraders	
Addressee's status	Higher in power	Equal in power	Higher in power	Equal in power	Higher in power	Equal in power
Level 1 vs. Level 2	0.3358604	0.7016174	0.8999947	0.7967635	0.8999947	0.8999947
Level 1 vs. Level 3	0.8999947	0.2930538	0.6786011	0.4176791	0.1727520	0.0056015*
Level 2 vs. Level 3	0.3358604	0.7016174	0.7116738	0.1788699	0.1727520	0.0056015*

In order to examine the impact of imposition on the choice of request modifiers, free production data is also analysed for the effect of imposition. Table 4.65 displays the frequency of downgraders and upgraders by dominance in free production data per request by level. Findings indicated that learners at all levels showed variant tendencies regarding the use of lexical and phrasal downgraders in low and high imposition requests. Level 1 learners used relatively more lexical modifiers in low imposition requests (79% in low compared to 60% in high imposition) whereas level 2 used a high frequency of lexical downgraders in both types of requests: 107% in low and 108% in high imposition requests. Level 3 learners, in contrast, used a much more lexical downgraders in high imposition requests (compare 233% in high with 130% in low imposition). The analysis of syntactic downgraders and upgraders showed that level 1 and level 2 learners displayed no significant variation since the use of these modifiers was limited at level 1 and level 2. Level 3 learners, on the other hand, showed some variation by using upgraders in 109% of high imposition requests compared to 48% in low imposition requests. Despite some

variation in the frequency of internal modifiers in high and low imposition requests at different levels, t-test results showed that differences across high and low imposition requests were not significant at any level (see p-values in table 4.65).

Table 4.65 Frequency of downgraders and upgraders by imposition in free production data by level

Downgraders and Upgraders by imposition: Free production data											
Level	I ²⁷	Lexical	%	P-values	Syntactic	%	P-values	Upgraders	%	P-values	Total head acts
1	High	18	60%	0.5317	2	7%	0.2437	0	0%	0.4816	30
	Low	33	79%		1	2%		1	3%		42
2	High	13	108%	0.6111	0	0%	0.4816	0	0%	0.4816	12
	Low	30	107%		1	4%		1	4%		28
3	High	49	233%	0.1047	1	5%	0.2199	23	109%	0.9295	21
	Low	35	130%		0	0%		13	48%		27

p<0.05

As shown in table 4.66 below, in order to compare learners' performance across levels in high and low imposition requests, one-way ANOVA test was conducted which indicated that learners across levels differed significantly only in the use of upgraders in low imposition requests.

Table 4.66 p-values of the use of internal modifiers in free production data across all three levels by imposition

One-way ANOVA test results (p-values) for high and low imposition requests						
	Syntactic downgraders		Lexical downgraders		Upgraders	
	low imposition	High imposition	low imposition	High imposition	low imposition	High imposition
Comparison across all three levels	0.6186	0.0910	0.9192	0.0910	0.0094*	0.1405

p<0.05

Table 4.67 displays results of the post-hoc Tukey HSD test which was conducted to find the level which differed significantly from others concerning the use of different internal

²⁷ Imposition

modifiers. Findings revealed that differences between levels in both high and low imposition were significant only in the use of upgraders in low imposition requests at level 2 and level 3 compared to level 1.

Table 4.67 Comparison of different pairs of levels based on p-values corresponding to the post-hoc Tukey HSD test

Post-hoc Tukey HSD test results (p-values) for high and low imposition requests						
Comparison across levels	Syntactic downgraders		Lexical downgraders		Upgraders	
	low imposition	High imposition	low imposition	High imposition	low imposition	High imposition
Level 1 vs. Level 2	0.8999947	0.8999947	0.8999947	0.8999947	0.8999947	0.8999947
Level 1 vs. Level 3	0.6638416	0.1585484	0.8999947	0.1585484	0.0174630*	0.1833324
Level 2 vs. Level 3	0.6638416	0.1016888	0.8999947	0.1016888	0.0174630*	0.1833324

p<0.05

In this section, findings regarding the use of internal modifiers in high/low imposition requests to higher/equal status addressees is examined in free production data. In order to examine learners' use of internal modifiers in an authentic setting, classroom requests are examined on similar lines, although without statistical analysis due to a lack of control over the amount of data and types of request scenarios at different levels under study.

4.3.3.3 Internal modifiers: classroom requests.

Like free production data, findings of classroom requests also indicated that learners at different levels showed differential tendencies for using modifiers in their requests to higher and equal status addressees. Table 4.68 displays the frequency of downgraders and upgraders by dominance in classroom requests by level. Findings showed that level 1 and level 2 learners used more lexical downgraders in requests to higher status addressees (40% to high with 31% to equal status at level 1, 31% to high with 20% to equal status addressees at level 3). Level 2 learners, in

comparison, used more lexical downgraders in requests to equal status addressees (13% to high with 20% to equal status at level 20). Since the use of syntactic downgraders and upgraders was rare, especially at level 1 and 2, no significant variation is found at these two levels in this regard. Level 3 learners, on the other hand, showed some variation in the use of upgraders by using 6% in requests to higher status addressees compared to 20% in requests to equal status addressees.

Table 4.68 Frequency of downgraders and upgraders by dominance in classroom requests by level

Internal modification: Classroom requests								
	Hearer's status	Lexical downgraders	%	Syntactic downgraders	%	Upgraders	%	Total request sequences
Level 1	Higher	16	40%	0	0%	0	0%	40
	Equal	8	31%	0	0%	2	8%	26
Level 2	Higher	2	13%	2	13%	0	0%	15
	Equal	1	20%	0	0%	0	0%	5
Level 3	Higher	11	31%	2	6%	2	6%	35
	Equal	1	20%	0	0%	1	20%	5

4.3.3.4 Comparison of findings across methods: Internal modification.

In this section, use of internal modifiers in different situations and elicitation methods is compared across levels. Figures 4.40 and 4.41 below display the frequency of internal modifiers in requests to higher and equal status addressees respectively, at level 1. Findings showed that

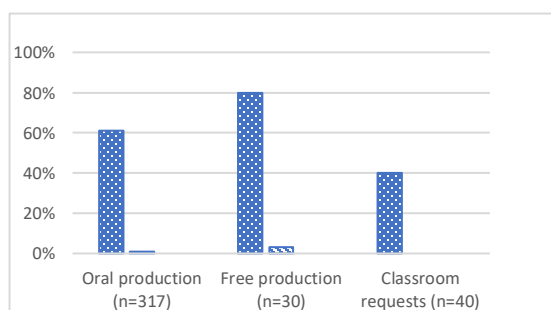


Figure 4.40 Use of internal modification in requests to higher in status addressees at level 1

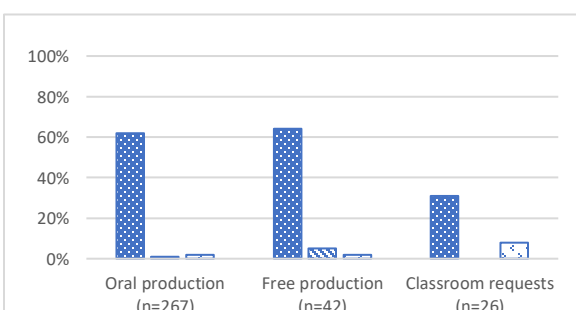


Figure 4.41 Use of internal modification in requests to equal in status addressees at level 1

learners at level 1 indicated a major variation in the use of lexical downgraders in free production data by using a higher frequency of these modifiers in requests to higher status addressees.

Like level 1, level 2 learners also showed situational variation in the use of lexical modifiers in free production data. Figures 4.42 and 4.43 display the frequency of internal modifiers in requests to higher and equal status addressees respectively, at level 2. These learners used a higher frequency of lexical modifiers in requests to higher status addressees compared to equal status addressees in free production data. However, they did not show any notable variation in the use of other modifiers.

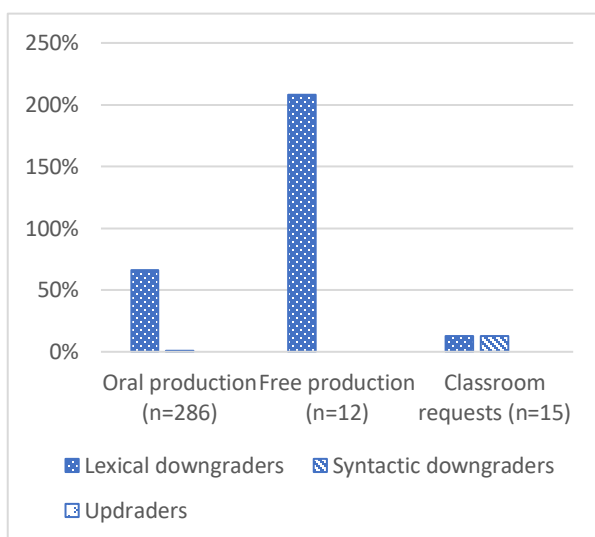


Figure 4.42 Use of internal modifiers in requests to higher status addressees at level 2

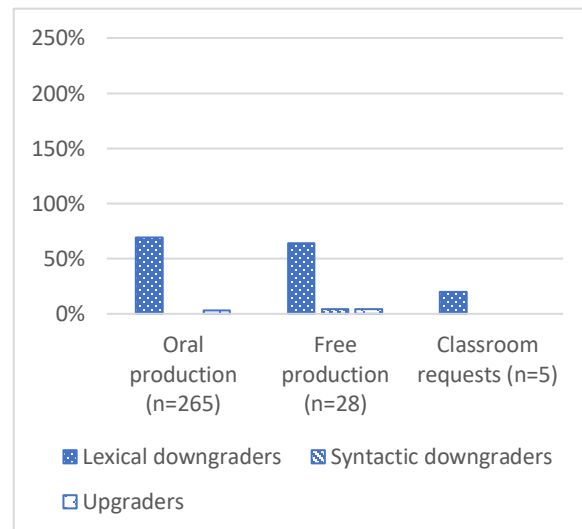


Figure 4.43 Use of internal modifiers in requests to equal status addressees at level 2

As shown in figures 4.44 and 4.45, learners at level 3 showed a major variation across requests to higher and equal status addressees by using more upgraders in requests to equal status addressees as compared to in requests to higher status addressees, especially in free production data.

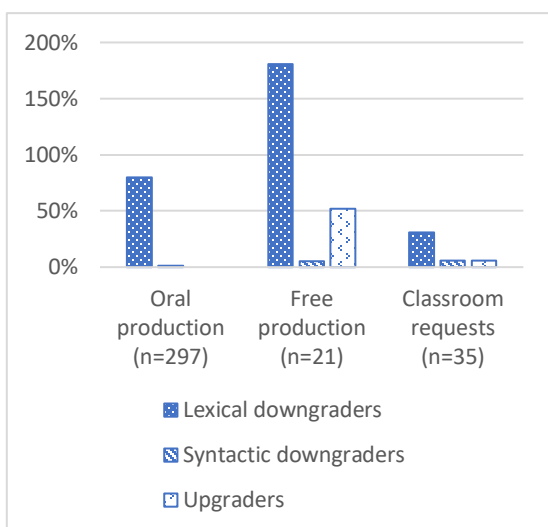


Figure 4.44 Use of internal modifiers in requests to higher status addressees at level 3

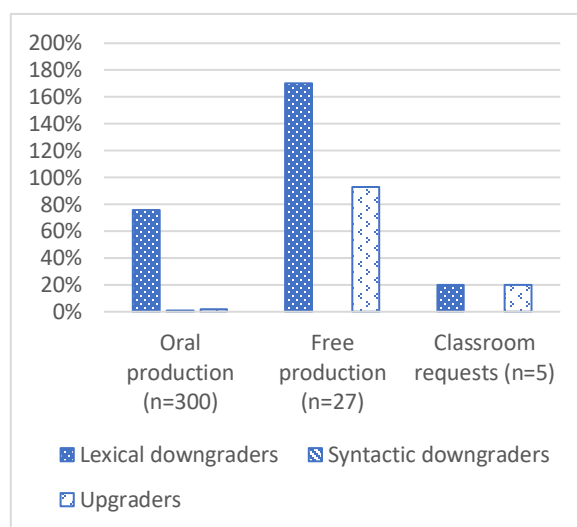


Figure 4.45 Use of internal modifiers in requests to equal status addressees at level 3

Overall findings in this section indicated that level 1 and level 2 learners showed variation in the use of internal modifiers across requests to higher and equal status addressees in free production data by using a higher percentage of lexical modifiers in requests to higher status addressees. Level 3 learners on the other hand, showed major variation in the use of upgraders in free production data. However, learners at all levels showed little or no variation in the use of internal modifiers concerning the status of addressees in oral production and authentic data.

In the following, learners' performance regarding the use of internal modifiers is compared in high and low imposition requests across levels and elicitation methods. Figures 4.46 and 4.47 display the frequency of internal modifiers in high and low imposition requests respectively in different conditions (oral productions, free production, and classroom requests), at level 1. Findings showed that level 1 learners used a higher frequency of lexical modifiers in oral production and free production data in low imposition requests compared to high imposition requests.

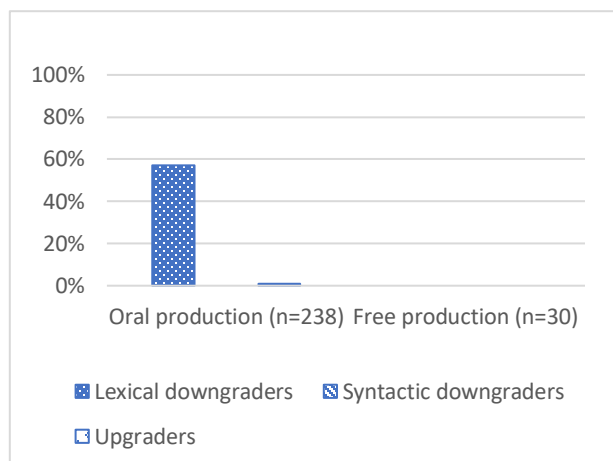


Figure 4.46 Use of internal modifiers in high imposition requests at level 1

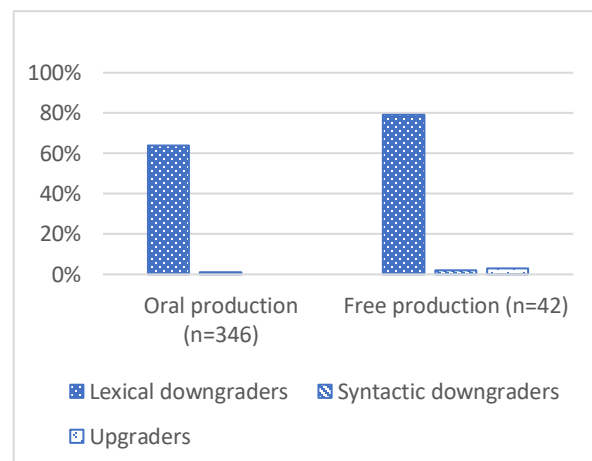


Figure 4.47 Use of internal modifiers in low imposition requests at level 1

As shown in figures 4.48 and 4.49, level 2 learners showed no significant variation across high and low imposition requests, with some evidence of a greater use of lexical modifiers in low imposition requests in oral production data.

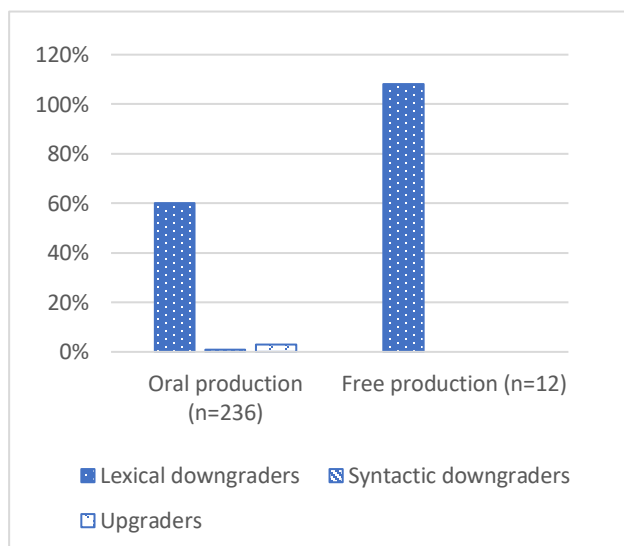


Figure 4.48 Use of internal modifiers in high imposition requests at level 2

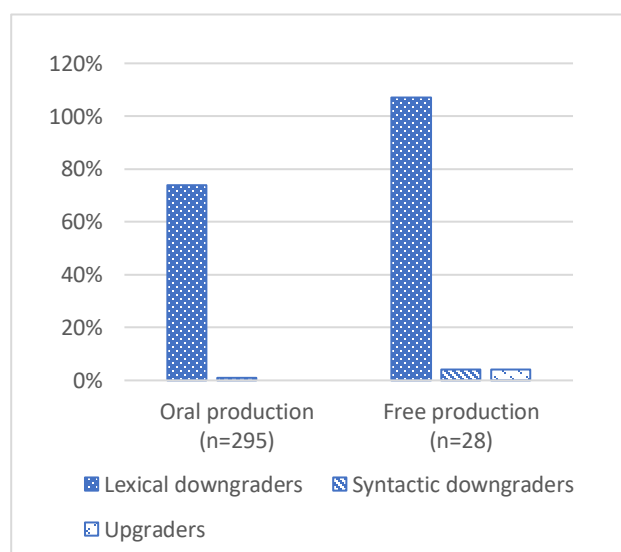


Figure 4.49 Use of internal modifiers in low imposition requests at level 2

Figures 4.50 and 4.51 display the comparison of level 3 learners' use of internal modifiers across high and low imposition requests respectively. Findings showed that level 3

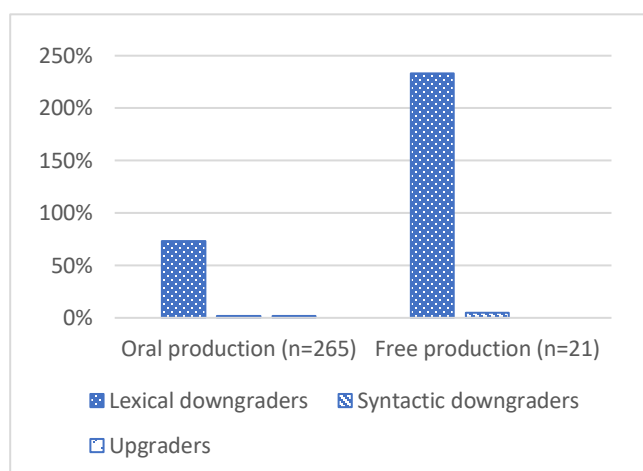


Figure 4.50 Use of internal modifiers in high imposition requests at level 3

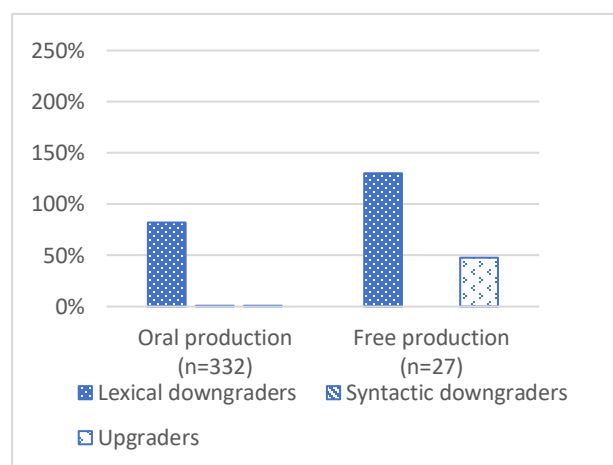


Figure 4.51 Use of internal modifiers in low imposition requests at level 3

learners used a higher frequency of lexical modifiers in high imposition requests in free production data unlike level 1 and level 2 learners. However, they used a higher frequency of upgraders in low imposition requests compared to high imposition requests.

Overall, findings in this section indicated that learners used a higher frequency of several modifiers with the increase in proficiency in different types of requests. However, they showed little variation in the use of internal modifiers across requests with variant degrees of imposition and different addressees. The following section sheds light on learners' sociopragmatic development concerning the use of external modifiers (e.g., supportive moves) in L2 requests in different contexts.

4.3.4 Situational variations in external modification in different conditions.

In this section, the use of external modifiers in different contexts is compared across different elicitation methods to find the evidence of learners' sociopragmatic development with the increase in proficiency/level.

4.3.4.1 External modification: oral production.

Table 4.69 displays the frequency of external modifiers in oral production data by dominance.

Findings showed that the use of alerters (*e.g.*, “miss”, “excuse me”) at all levels were more frequent in requests to higher status addressees (19% at level 1, 30% at level 2, 101% level 3) than in requests to equal status addressees (5% at level 1, 23% at level 2, 65% at level 3). Results of t-tests showed that the difference between the use of alerters in requests to equal and higher status addressees were statistically significant (see the p-values in table 4.69 below). Concerning the use of supportive moves, findings showed that learners at each level used about twice as many supportive moves in requests to equal status addressees as they did in requests to higher status addressees. However, as shown in table 4.82, this difference was not statistically significant.

Table 4.69 Frequency of external modifiers by dominance in oral production data per request by level

External modifiers by dominance: Oral production data								
	Addressee's status	Alerters	%	p-values	Supportive moves	%	p-values	Total
Level 1	Higher	59	19%	0.0311*	7	2%	0.4101	317
	Equal	13	5%		14	5%		267
Level 2	Higher	86	30%	0.0301*	30	10%	0.6572	245
	Equal	57	23%		41	17%		286
Level 3	Higher	300	101%	0.0002*	81	27%	0.0942	297
	Equal	194	65%		150	50%		300

p<0.05

Furthermore, one-way ANOVA test was employed to examine whether levels under study differed significantly regarding the use of alerters and supportive moves in requests to different addressees. As shown in table 4.70 below, findings showed that learners differed significantly across levels in the use of alerters in both situations and in supportive moves in requests to equal status addressees.

Table 4.70 *p*-values of the use of external modifiers in oral production data across all three levels by dominance

One-way ANOVA test results (<i>p</i> -values) for requests to higher in power addressees				
Comparison across levels	Alerters		Supportive moves	
Hearer's status	Higher	Equal	Higher	Equal
<i>p</i> -values (across 3 levels)	3.3307e-16*	5.9211e-09*	0.0428	0.0006*

$p < 0.05$

Further analysis using post-hoc Tukey HSD test revealed that the level which differed significantly from others was level 3, as shown in table 4.71 below. Level 3 learners differed significantly from level 1 and level 2 in the use of alerters in both types of requests: to higher and equal status addressees. Similarly, level 3 learners differed significantly from level 1 in the use of supportive moves in requests to higher status addressees, and from both level 1 and level 2 in the use of supportive moves in requests to equal status addressees.

Table 4.71 *Comparison of different pairs of levels based on p-values corresponding to the post-hoc Tukey HSD test*

Post-hoc Tukey HSD test results (<i>p</i> -values) to higher in power addressees				
Comparison across levels	Alerters		Supportive moves	
Hearer's status	Higher	Equal	Higher	Equal
Level 1 vs. Level 2	0.1567779	0.2723659	0.8024791	0.8999947
Level 1 vs. Level 3	0.0010053*	0.0010053*	5.9211e-09*	0.0010892*
Level 2 vs. Level 3	0.0010053*	0.0010053*	0.1464771	0.0033254*

$p < 0.05$

Table 4.72 below displays the frequency of external modifiers in high and low imposition requests in oral production data at each level. Findings showed that learners displayed no significant variation in high and low imposition requests concerning the use of alerters and supportive moves.

Table 4.72 Frequency of external modifiers in oral production data by imposition per request by level

External modifiers by imposition: Oral production data								
Level	Imposition	Alerters	%	p-values	Supportive moves	%	p-values	Total requests
1	High	30	13%	0.3000	7	3%	0.5642	238
	Low	42	12%		14	4%		346
2	High	66	28%	0.8320	40	17%	0.8320	236
	Low	77	26%		33	11%		295
3	High	229	86%	0.7057	116	44%	0.9106	265
	Low	265	80%		136	41%		332

p<0.05

In order to find if learners showed significant variance across levels in the use of external modifiers in high and low imposition requests, one-way ANOVA test was conducted. As shown in table 4.86, findings indicated that significant differences were found across levels in both types of external modifiers (alerters, supportive moves) and in all types of requests: high and low imposition requests.

Table 4.73 p-values of the use of external modifiers in oral production data across all three levels by imposition

One-way ANOVA test results (p-values) for high and low imposition requests				
	Alerters		Supportive moves	
Degree of imposition	High	Low	High	Low
Comparison across levels	2.2504e-11*	7.9188e-05*	0.0018*	0.0084*

p<0.05

Further analysis using post-hoc Tukey HSD test showed that the level which was significantly different from others was level 3. As shown in table 4.74 below, level 3 learners differed significantly from level 1 and level 2 in the use of alerters and supportive moves in both high and low imposition requests.

Table 4.74 Comparison of different pairs of levels based on p-values corresponding to the post-hoc Tukey HSD test

Post-hoc Tukey HSD test results (p-values) for high imposition requests				
Comparison across levels	Alerters		Supportive moves	
Degree of imposition	High	Low	High	Low
Level 1 vs. Level 2	0.1105320	0.8999947	0.5792436	0.8999947
Level 1 vs. Level 3	0.0010053*	0.0010053*	0.0017419*	0.0154392*
Level 2 vs. Level 3	0.0010053*	0.0010053*	0.0193199*	0.0214736*

p<0.05

In this section, findings regarding the use of external modifiers in different conditions of requests are examined in oral production data. Similar sociopragmatic analysis is conducted in free production data in the following section.

4.3.4.2 External modification: free production data

Unlike oral production data, free production data showed a much higher situational variation in the use of alerters and supportive moves in requests to higher and lower status addressees. Table 4.75 displays the frequency of external modifiers in free production data by dominance per level. Findings showed that level 1 and level 2 learners used greater frequency of alerters in requests to higher status addressees (compare 75% in higher with 31% in equal status at level 1) compared to equal status addressees (110% in higher with 136% in equal status at level 2). Level 3 learners, on the other hand, showed a lower variation in their requests since they used a high comparable frequency of alerters in both requests to higher and equal status addressees (136% in higher and 129% in equal status addressees). Concerning the use of supportive moves, findings showed that learners at all levels used more supportive moves in requests to equal status addressees (186% at level 1, 330% at level 2, 400% at level 3) than in requests to higher status addressees (100% at level 1, 205% at level 2, 312% at level 3). However, differences in the use

of external modifiers across requests to higher and equal status were not statistically significant at any level (see p-values in table 4.75 below).

Table 4.75 Frequency of external modifiers in free production data by dominance per request sequence by level

External modification by dominance: Free production (role plays)								
	Hearer's Status	Alerters	%	p-values	Supportive moves	%	p-values	Total role plays
Level 1	Higher	27	75%	0.0590	36	100%	0.2212	36
	Equal	11	31%		67	186%		36
Level 2	Higher	22	110%	0.8500	41	205%	0.3148	20
	Equal	10	50%		66	330%		20
Level 3	Higher	34	136%	0.7321	78	312%	0.7264	25
	Equal	29	129%		92	400%		23

p<0.05

Table 4.76 displays the comparison of learners' performance at different proficiency levels using one-way ANOVA test which showed that different levels under study did not vary significantly in the use of external modifiers in free production data.

Table 4.76 p-values of the use of external modifiers in free production data across all three levels by dominance

One-way ANOVA test results (p-values) for requests to higher and equal status addressees				
	Alerters		Supportive moves	
Addressee's status	Higher	Equal	Higher	Equal
Comparison across all three levels (p-values)	0.5374	0.3083	0.2857	0.6424

p<0.05

In the following, results regarding the impact of imposition on external modifiers are presented (see table 4.77). Findings showed that learners at level 1 used more alerters in low imposition requests (60%) as compared to high imposition requests (43%). Level 2 learners, on the other hand, used more than twice as many alerters in low imposition requests (183%) compared to high imposition requests (71%). In contrast, level 3 learners used relatively greater frequency of alerters in high imposition requests (152%) as opposed to low imposition requests (115%). Regarding the use of supportive moves, findings showed that learners at level 1 and

level 3 used more supportive moves in high imposition requests (180% compared to 117% at level 1, 400% compared to 318% at level 2) whereas learners at level 2 used more supportive moves in low imposition requests (271%) as compared to high imposition requests (258%). However, differences in the frequency of external modifiers in high imposition requests compared to low imposition requests were not significant at any level (see table 4.77 below).

Table 4.77 Frequency of external modifiers in free production data by imposition per request sequence by level

External modifiers by imposition: Free production data								
Level	Imposition	Alerters	%	p-values	Supportive moves	%	p-values	Total role plays
1	High	13	43%	0.7934	54	180%	0.2134	30
	Low	25	60%		49	117%		42
2	High	22	183%	0.1599	31	258%	0.4579	12
	Low	20	71%		76	271%		28
3	High	32	152%	0.2057	84	400%	0.2662	21
	Low	31	115%		86	318%		27

Table 4.78 displays results of one-way ANOVA test comparing all three levels of learners' performance in low and high imposition requests concerning the use of external modifier. Findings showed that overall differences across levels were not significant.

Table 4.78 p-values of the use of external modifiers in free production data across all three levels by imposition

One-way ANOVA test results (p-values) for high and low imposition requests				
	Alerters		Supportive moves	
	low imposition	High imposition	low imposition	High imposition
Comparison across all three levels	0.6090	0.2608	0.3746	0.2816

$p < 0.05$

4.3.4.3 External modification: classroom requests

Like free production, participants at different levels showed differential tendencies in the use of alerters and supportive moves in classroom requests as well. Table 4.79 displays the frequency of

external modifiers in classroom requests per request sequence by level. Findings showed that level 1 learners used more alerters in requests to equal status addressees (compare 92% in higher with 55% in equal status). Level 2 and level 3 learners, on the other hand, used more alerters in requests to higher status addressees (73% at level 2, 26% at level 3) than equal status addressees (20% at level 2, 0% at level 3). With regard to the use of supportive moves, level 1 learners used no supportive moves in requests to higher status addressees. However, they used a small frequency (4%) of supportive moves in requests to equal status addressees. Level 2 learners on the other hand used a small frequency of supportive moves in requests to high status but no supportive moves in requests to equal status addressees. In comparison, level 3 learners used a slightly greater frequency of supportive moves in requests to equal status (40%) as compared to higher status addressees (26%).

Table 4.79 Frequency of external modification in classroom requests by dominance per request sequence by level

External modification by dominance: Classroom requests						
	Hearer's status	Alerter	%	Supportive moves	%	Total request sequences
Level 1	Higher	22	55%	0	0%	40
	Equal	24	92%	1	4%	26
Level 2	Higher	11	73%	1	7%	15
	Equal	1	20%	0	0%	5
Level 3	Higher	9	26%	9	26%	35
	Equal	0	0%	2	40%	5

In the following section, learners' use of external modifiers in different types of requests are triangulated across elicitation methods followed by a summary of findings.

4.3.4.4 Comparison of findings: external modification.

Figures 4.52 and 4.53 below display the frequency of external modifiers (alerters and supportive moves) in requests to higher and equal status addressees at level 1. Findings revealed that level 1 learners used a higher frequency of supportive moves in requests to equal status addressees as

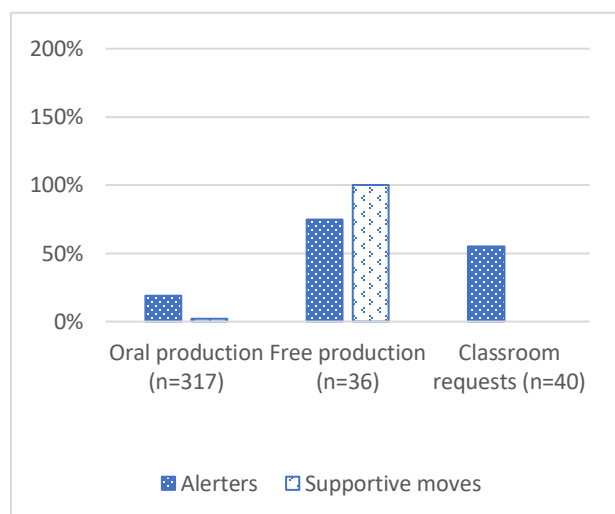


Figure 4.52 Use of external modifiers in requests to higher status addressees at level 1

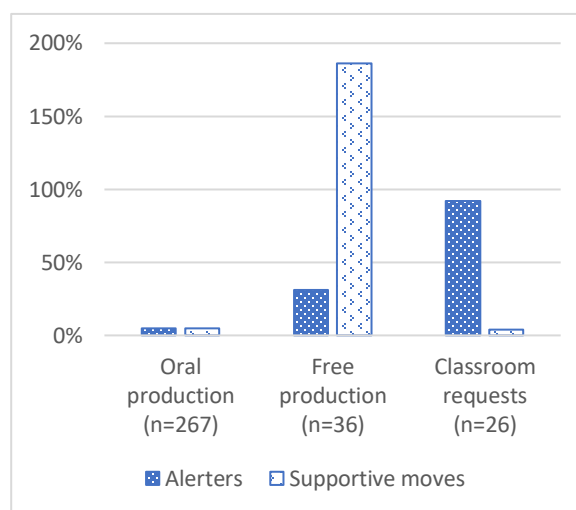


Figure 4.53 Use of external modifiers in requests to equal status addressees at level 1

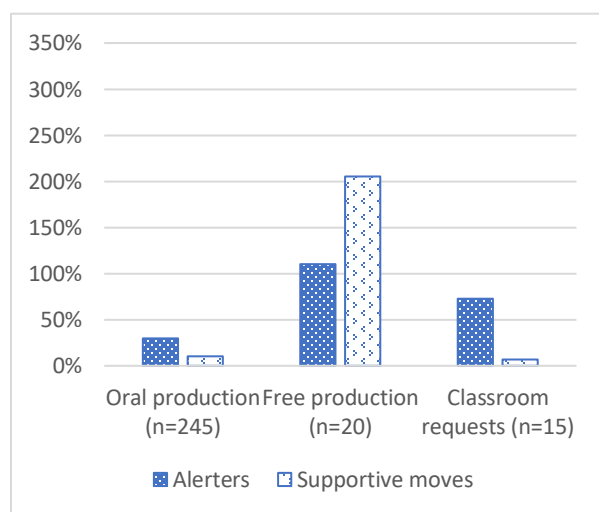


Figure 4.54 Use of external modifiers in requests to higher status addressees at level 2

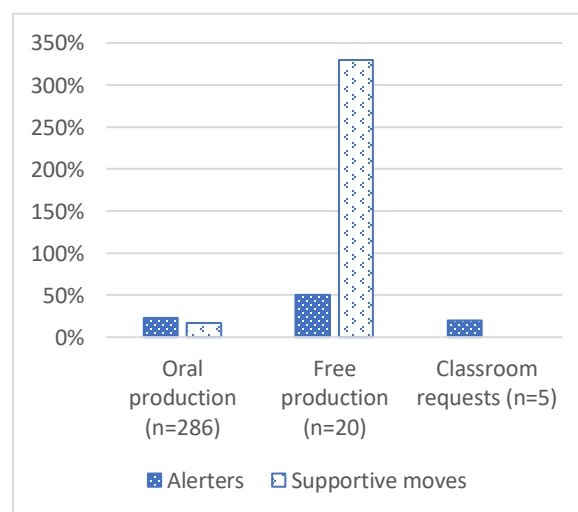


Figure 4.55 Use of external modifiers in requests to equal status addressees at level 2

compared to higher status addressees, especially in free production data. However, learners' overall use of supportive moves was almost absent in oral production and authentic data.

Concerning alerters, level 1 learners showed differential findings across methods by using a higher frequency of alerters in requests to higher status addressees in both oral production and free production data. However, they used a higher frequency of alerters in requests to equal status addressees in authentic data.

Compared to level 1, findings across elicitation methods were relatively less differential at level 2. As shown in figures 4.54 and 4.55, level 2 learners used a higher frequency of alerters in requests to higher status addressees but they used lesser supportive moves in requests to higher status addressees as compared to requests to equal status addressees.

Level 3 learners showed similar tendencies in the choice of alerters and supportive moves in requests to different addressees like level 2 learners. Figures 4.56 and 4.57 show that the use

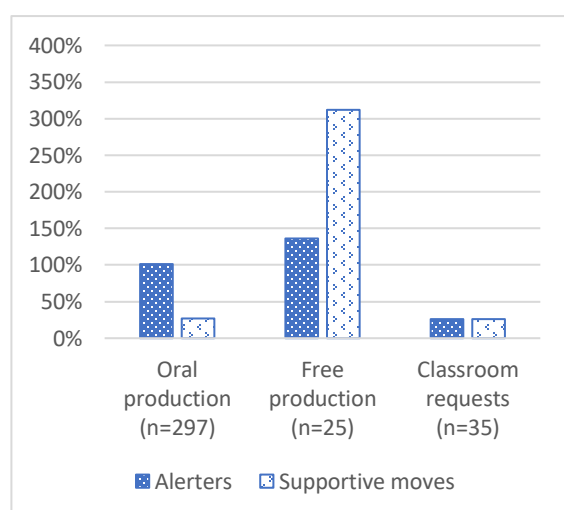


Figure 4.56 Use of external modifiers in requests to higher status addressees at level 3

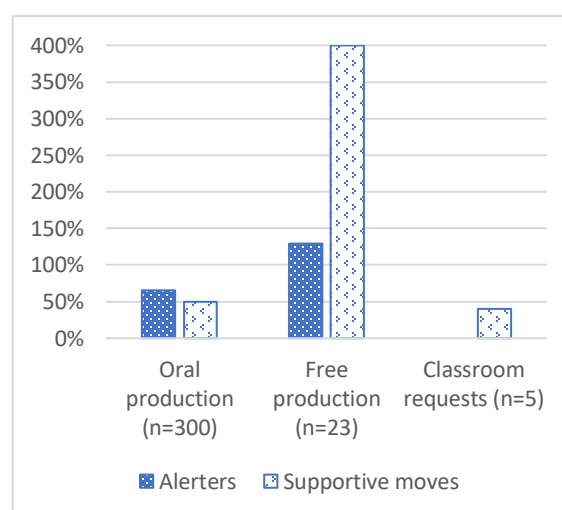


Figure 4.57 Use of external modifiers in requests to equal status addressees at level 3

of alerters was relatively higher in level 3 learners' requests to higher status addressees.

However, they used more supportive moves in requests to equal status addressees. It is important to note that they used supportive moves recurrently in requests to higher status addressees (in free production data) although less frequently in requests to equal status addressees.

Overall findings concerning the use of external modifiers in requests to varying addressees revealed that learners used more alerters in requests to higher status addressees and more supportive moves in requests to equal status addressees as their proficiency increased. However, learners showed little variation across levels in free production data. The only significant difference was found in oral production data at level 3 which indicated major

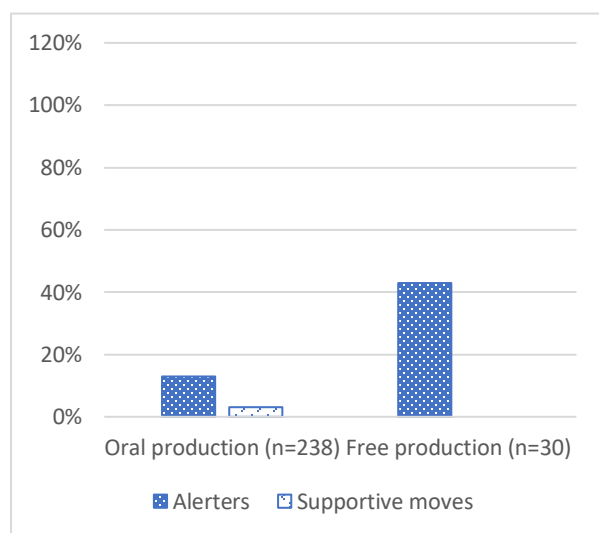


Figure 4.58 Use of external modifiers in high imposition requests at level 1

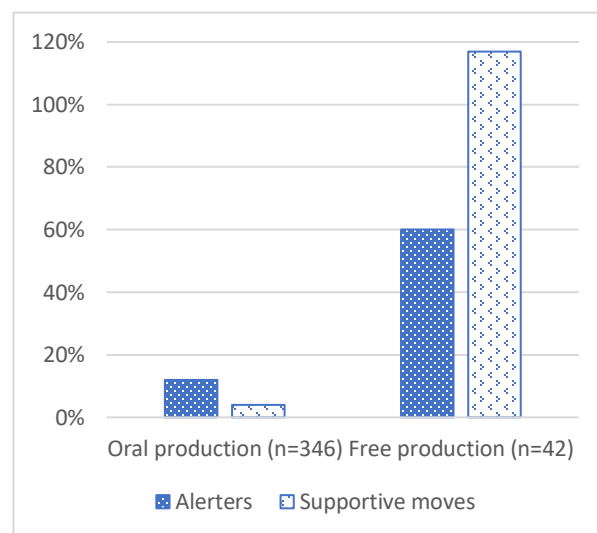


Figure 4.59 Use of external modifiers in low imposition requests at level 1

increase in the use of external modifiers at level 3 as compared to other levels. Figures 4.58 and 4.59 show that the use of alerters as well as supportive moves was higher in low imposition requests at level 1. Compared to these findings, figures 4.60 and 4.61 reveal that level 2 learners used more alerters in high imposition requests (as shown in free production data) whereas their

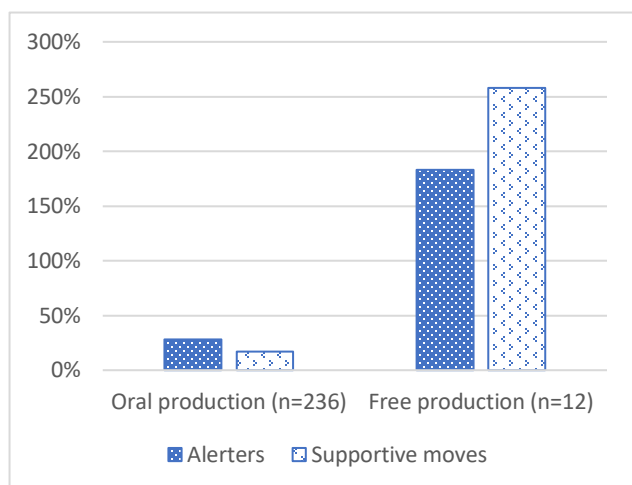


Figure 4.60 Use of external modifiers in high imposition requests at level 2

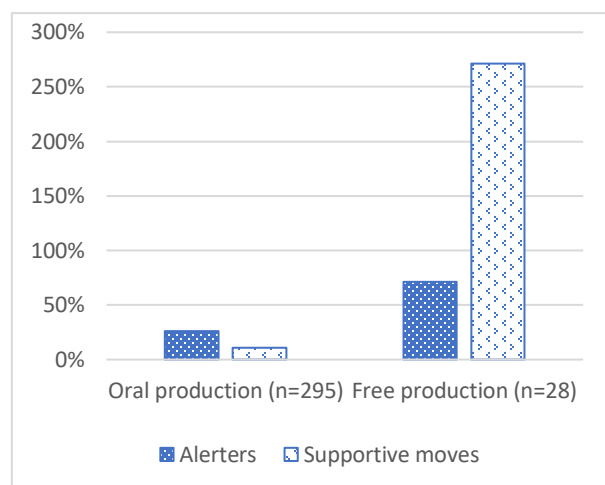


Figure 4.61 Use of external modifiers in low imposition requests at level 2

use of supportive moves was comparable in both high and low imposition requests.

As shown in tables 4.62 and 4.63, findings at level 3 indicated that learners used more alerters and supportive moves in high imposition requests. However, learners showed little variation in the frequency of alerters and supportive moves in high and low imposition requests

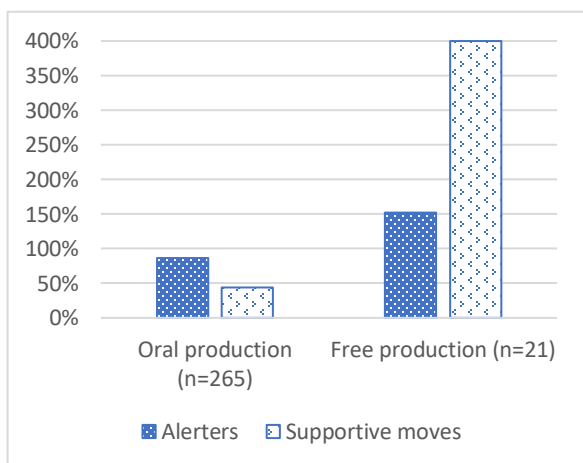


Figure 4.62 Use of external modifiers in high imposition requests at level 3

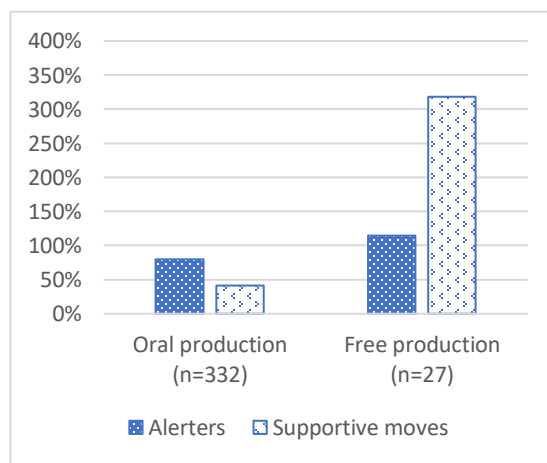


Figure 4.63 Use of external modifiers in high imposition requests at level 3

in a specific elicitation method. Statistical analyses at different levels showed that the only significant differences in the choice of external modifiers across high and low imposition requests was found in oral production data at level 3 as compared to other levels.

So far, findings regarding learners' sociopragmatic development across levels concerning the use of request perspectives, strategies, and modifiers in different request conditions are presented. The final section of this analysis examines the use of modals in different conditions of requests.

4.3.5 Situational variations in the use of modals in different conditions.

In this section, learners' sociopragmatic development in the use of modals across levels is examined in different elicitation methods: oral production, free production, and authentic data. Modals found in different types of data include “can”, “could”, “may”, “would”, and might. It is important to note that the analysis in this section consists of conventionally indirect requests, because modals were exclusively used in these requests.

4.3.5.1 Modals: oral production.

Table 4.80 displays the distribution of modals in conventionally indirect requests in oral production data by dominance. Findings showed that learners at all levels evidenced little or no variation in the use of modals across requests to higher and equal status addressees. Level 1 and level 2 learners used “can” in almost all types of requests (99% in requests to both higher and equal addressees at level 1, 96% to higher and 99% in equal status at level 2). However, level 3 learners used “could” with a greater frequency but they did not show significant variance in requests to different status addressees. The p-values using t-tests indicated that differences in the

use of modals across requests to higher and equal status addressees were not significant at any level.

Table 4.80 Distribution of modals in conventionally indirect requests in oral production data by dominance

Distribution of modals across conventionally indirect requests per level by dominance														
Level	Hearer's status	Can %		p-values	Could %		p-values	May %		Would %		Other	%	Total CI requests
1	Higher	256	99%	0.1263	0	0%	0	0	0%	0	0%	3	1%	259
	Equal	183	99%		0	0%		0	0%	0	0%	2	1%	185
2	Higher	234	96%	0.2657	8	3%	0.1062	0	0%	1	.5%	1	.5%	244
	Equal	191	99%		2	1%		0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	193
3	Higher	230	82.7%	0.3532	32	11.6%	0.2986	1	.3%	4	1.4%	11	4%	278
	Equal	207	80.2%		39	15.2%		0	0%	1	.4%	11	4.2%	258

$p < 0.05$

Table 4.81 below shows p-values for one-way ANOVA test comparing all three levels' performance concerning the use of modals in requests to higher and equal status addressees. Findings showed that significant differences were found across levels in the use of modals in both types of requests across levels under study.

Table 4.81 p-values in one-way ANOVA test displaying the use of modals in oral production data across levels by dominance

One-way ANOVA test results (p-values) for requests to higher and equal status addressees				
	Can		Could	
Hearer's status	Higher	Low	Higher	Low
p-values (across 3 levels)	3.3307e-16*	5.9211e-09*	0.0428*	0.0006*

$p < 0.05$

As shown in table 4.82 below, further analysis using post-hoc Tukey HSD test revealed that level 3 learners differed significantly from other levels. Factors that made this level different include the relative lower use of “can” and the increased use of “could” in both types of requests (to higher and equal status) as compared to other two levels.

Table 4.82 Comparison of different pairs of levels based on p-values corresponding to the post-hoc Tukey HSD test

Post-hoc Tukey HSD test results (p-values) to higher and equal status addressees				
Comparison across levels	Can		Could	
Hearer's status	Higher	Equal	Higher	Equal
Level 1 vs. Level 2	0.1567779	0.2723659	0.8024791	0.8999947
Level 1 vs. Level 3	0.0010053*	0.0010053*	0.0427746*	0.0010892*
Level 2 vs. Level 3	0.0010053*	0.0010053*	0.1464771	0.0033254*

p<0.05

In the following, results for the use of modals in requests with varying degrees of imposition are presented. As shown in table 4.83 below, findings revealed that learners at all levels showed no significant variation in the use of modals across high and low imposition requests.

Table 4.83 Distribution of modals across conventionally indirect requests in oral production data by imposition

Distribution of modals in oral production data per request by imposition													
Level	I ²⁸	Can	%	P-values	Could	%	P-values	Would	%	May	%	Other	Total CI ²⁹ requests
1	High	152	99%	0.0503	0	0%	0	0	0%	0	0%	2 (1%)	154
	low	287	99%		0	0%		0	0%	0	0%	3 (1%)	290
2	High	160	96%	0.0813	6	4%	0.4299	0	0%	0	0%	0 (0%)	166
	Low	266	98%		4	1.6%		0	0%	1	.4%	0 (0%)	271
3	High	179	82%	0.1448	30	14%	0.5647	0	0%	0	0%	10(4%)	219
	Low	258	81%		41	13%		1	.3%	5	1.7%	12(4%)	317

p<0.05

Even though learners did not show major differences at each level in the use of modals in requests with varying imposition, significant differences across levels were found in the use of the modal “could” in both high and low imposition requests. Examine results of one-way ANOVA test regarding the use of modals in table 4.84 below.

²⁸ Imposition²⁹ Conventionally indirect requests

Table 4.84 *p*-values in one-way ANOVA test displaying the use of modals in oral production data across levels by imposition

Post-hoc Tukey HSD test results (p-values) for high and low imposition requests				
	Can		Could	
Degree of imposition	High	Low	High	Low
Comparison across levels	0.7248	0.6995	4.2903e-08*	3.3147e-09*

$p < 0.05$

Table 4.85 displays results for post-hoc Tukey HSD test which shows that the level which differed significantly from others was level 3, because learners at this level used a higher frequency of the modal “could” in both high and low imposition requests as compared to other two levels.

Table 4.85 Comparison of different pairs of levels based on *p*-values corresponding to the post-hoc Tukey HSD test

Post-hoc Tukey HSD test results (p-values) for high and low imposition requests				
Comparison across levels	Can		Could	
Degree of imposition	High	Low	High	Low
Level 1 vs. Level 2	0.8999947	0.8086968	0.2516938	0.6967562
Level 1 vs. Level 3	0.6985107	0.6791833	0.0010053*	0.0010053*
Level 2 vs. Level 3	0.8494258	0.8999947	0.0010053*	0.0010053*

$p < 0.05$

4.3.5.2 Modals: free production.

Table 4.86 displays the distribution of modals in conventionally indirect requests in free production data by level. Like oral production data, free production data also showed that learners at all levels used “can” frequently with little variation across requests to varying addressees. Level 1 learners used “can” in 100% of their requests to equal status and 93% of requests to higher status addressees. Level 2 learners, on the other hand, used “can” in 86% requests to higher status and 77% requests to equal status, whereas level 3 learners used “can” in 86% requests to higher and 82% requests to equal status addressees. Regarding the use of

“could”, level 2 learners showed some variation by using “could” in 9% requests to equal status addressees compared to 14% requests to higher status addressees. However, differences in the choice of modals across requests to higher and equal status addressees were not significant at any level.

Table 4.86 Distribution of modals by dominance per request by level

Modals by dominance: Free production data (role plays)													
Level	status	Can	%	p-values	Could	%	p-values	Would	%	May	%	other	Total CI requests
1	High	28	93%	0.3202	0	0%	0	0	0%	0	0%	2 (7%)	30
	Equal	34	100%		0	0%		0	0%	0	0%	0 (0%)	34
2	High	19	86%	0.8505	2	9%	0.6704	0	0%	0	0%	1 (5%)	22
	Equal	17	77%		3	14%		0	0%	0	0%	2 (9%)	22
3	High	13	86%	0.2070	1	7%	1.0000	0	0%	0	0%	1 (7%)	15
	Equal	18	82%		1	4.5%		1	4.5%	1	4.5%	1 (4.5%)	22

$p < 0.05$

Comparisons across levels using one-way ANOVA test showed that the only significant difference was found in the use of “can” in requests to equal status addressees (see table 4.87 below).

Table 4.87 p-values in one-way ANOVA test displaying the use of modals in free production data across levels by dominance

One-way ANOVA test results (p-values) for requests to higher and equal status addressees				
	Use of "Can"		Use of "Could"	
Addressee's status	Higher	Equal	Higher	Equal
Comparison across all three levels	0.2414	0.0303*	0.3227	0.2740

$p < 0.05$

In order to examine which level differed significantly from others, further analysis using post-hoc Tukey HSD test was conducted. As shown in table 4.88 below, findings indicated that the only significant difference was found between level 1 and level 2 in the use of “can” in requests to equal status addressees ($p < 0.05$), because level 2 learners used “can” less frequently

in requests to equal status addressees (and used “could” more frequently) as compared to level 1 learners.

Table 4.88 Comparison of different pairs of levels based on p-values corresponding to the post-hoc Tukey HSD test

Post-hoc Tukey HSD test results (p-values) for requests to higher and equal status addressees				
Comparison across levels	Use of "Can"		Use of "Could"	
Addressee's status	Higher	Equal	Higher	Equal
Level 1 vs. Level 2	0.5051618	0.0423110*	0.2930538	0.2567239
Level 1 vs. Level 3	0.2222905	0.0552076	0.7016174	0.8304973
Level 2 vs. Level 3	0.7880423	0.8999947	0.7016174	0.5193486

p<0.05

Concerning the use of modals in high and low imposition requests at all levels, table 4.89 below displays the distribution of modals in free production data by imposition. Findings showed that learners at all levels evidenced differential trends in the use of modals across high and low imposition requests. Level 1 and level 3 learners used “can” more frequently in low imposition requests (level 1: 93% and level 3: 76% in high imposition respectively compared to 100% at level 1 and 95% at level 2 in low imposition requests) whereas level 2 learners used “can” more often in high imposition requests (92% compared to 78%). Overall, no significant variation was found in the use of “can” and “could” in high and low imposition requests except at level 3 but

Table 4.89 Distribution of modals in free production data by imposition per request by level

Distribution of modals by imposition in free production data														
Level	I ³⁰	Can	%	p-values	Could	%	p-values	Would	%	May	%	Other structures	%	Total CI requests
1	High	26	93%	0.3491	0	0%	0	0	0%	0	0%	2	7%	28
	low	36	100%		0	0%		0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	36
2	High	11	92%	0.6233	1	8%	0.4327	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	12
	Low	25	78%		4	13%		0	0%	0	0%	3	9%	32
3	High	13	76%	0.5370	2	12%	0.0338*	1	6%	1	6%	0	0%	17
	Low	19	95%		0	0%		0	0%	0	0%	1	5%	20

p<0.05

³⁰ Imposition

values across high and low imposition requests were too low to show a revealing statistical difference. Similarly, the statistical analysis was not conducted for other modals (“would”, “may”, “might”) because values were too restricted to allow a consequential analysis.

Table 4.90 below displays results for one-way ANOVA test comparing all three levels under study concerning the use of modals in high and low imposition requests. Findings indicated that learners only showed significant differences in the use of “could” in low imposition requests.

Table 4.90 p-values in one-way ANOVA test displaying the use of modals in free production data across levels by imposition

Post-hoc Tukey HSD test results (p-values) for high and low imposition requests				
	Use of "can"		Use of "could"	
Degree of imposition	low	High	low	High
Comparison across all three levels	0.1367	0.0660	0.0334*	0.2963

p<0.05

However, as shown in table 4.91 below, results of post-hoc Tukey HSD test revealed that none of the levels could be singled out as being significantly different from others. However, both level 1 and level 3 learners differed visibly from level 1 concerning the use of “could” in low imposition requests because the use of “could” was almost absent at level 1 compared to level 2 and level 3.

Table 4.91 The comparison of different pairs of levels based on p-values corresponding to post-hoc Tukey HSD test

Post-hoc Tukey HSD test results (p-values) for high and low imposition requests				
Comparison across levels	Use of "can"		Use of "could"	
Degree of imposition	low	High	low	High
Level 1 vs. Level 2	0.3792827	0.0751140	0.0543975*	0.6719476
Level 1 vs. Level 3	0.1226990	0.1195855	0.8999947	0.2690309
Level 2 vs. Level 3	0.7256449	0.8999947	0.0543975*	0.6719476

p<0.05

4.3.5.3 Modals: classroom requests.

Findings regarding the use of modals in classroom requests addressed to different status addressees are presented in table 4.92 below. Findings showed that learners at all levels used “can” in about 100% of both types of requests: requests to higher and equal status addressees.

Table 4.92 Distribution of modals in conventionally indirect requests in classroom requests per request by level

Modals: Classroom requests				
	Hearer's status	Can	%	Total conventionally indirect requests
Level 1	Higher	33	100%	33
	Equal	15	100%	15
Level 2	Higher	8	100%	8
	Equal	2	100%	2
Level 3	Higher	15	100%	15
	Equal	0	100%	0

Since values in authentic data were low, statistical analyses comparing learners' performance in requests to higher and equal status addressees were not conducted. Similarly, the comparison across levels was not conducted due to the lack of control over the type and the number of requests in different conditions. In the following section, results of all elicitation methods concerning the use of modals are summarised using several illustrations.

4.3.5.4 Comparison of findings: use of modals.

Figures 4.64 and 4.65 below display the frequency of modals “can” and “could” in requests to higher and equal status addressees at level 1. Findings revealed that level 1 learners used the modal “can” in both types of requests frequently, with a little evidence of the use of

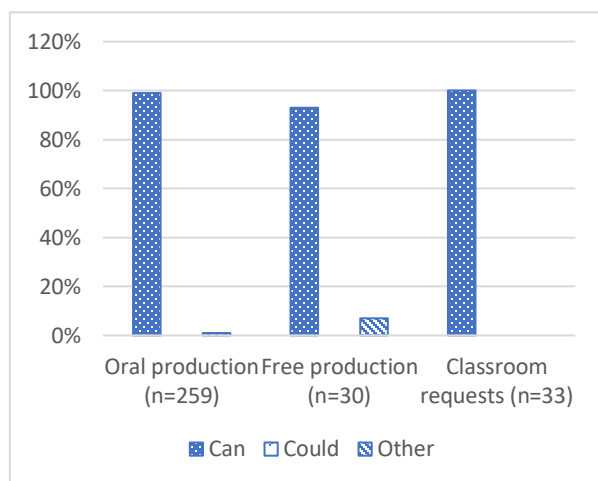


Figure 4.64 Use of modals in requests to higher status addressees at level 1

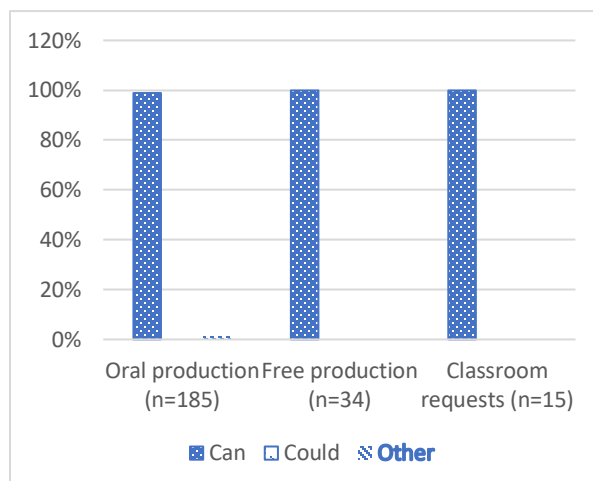


Figure 4.65 Use of modals in requests to equal status addressees at level 1

“could” in requests to higher status addressees whereas their use of “could” was almost absent in requests to equal status addressees.

Figures 4.66 and 4.67 display that level 2 learners also preferred using “can” frequently in requests to both types of addressees: higher and equal status. These learners’ use of “could” was uncommon in both types of requests, but they used a slightly high frequency of “could” in requests to equal status addressees.

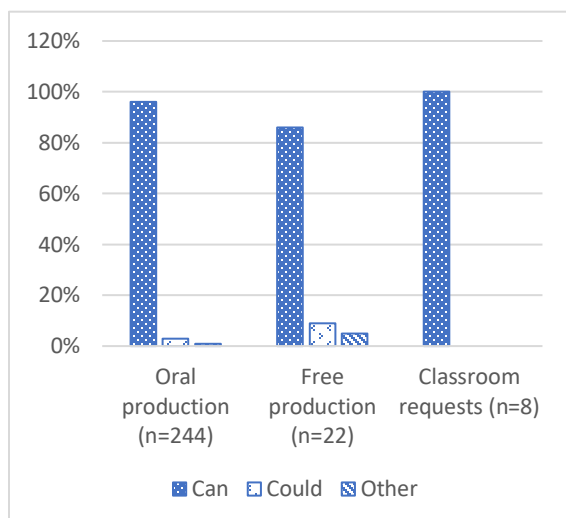


Figure 4.66 Use of modals in requests to higher status addressees at level 2

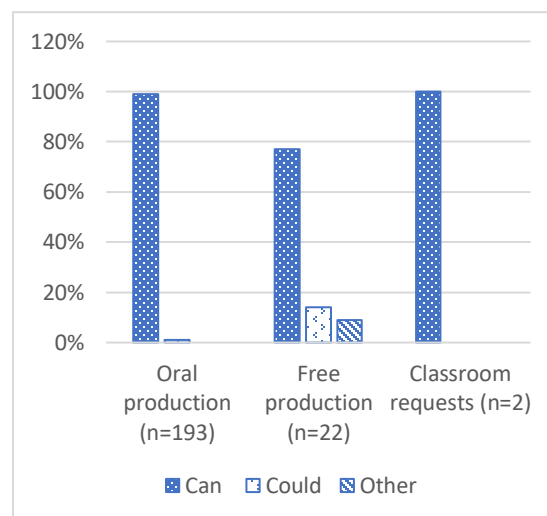


Figure 4.67 Use of modals in requests to equal status addressees at level 2

Figures 4.68 and 4.69 display that level 3 learners also used the modal “can” predominantly in request to higher as well as to equal status addressees, like level 1 and level 2. However, level 3 learners also did not show significant difference in the use of modal “could” in requests to different addressees.

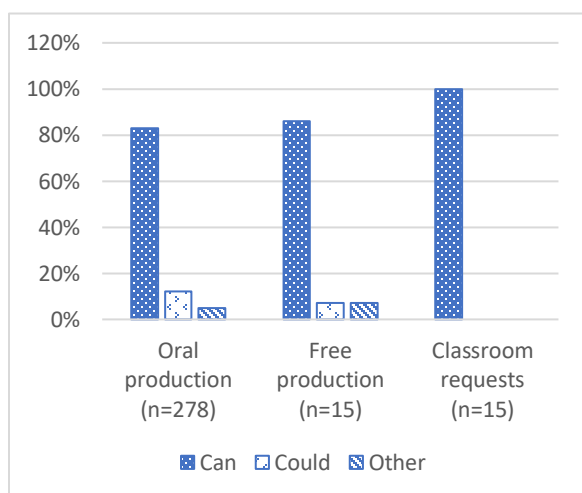


Figure 4.68 of modals in requests to higher status addressees at level 3

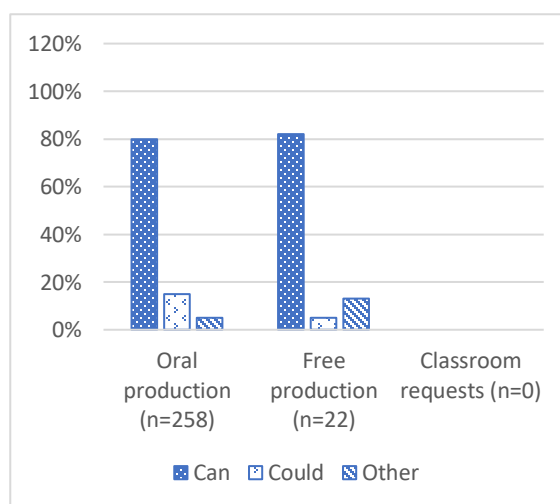


Figure 4.69 Use of modals in requests to equal status addressees at level 3

Overall, findings regarding the effect of social status on learners’ requests indicated that learners at all levels used “can” frequently in requests to both higher and equal status addressees.

Moreover, they showed no significant variation in the use of “could” across different request conditions. In the following, findings regarding learners’ performance in requests with varying degrees of imposition at different levels are presented.

Figures 4.70 and 4.71 display level 1 learners’ use of modals across high and low imposition requests respectively. Findings indicated that learners at this level used “can” frequently in both high and low imposition requests. However, they used “could” almost exclusively in high imposition requests, although with a low frequency.

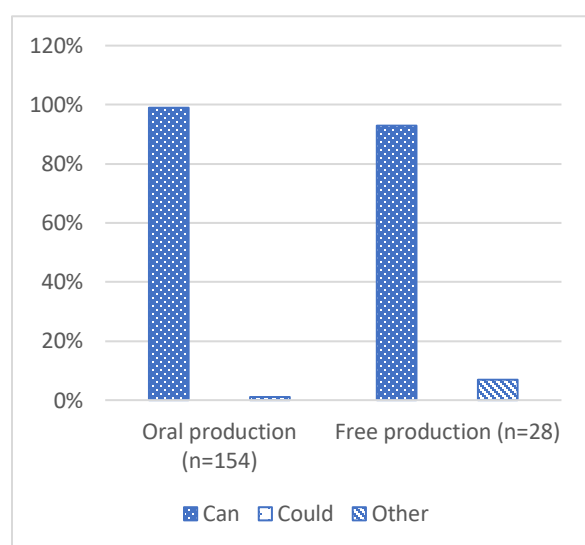


Figure 4.70 Use of modals in high imposition requests at level 1

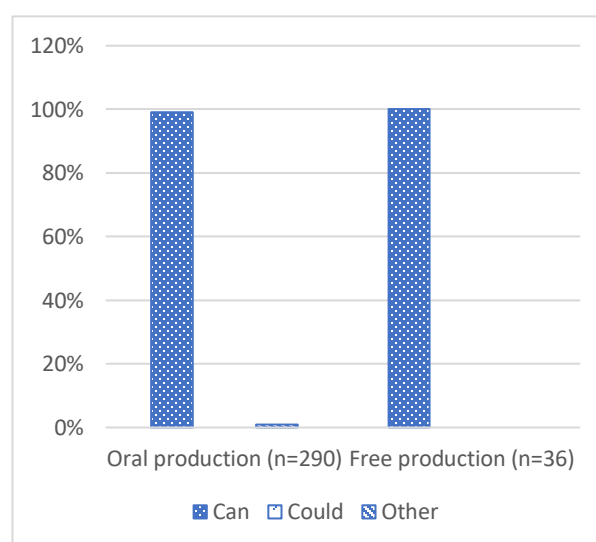


Figure 4.71 Use of modals in low imposition requests at level 1

Figures 4.72 and 4.73 display level 2 learners’ use of modals in high and low imposition requests respectively. Findings showed that these learners also used “can” frequently in both high and low imposition requests. They used a slightly higher frequency of “could” in requests to equal status addressees in free production data. However, differences in the use of modals across high and low imposition requests were not significant.

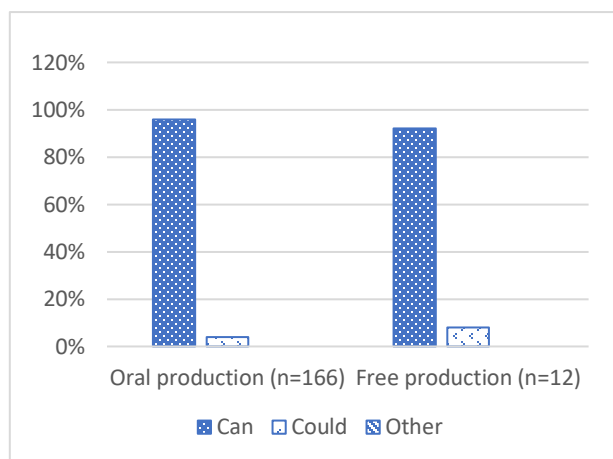


Figure 4.72 Use of modals in high imposition requests at level 2

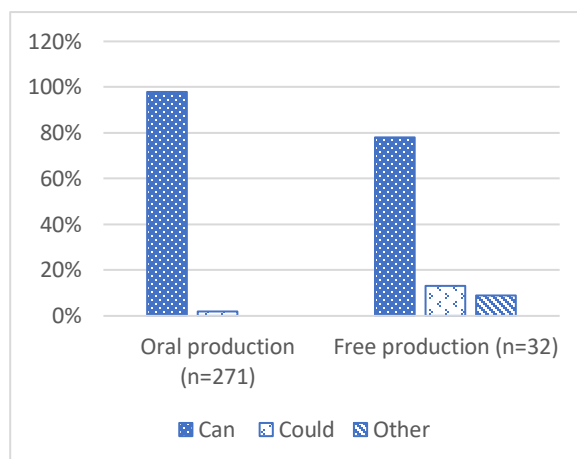


Figure 4.73 Use of modals in low imposition requests at level 2

Learners at level 3, also showed little variation across high and low imposition requests in the use of “can” and “could”, as shown in figures 4.74 and 4.75. Level 3 learners’ use of “can” was comparable across high and low imposition requests in oral production data. Likewise, their use of “could” was also comparable across high and low imposition requests in oral production data but they used “could” only in high imposition requests in free production data.

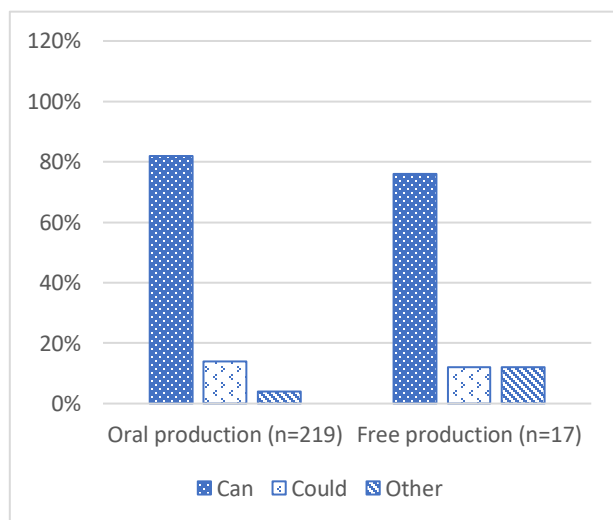


Figure 4.74 Use of modals in high imposition requests at level 3

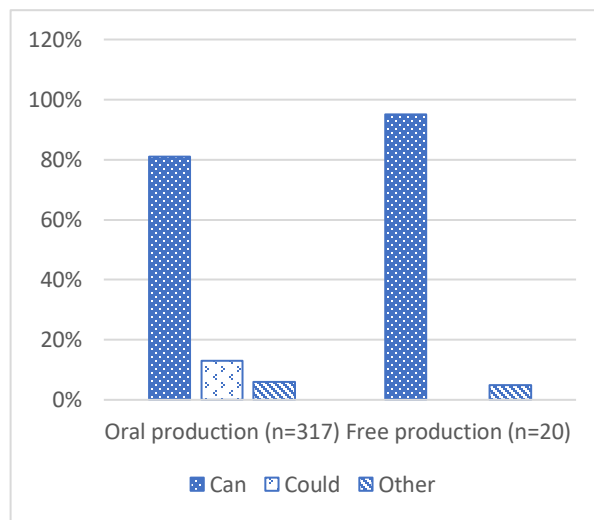


Figure 4.75 Use of modals in low imposition requests at level 3

Findings regarding the use of modals across high and low imposition requests indicate that learners at all levels preferred using “can” in all types of requests. Their use of the modal “could” was generally low but mostly comparable across high and low imposition requests.

Summary

This section summarises results for the first two research questions which examined learners’ pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic awareness and development across different proficiency levels. The specific pragmatic measures investigated were a) request perspectives, b) request strategies, c) internal modification of requests, d) external modification, and e) modals.

Concerning the use of request perspectives, results showed that learners at all levels relied heavily on the hearer dominant perspective (“Can *you* give me a sheet of paper, please?”) (level 1: 65%, level 2: 61%, level 3: 70%; see tables 4.2 & 4.5). The use of the speaker dominant perspective (“Can *I* go to the toilet?”) was also used by learners but it was much less common at all levels (level 1: 29%, level 2: 31%, level 3: 22%; tables 4.2 & 4.5). The use of other request perspectives (e.g., speaker and hearer dominant, impersonal), however, was restricted at all levels. With regard to the use of request strategies, learners at all levels showed a preference for conventionally indirect requests (e.g., “Can you give me some money please?”). They used this strategy in 83% of requests overall (see table 4.9). The use of this strategy increased with level (see tables 4.9, 4.11, & 4.13). In contrast, the use of the direct strategy (“Give me a paper”) was limited at all levels (overall 15%; see table 4.9), and its frequency was inversely related to level/proficiency. However, no progress in the use of nonconventionally indirect requests or hints was found with the increase in level (see tables 4.9, 4.11, & 4.13). Internal modifiers that learners used frequently consisted of lexical and phrasal downgraders (e.g., “please”, “a little”). The frequency of internal modifiers increased markedly with the increase in level (level 1: 57%,

level 2: 82%, level 3: 140%; table 4.18). However, similar development in the variety of internal modifiers was not observed since the use of other internal modifiers (e.g., upgraders, syntactic downgraders) remained limited (see table 4.17). Like internal modifiers, the frequency of external modifiers (alerters and supportive moves) increased significantly with level (*alerters*: level 1: 12%, level 2: 27%, level 3: 83%; *supportive moves*: level 1: 4%, level 2: 13%, level 3: 39%; tables 4.25 & 4.28). Nevertheless, they over-relied on address terms (alerters) and grounders/giving explanations (supportive moves). Limitation in learners' pragmalinguistic repertoire was also evident in their use of modals. Learners at all levels used "can" overwhelmingly (level 1: 99%, level 2: 97.5%, level 3: 81.5%; table 4.31), whereas their use of other modals (e.g., "could", "would", "might") remained limited (tables 4.34 & 4.37).

Overall, findings suggest that learners' pragmalinguistic repertoire improved with the increase in proficiency. They used several strategies and modifiers with greater frequency at higher levels. However, major advances in this regard were found in the form of an increase in frequency but not variety of strategies, modifiers, and modals. Learners, even at the higher levels in the study, showed an overreliance on certain elements by using them recurrently in the many different request scenarios used in the study.

Results also suggested that learners' sociopragmatic skills remained limited, since they showed no significant variation (with a few exceptions at level 3) in the choice of different strategies in high/low imposition requests to higher/equal status addressees. For instance, they showed a preference for hearer dominant perspective in requests to both higher (level 1: 74%, level 2: 75%, level 3: 56%) and equal status addressees (level 1: 73%, level 2: 83%, level 3: 61%) with little variation (see table 4.43). Likewise, their use of request perspectives was also comparable across high (level 1: 66%, level 2: 61%, level 3: 71%) and low imposition requests

(level 1: 64%, level 2: 60%, level 3: 69%) with little or no variation (see tables 4.41 & 4.45).

Concerning the use of request strategies, learners at all levels preferred conventionally indirect strategy in requests to both equal (level 1: 69%, level 2: 79%, level 3: 86%) and higher status addressees (level 1: 82%, level 2: 85%, level 3: 94%; tables 4.48 & 4.53). However, some variation was found in the greater use of direct strategies in high imposition requests (level 1: 33%, level 2: 28%, level 3: 14%) compared to low imposition requests (level 1: 14%, level 2: 6%, level 3: 1%; table 4.50). This pattern may not suggest development towards more targetlike production, given that higher imposition requests generally need to be softened with indirect strategies. Of course, interlanguage development does not always occur smoothly, and learners may temporarily exhibit less targetlike behaviour as new forms are integrated in the developing grammar (Rose, 2009; Hassall, 2003). Learners at all levels showed some development in the use of internal modifiers by using lexical downgraders more frequently in requests to higher status addressees (level 1: 80%, level 2: 208%, level 3: 181%) compared to equal status addressees (level 1: 64%, level 2: 64%, level 3: 170%, see table 4.62). Likewise, regarding external modifiers, learners at all levels used more alerters in requests to higher status addressees (level 1: 19%, level 2: 30%, level 3: 101%) as compared to lower status (level 1: 5%, level 2: 23%, level 3: 65%, see table 4.69). However, they used supportive moves more frequently in requests to equal status addressees (level 1: 5%, level 2: 17%, level 3: 50%) than requests to equal status addressees (level 1: 2%, level 2: 10%, level 3: 27%, see table 4.69). Regarding imposition, learners showed some progress by using a higher frequency of alerters and supportive moves in high imposition requests (level 1: 43%, level 2: 183%, level 3: 152%) compared to low imposition requests (level 1: 60%, level 2: 71%, level 3: 115%, see table 4.77). Since learners' use of modals was limited to "can", no sociopragmatic development on this measure was found

across levels (see tables 4.80 & 4.83 for the effect of status and 4.86 & 4.89 for imposition on learner requests).

Thus, results of these analyses indicated that learners even at higher levels seemed to lack variety at all levels of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence. Several factors may have contributed to learners' limited progress including L1 influence and/or limited L2 input and interactional opportunities. The second part of analysis, therefore, seeks explanations for these findings and provides answers to the last two research questions: a) "What kind of input do classroom learners get in France?" 2) "What opportunities do they have for production? Do they use these opportunities? Do they create others?" Answers to these questions are provided by analysing the extent of opportunities for learning L2 pragmatics in a) L2 English textbooks and b) authentic classroom activities.

4.4 Opportunities for Learning L2 Pragmatics: Textbook Analysis

The aim of textbook analysis was to find activities/tasks containing any metapragmatic input concerning L2 English requests because these activities could be a potential source for learning L2 pragmatics for learners. All relevant activities in selected textbooks were recorded by means of a page by page analysis which included several types of activities/tasks: activity descriptions/instructions, exercises, text documents, transcriptions, and grammar sections in lessons were covered in the analysis. It was aimed to find three types of data. First and foremost were those activities which contained explicit metapragmatic input concerning L2 requests (see example 4.1 below).

Example 4.1 (Level 2, Connect, p. 137)

Can

- *Can* exprime une **capacité**, il indique que quelque chose est possible. Dans ce cas, on peut le traduire par « pouvoir » ou « savoir ».

Ex: *This chef **can** make very good food.*
*He **can** play several instruments.*

Il peut aussi exprimer la **permission**.

Ex: ***Can** I go to the cinema with Sue?*

- On utilise **can't** pour exprimer une impossibilité.

Ex: *I don't believe it! It **can't** be a ghost!*

- **Can't have + participe passé** sert à exprimer une action passée dont on est presque sûr qu'elle n'a pas eu lieu.

Ex: *They did not choose him for the job, he **can't have been** pleased.*

Example 4.2 (Level 1, Making friends, p.86)

1 Read the following email. Match the questions to the answers. CE

Compose Send Save Draft Cancel

To: jennythebestfriend@gmail.uk

Subject: Need your help!

Hi Jenny,
 I'm writing to you because I need a favour. It's Mum's birthday on Saturday and I'm looking for a present for her. She wants a new computer, but computers are very expensive. Your Dad works at Currys, the electrical shop, doesn't he? Can he get a laptop or a tablet at a reduced price?
 I'm also organising a surprise party for mum, so I'm contacting all her friends. I'm sending emails to 25 people!
Can you come to the party too?

Speak to you tomorrow at school.
 Emily

Who is Emily writing to?

A surprise party.

Why is she writing?

25.

What is she looking for?

Jenny.

What is she organising?

A cheap computer or tablet.

Who is she contacting?

She needs a favour.

How many emails is she sending?

All her mother's friends.

Where does Jenny's dad work?

A present for her mother.

What can Jenny's dad get for Emily?

In an electrical shop.

B2i
 Écrire et envoyer des e-mails!
 p. 80

Second, those activities, tasks, exercises, and transcriptions of audio documents which focused on L2 requests but did not contain any explicit metapragmatic input about L2 requests were also considered in the analysis. Such activities were considered as an implicit means for learning L2 pragmatics for L2 learners (see example 4.2 above).

Finally, activities which focused on other linguistic functions (tenses, story writing etc.) but included incidental requests were also included in the analysis. For example;

Example 4.3 (Level 2, New Enjoy, p. 59)

5. Practise your spelling p. 77

- Mots terminés en -y
- Adverbes en -ly

4. You are a story writer!

WHAT CAN WE DO?

I DON'T KNOW... WE LEFT OUR BAGS AT THE HOTEL.

BUT WE CAN'T GO AND GET THEM! THAT'S TOO RISKY!

WE CAN TAKE THE BOAT AND GET OUT OF HERE!

OK, GO PUSH IT INTO THE WATER...

QUICK! I WILL GET OUR CLOTHES

• Look at the illustrations above and tell the story!

Organize your story:

- describe the situation in picture a;

hear - a rumble -

Our rationale for considering such incidental requests as shown in example 4.3 above in the analysis was that these activities could also be a potential source of input and/or practice for learners since they repeatedly occurred in different activities, although their salience might be

questionable unless the teacher highlights them. For each type of activity, the page number and the topic was also recorded.

Since each type of activities considered in analysis contained one or more instances of requests, the total number of requests exceeded the number of activities analysed. All types of requests were further examined for strategy distribution using Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989, CCSARP) categorisation of request strategies: direct (*e.g.*, “open the window”), conventionally indirect (*e.g.*, “can you open the window?”), and nonconventionally indirect requests (*e.g.*, “It is quite cold in here. Hint: Close the window”).

Other than counting activities containing L2 pragmatic input in L2 textbooks, the total number of the activities/tasks in textbooks was also estimated in order to find the percentage of activities containing L2 pragmatic input. However, due to shortage of time, activities were counted in first few lessons only (ranging from 35 to 55 pages) to establish an average number of activities per lesson. Based on the average number of activities per lesson an estimated number of activities was determined in the entire textbook (see appendix 18). Such analysis is done for all the textbooks under analysis at all levels. Findings for analysis of textbooks at all levels are presented in detail below.

4.4.1 L2 pragmatic input in textbooks at Level 1.

The textbook analysis at level 1 revealed that L2 requests were part of a large number of activities in L2 textbooks. Table 4.2.1 below displays the frequency of different types of activities containing L2 requests per textbook. The percentage of activities containing L2 pragmatics in textbooks was also estimated (see appendix 18 for more details). The textbook which contained the highest number of such activities was “Making friends” (n=31) followed by “New Enjoy” (n=28), and “Welcome” (n=22). With regard to the percentage of activities

containing L2 pragmatics, “New Enjoy” stands out because it contained some kind of pragmatic input in about 14.5% of activities in the textbook. However, the total number of activities containing *explicit* metapragmatic input regarding requests was limited in all textbooks (n=9), ranging from 1 (“Step in”, “Welcome”, “Connect”) to 3 activities (“Making friends”, “New Enjoy”), which accounted for only 1% to 1.5% of activities in the textbooks. Compared to

Table 4.2.1 Frequency count of activities containing L2 requests in selected textbooks at level 1

Textbook name	Estimated total of activities in textbooks ³¹	Activities with explicit metapragmatic input	%	Activities with implicit metapragmatic input	%	Activities with incidental requests	%	Total number of activities containing requests	%
Making friends	342	3	1%	12	3%	16	5%	31	9%
Step in	178	1	1%	9	5%	9	5%	19	11%
Welcome	329	1	0.3%	2	0.6%	19	6%	22	7%
Connect	273	1	0.4%	2	0.7%	5	2%	8	3%
New enjoy	193	3	1.5%	9	5%	16	8%	28	14.5%
Total	1315	9	0.7%	34	2.6%	65	5%	108	8%

explicit metapragmatic input, 34 such activities were found in all textbooks which implicitly focused on requests, accounting for 3% to 5% of the total activities found in the textbooks.

Concerning the incidental occurrence of requests, an overall of 65 activities were identified at level 1 containing requests. Such incidences were more prominent in “Welcome” (n=19), “Making friends” (n=16), and “New Enjoy” (n=16) compared to “Step in” (n=9) and “Connect” (n=5) (see table 4.2.1 above).

³¹ See appendix 18 for the procedure of calculating total activities in textbooks

Table 4.2.2 Distribution of request strategies identified in L2 textbooks at level 1

Textbook name	Activities containing requests (n)	Total requests in the activities (n)	Type of requests (n)			
			Direct (n)	CI ³² (n)	NCI ³³ (n)	Requests to be made by learners as part of the exercise (n)
Making friends	31	53	26	21	1	5
Step in	19	57	36	13	3	5
Welcome	22	46	20	25	1	0
Connect	8	18	15	3	0	0
New enjoy	28	68	42	25	1	0
Total	108	242	139	87	6	10

Further analysis was conducted a) to find the total number of requests in activities³⁴ containing L2 pragmatic input and b) to categorise the requests by strategy type. Table 4.2.2 displays the number of requests and the distribution of requests by strategy types. Findings showed that out of 108 activities containing L2 requests at level 1, a total of 242 sample requests were found. The number of requests in activities with explicit and implicit focus on requests was not separated because the aim was to have general information about the type of request strategies used in requests, which may or may not be salient in textbooks. The highest frequency of L2 requests was identified in “New enjoy” (n=68) followed by “Making friends” (n=53) and “Step in” (n=57) with somewhat lower frequency. In contrast, the lowest number of requests was found in “Connect” (n=18).

Regarding the use of request strategies, findings indicated that the direct strategy was most frequently used in the given requests at level 1. The use of nonconventionally indirect

³² CI refers to “conventionally indirect requests”

³³ NCI refers to “nonconventionally indirect requests”


³⁴ Since, the actual number of requests in the activities containing L2 requests varied from one activity to another, the number of requests found in the activities was counted separately

strategy, however, was much less frequent. About half of the requests in “Making friends” and “Welcome” were direct, whereas the direct strategies were two times greater in “New enjoy” than the conventionally indirect strategy in this textbook. Moreover, the use of direct strategy in “Step in” was three times greater than conventionally indirect requests and in “Connect” direct requests were five times more frequent than conventionally indirect requests (see table 4.2.2).

The use of nonconventionally indirect requests, in contrast, was much less evident with six examples overall in all textbooks. Exceptionally, “Making friends” and “Step in” also included five exercises/tasks each in which learners had to produce some kind of requests. However, no learner data for these exercises was available. An example of such an exercise is shown below;

Example 4.4 (Level 1, Making friends, p. 97)

D. Expression orale
10 pts


Travaillez en binôme.
 En vous servant du plan (Section A),
 préparez et jouez un dialogue.
 L'un demande son chemin et l'autre le
 lui indique. Le point de départ est l'école.
 Le point d'arrivée est le lieu de votre choix.

Results reported in this section indicate that L2 textbooks provide only a limited range of opportunities for learning L2 pragmatics. However, the number of activities containing explicit metapragmatic opportunities are even more restricted. These findings show that limited metapragmatic input in textbooks can be a major cause of level 1 learners' limited pragmatic skills as indicated earlier in the analysis (sections 4.2, 4.3). Likewise, the frequent use of “direct requests” in textbooks also reflected level 1 learners' increased use of direct strategies in elicited data (COPT). In the following section, results for textbooks at level 2 are presented in detail.

4.4.2 L2 pragmatic input in textbooks at Level 2.

The analysis of textbooks at level 2 showed that the number of activities containing L2 requests at level 2 was much lower than the number of activities at level 1 (level 1=108, level 2=56).

However, like level 1, the number of activities which explicitly focused on L2 requests was very small (level 1=9, level 2=7). The number of activities with implicit metapragmatic input about requests was also quite restricted at level 2 (n=9).

As expected, the number of activities with incidental occurrence of requests was much higher (n=40) than the activities with explicit or implicit focus on L2 requests, although lower than level 1 (n=65). The percentages revealed that the activities with explicit metapragmatic input only accounted for 0% to 1% of total activities in textbooks. Likewise, textbooks included only 0.3% to 1.5% activities with implicit input and 1.6% to 4.6% with incidental requests. These findings show that L2 metapragmatic input was almost absent in all textbooks at level 2 under study.

Table 4.2.3 Frequency count of activities containing L2 requests in selected textbooks at level 2

Textbook s	Estimated total of activities / exercises in the textbook	Activities with explicit metapragmat ic input (n)	%	Activities with implicit metapragmatic input (n)	%	Activitie s with incident al requests (n)	%	Total activities containin g requests (n)	%
Connect	272	2	0.7%	1	0.3%	9	3%	12	4%
Step in	312	2	0.6%	1	0.3%	5	1.6%	8	2.5 %
Welcome	258	0	0%	2	0.8%	12	4.6%	14	5.4 %
Join the team	296	1	0.3%	2	0.7%	9	3%	12	4%
Enjoy English	204	2	1%	3	1.5%	5	2.5%	10	5%
Total	1342	7	0.5%	9	0.7%	40	3%	56	4.2 %

The 56 activities containing requests in level 2 textbooks were further analysed to find the total number of requests present in activities and to classify requests by strategies. As shown in table 4.2.4 below, findings revealed that out of 56 activities, a total of 106 requests were found. The analysis of request strategies revealed that, like level 1, the direct strategy was most frequent at level 2 (67 out of 106). Conventionally indirect strategies, on the other hand,

Table 4.2.4 Distribution of request strategies identified in L2 textbooks at level 2

Textbook name	Activities containing requests (n)	Total requests in activities (n)	Type of request strategies (n)		
			Direct	CI	NCI
Connect	12	22	18	4	0
Step in	8	22	18	4	0
Welcome	14	21	12	9	0
Join the team	12	19	3	16	0
Enjoy English	10	22	16	4	2
Total	56	106	67	37	2

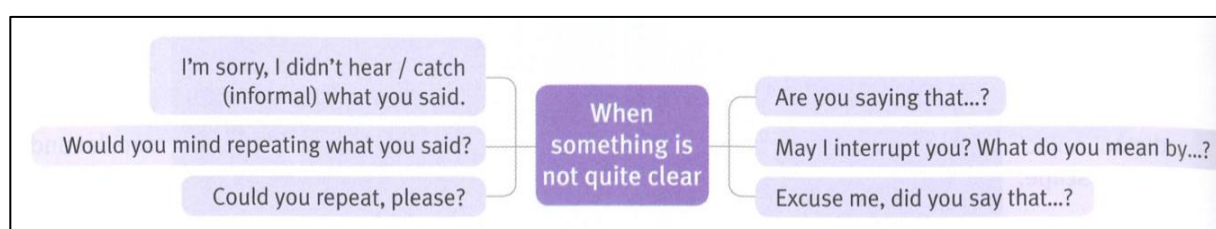
were used much less frequently (37 out of 106). The only textbook in which the number of conventionally indirect requests was higher (n=16) than direct requests (=3) was “Join the team” as opposed to other textbooks at level 2. The use of nonconventionally indirect strategies, however, was almost absent from textbooks.

The analysis of textbooks at level 2 also revealed that L2 metapragmatic input was almost absent from the textbooks. Analysis of requests containing requests showed that majority of requests found in textbooks were realized by means of direct strategies. Findings explained level 2 learners’ limited knowledge about the variety of request strategies and their appropriate use in different contexts. So far, findings of textbook analysis are reported only for level 1 and level 2. In the following, results are presented for textbook analysis at level 3.

4.4.3 L2 pragmatic input in textbooks at Level 3.

Table 4.2.5 displays the frequency of activities containing L2 requests in selected textbooks at level 3. Findings showed that the total number of activities containing requests at this level (n=42) was smaller than both level 1 (n=108) and level 2 (n=56). However, activities with explicit focus on L2 requests were even more rare in textbooks at level 3. One exceptional example of an explicit metapragmatic input about L2 requests was found in “Meeting point” and “Password” each. For example;

Example 4.5 (Meeting point, p.242)



However, in the rest of textbooks no such metapragmatic input was found. The number of activities with an implicit focus on L2 requests was also very small with only six examples at

Table 4.2.5 Frequency count of activities containing L2 requests in selected textbooks at level 3

Name of textbook	Estimated total of activities / exercises in the textbook	Activities with explicit metapragmatic information (n)	%	Activities with implicit metapragmatic info (n)	%	Activities with incidental requests (n)	%	Activities containing requests (n)	%
Meeting point	480	1	0.2 %	1	0.2 %	11	2.3 %	13	2.7 %
Missions	544	0	0%	1	0.2 %	6	1.1 %	7	1.3 %
Project	292	0	0%	1	0.3 %	10	3.4 %	11	3.7 %
Full impact	472	0	0%	3	0.6 %	2	0.4 %	5	1%
Password	382	1	0.3 %	0	0%	5	1.3 %	6	1.6 %
Total	2170	2	0.1 %	6	0.3 %	34	1.6 %	42	2%

As displayed in table 4.2.6 below, further analysis of data at level 3 showed that out of 42 activities containing L2 requests, a total of 77 requests were identified with a highest frequency of requests in “Meeting point” (n=27) and the lowest in “Full impact” (n=8). Concerning the use of request strategies, like level 1 and level 2, a great majority of requests at level 3 were also realized by means of direct strategy whereas the occurrence of conventionally indirect strategy was markedly uncommon. The use of nonconventionally indirect requests, on the other hand, barely occurred with some exceptional examples in “Meeting Point” (n=2). Analysis of level 3 textbooks also suggested that the number of L2 pragmatic input related to L2 requests was restricted. However, most of the activities included incidental requests but the

Table 4.2.6 Distribution of request strategies identified in L2 textbooks at level 3

Name of textbook	Requests in the activity (n)	Type of requests (n)			
		Direct (n)	CI (n)	NCI (n)	Requests as part of exercises (task for learners) (n)
Meeting point	27	18	7	2	0
Missions	11	8	3	0	0
Project	21	19	1	1	0
Full impact	8	5	0	0	3
Password	10	4	5	1	0
Total	77	54	16	4	3

activities with implicit/explicit metapragmatic input was almost absent in most of the activities. It is important to note that the number of activities with L2 requests were in level 3 textbooks were even lower than textbooks at level 1 and level 2. These findings suggest that most of the metapragmatic input regarding L2 requests is provided in lower level textbooks which might explain that textbooks might contribute considerably in learners’ limited knowledge about the variety of request strategies at level 3.

Activities with explicit metapragmatic input found in all textbooks were further analysed to examine the type of explicit input provided at each level. Table 4.2.7 below displays the division of these activities by type of input. Findings showed that most of the explicit metapragmatic input found at level 1 and level 2 consisted of an explanation of the use of

Table 4.2.7 Distribution of explicit metapragmatic input activities by type

Level	Explanation of Modals (n)	Sample expressions for Specific requests (n)	Total (n)
Level 1	6	3	9
Level 2	6	1	7
Level 3	0	2	2

modals, which was limited to “can”, “could”, and “may”. Modals were mostly presented as a source for asking or giving “permissions”. Requests, however, were not associated with modals explicitly. For example;

Example 4.6 (Level 1, New Enjoy, p.154)

16 can / can't

- On peut utiliser *can* ou *can't* pour parler de ce qui est :

possible / permis	impossible / interdit
You can park here.	You can't turn left here!
Pupils can have lunch at school.	Pupils can't eat in class!
Can I have a biscuit?	No, you can't !

- On utilise aussi *can* ou *can't* pour parler de ce qu'on sait faire ou de ce qu'on ne sait pas faire. C'est logique : quand on dit par exemple qu'on sait nager, on dit qu'on en est capable, que c'est possible parce qu'on a appris.

I **can** swim. Jennifer **can't** skate.

- can* est un **auxiliaire**.
- Il accompagne un verbe qui est toujours à la base verbale.
- Il sert à construire les négations, les questions et les réponses brèves.
- can* est au présent et ne change pas selon la personne : *I can swim, you can swim, he can swim...*

I **can** swim.
Aux. BV

Jennifer **can't** skate.
Aux. BV

Can Jennifer skate? Yes, **she can**! / No, **she can't**!
Aux BV Aux Aux

prononciation

can dans les affirmations = /kən/
can dans les questions et réponses brèves = /'kæn/
can't = /'kɑ:nt/

Other than the introduction to modals, metapragmatic input about requests was also found regarding some specific requests (*e.g.*, asking someone to repeat what s/he said earlier). However, the frequency of such input was limited at all levels. Examine example 4.7 below for instance;

Example 4.7 (Level 3, Password, p.151)

Impliquez-vous dans l'échange

- Demandez poliment de répéter ou de préciser.
- Assurez-vous de bien comprendre et d'être bien compris.

- *I didn't catch what you said, could you please repeat your question? / Would you mind repeating your question?*
- *I'm not sure I understand what you mean, could you explain, please?*
- *When you say ..., do you mean...?*
- *Does that make sense to you? / Do you see what I mean?*
- *Indeed..., more precisely...*

Overall, findings showed that the metapragmatic input presented in textbooks was limited to the explanation of modals and specific request expressions. But no contextual information was presented about the variation in request strategies according to the degree of imposition of requests or the status of addressees. The only metapragmatic input in this regard was found in the form of the difference between the use of “can” and “could”. “Could” was presented as a politer substitute of “can” (*e.g.*, Level 2, New Enjoy, p.154).

In this section, results for metapragmatic input opportunities in L2 textbooks at different levels are presented in detail. Findings indicated that textbooks provided little or no explicit metapragmatic input about L2 requests. Even though a number of incidental requests were found in textbooks which might be helpful for learners, but textbooks provided no metapragmatic input about pragmalinguistic variations of linguistic strategies or sociopragmatic skills which were crucial for making appropriate requests. Since teachers can modify textbook materials and design their own materials incorporating several authentic materials, it would be revealing to examine

classroom activities to find the extent of pragmatic input learners may have in their L2 classrooms. Likewise, instances of impromptu L2 pragmatic input, if any, can also be traced by analysing classroom activities. The following section, thus, provides an analysis of classroom films for the examination of L2 pragmatic input opportunities in L2 classrooms in France.

4.5 Opportunities for Learning L2 pragmatics: Classroom Films

L2 pragmatic input in this analysis was operationalised as any explicit input, both spontaneous and planned, in L2 classroom setting by means of which L2 English requests were taught to learners. This metapragmatic input could be as simple as providing English translation of a spontaneous request made originally in French by learners or providing structured metapragmatic information to learners about the manipulation of linguistic expressions in different contexts. In this analysis, the input from teachers to learners as well as learners to learners was considered. Even though examples of metapragmatic input about requests from teachers to learners were limited, examples of metapragmatic input from learners to learners were even more restricted, at least during the filming sessions. An example of metapragmatic input from a teacher to a learner in an L2 classroom is shown below;

Example 4.8: Input from teacher to learner

A pupil: *Uh est-ce que je peux avoir un mouchoir?*

Teacher: uh, can I

The pupil: can I the *mouchoir*?

Teacher: have

The pupil: have

Teacher: do you remember? It's a paper but it's a different type of paper. Pupil A (*signals to her nose*).

Pupils: *Mouch-mouch* (everyone laughs)

Teacher: A tissue. (*she writes the word “tissue” on board*) Alex, can you ask the question again?

Pupil: Teacher I can, I

Teacher: Can I

Pupil: Can I, have tissue? (*another pupil hands over a tissue to her*)

Teacher: Thanks (L1-E, First observation)

In the following, findings regarding input opportunities in L2 classrooms are presented by level. Table 4.2.8 displays the number of opportunities for learning L2 pragmatics at level 1.

Table 4.2.8 Number of opportunities for learning L2 pragmatics in different classes at level 1

Class code	Hours of filming (n)	Instances of spontaneous metapragmatic input (n)	Instances of planned metapragmatic input (n)
L1-A	3	0	0
L1-B	3	1	0
L1-C	3	0	0
L1-D	3	0	0
L1-E	2	4	1
Total	14	5	1

The number of examples containing L2 pragmatic input is reported separately for each class at level 1 to examine whether L2 input was provided in all classes at level 1. Findings showed that spontaneous metapragmatic input was provided in only two (L1-B and L1-E) of the five classes. In L1-B class, only one instance of pragmatic input was found during the three hours of observation, whereas four instances of pragmatic input were found in class L1-E during two hours of observation (see example 4.8 above).

So far as the planned metapragmatic input in L2 classrooms is concerned, as shown in table 4.2.8 above, only one teacher organized an activity in which requests were incorporated as part of the activity (an exercise on past tense). In this activity, learners had to share their responses to a fill-in-the-blank exercise turn by turn. The teacher selected the first participant for the first blank and this participant requested another pupil to share his/her answer for the next

blank and so on. Learners used this formulaic structure to make their requests: “(name), can you do number X”. About ten such requests were found in this class. For example;

Example 4.9

Pupil A to B: Ethan Can I, uh, can you, number two?

Pupil B: Uh I walked to school...

Pupil B to C: Uh, can you (three?) (noise) comment on dit trois?...Can you three Julie?

Teacher: Uh she doesn't have her workbook.

Pupil B: *Ben* uh, Mathias.

(L1-E, First observation)

Other than teacher-learner metapragmatic input, one exceptional example (see example 4.10 below) was also found at level 1 (L1-A) in which a learner provided some metapragmatic input to another learner in a class. For example;

Example 4.10: Input from learner to learner

Pupil A: uh can I (pause) (laughs while holding a paper in his hand to throw in dustbin)

Pupil B to A: Can I go to the

Pupil C to A: Can I go to the bin uh *c'est bon*.

Teacher: What?

Pupil D and E tell A to say: Can I go to the bin?

Teacher: Uh Alex no no no now concentrate on the work. Okay.

(L1-A, 2nd observation)

Compared to level 1, instances of metapragmatic input from teachers to learners were even lower at level 2 and no example of learner-learner pragmatic input was found at this level. Table 4.2.9 below displays the number of explicit L2 pragmatic input opportunities found during classroom filming at level 2. Findings showed that out of three participant classes at this level,

spontaneous explicit metapragmatic input was found in only one class and it was limited to one instance only. For instance;

Example 4.11

A pupil: *je pourrais effacer l'tableau?*

Teacher (teaching him): Yes please. Can I clean the board?

(L2-A, 2nd observation)

However, no instance of metapragmatic input as part of (planned) classroom activities was found at level 2.

Table 4.2.9 Number of opportunities for learning L2 pragmatics in different classes at level 2

Class code	Hours of filming (n)	Instances of spontaneous L2 pragmatic input (n)	Instances of planned metapragmatic input (n)
L2-A	3	1	0
L2-B	3	0	0
L2-C	3	0	0
Total	9	1	0

Table 4.2.10 below displays the number of instances in which impromptu L2 pragmatic input was provided by teachers to learners at level 3. Findings showed that pragmatic input was found in three out of five classes. However, like level 2, metapragmatic input in these three classes was limited to one instance in each class. For instance;

Example 4.12

Pupil to teacher: I can't I can take your book please?

Teacher: Yeah but you don't need the book. The book is not absolutely necessary. Well, we are, we are going to, so indeed Alex the question is can I

Pupil (repeats after teacher): can I?

Teacher: or may I if you are polite.

(L3-C, first observation)

Table 4.2.10 Number of opportunities for learning L2 pragmatics in different classes at level 3

Class code	Hours of filming (n)	Instances of spontaneous L2 pragmatic input (n)	Instances of planned metapragmatic input (n)
L3-A	4	0	0
L3-B	3	1	0
L3-C	3	1	0
L3-D	3	1	0
L3-E	3	0	0
Total	16	3	0

So far, opportunities for learning L2 pragmatics in L2 textbooks and L2 classrooms have been examined, showing that L2 pragmatics generally receives limited attention in L2 textbooks and classroom activities. However, it remains to analyse the type of input learners generally receive in their classrooms. Therefore, classroom films were further analysed to examine the general trends in L2 English classrooms in France, findings of this analysis are discussed in the following section.

4.6 Type of Input in Classroom Activities: Analysis of Film Data

Classroom activities conducted at each level during filming sessions were classified into several categories including: a) step by step description of activities (see appendices 15, 16, and 17) b) specific objectives of each activity (*e.g.*, learning past tense, conditional sentences, web-quest, learning history/culture of different L2 settings etc.), c) general type of activities (speaking, listening, reading, writing), and d) the overall focus of activities (grammar, vocabulary, pragmatics, culture etc.). Since teachers were requested to conduct speaking activities in their classes, teachers at all levels used speaking activities increasingly. Table 4.2.11 below shows the hours of filming, the total activities conducted at each level, and the major skills addressed in activities. Other than speaking, most of the activities at all levels also dealt with one or more than one communicative skills: listening, reading, reading, writing, and drawing.

Table 4.2.11 Summary of linguistic skills addressed in EFL classroom activities

L2 Skills addressed in activities							
Level	Hours of filming (n)	Total activities (n)	Speaking activities (n)	Listening activities (n)	Reading activities (n)	Writing activities (n)	Drawing activities (n)
Level 1	14	46	28	8	7	23	2
Level 2	9	13	13	13	2	2	0
Level 3	16	22	21	17	6	6	0
Total	39	81	62	38	15	31	2

The analysis of classroom activities at level 1 (see appendix 15 for a detailed summary of activities) showed that during three hours of filming in each class, teachers organised seven to twelve activities (one to six activities/exercises per class). Specific objectives of activities at level 1 included learning different parts of speech (*e.g.*, pronouns, prepositions, adjectives), tenses, and vocabulary in general (*e.g.*, vocabulary about house, colours, clothes) regarding specific functions (*e.g.*, asking directions). Textbooks were widely used in all classes filmed at level 1.

Unlike level 1 in which numerous short activities were conducted, teachers at level 2 conducted one to two major activities in each class. Main objectives of activities at level 2 consisted of improving learners' web-quest skills, knowledge about famous people and places in L2 setting, and learning various cultural and historical facts about the target linguistic community. Moreover, discussions based on movies/movie-trailers and other authentic materials (songs etc.) were also used at level 2 to elicit spontaneous interaction among learners.

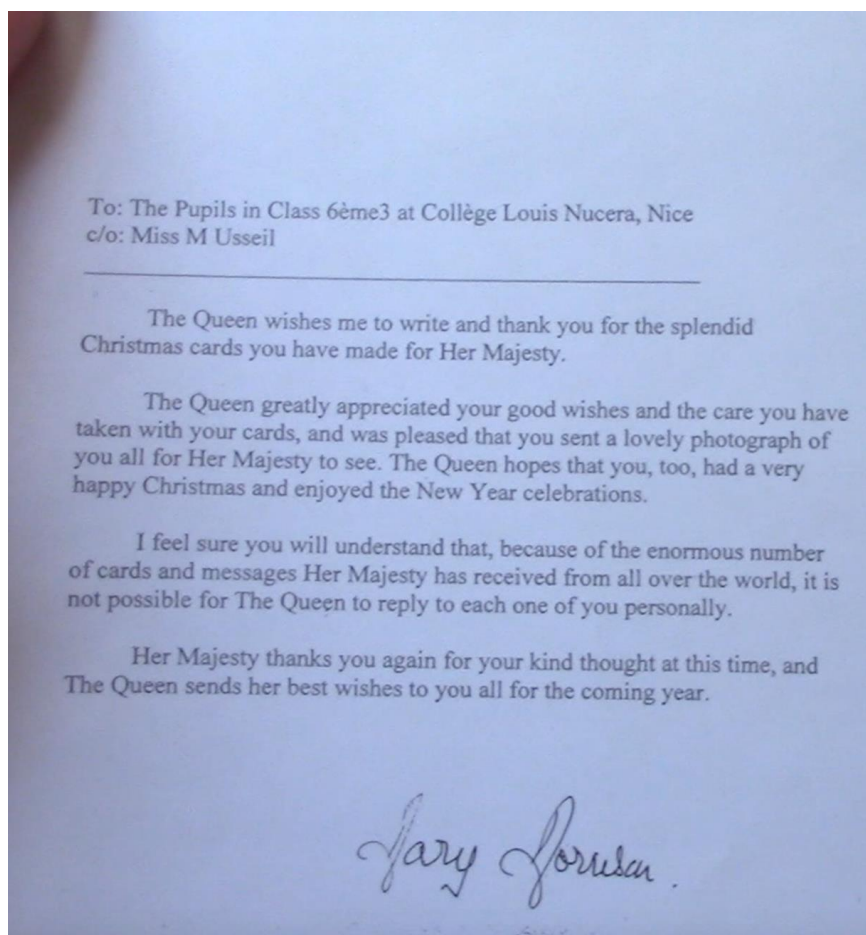
The input at level 3, in contrast, was more open-ended. In other words, most of the activities at level 3 were literature or social media-based. Learners were introduced with several literary genres (science fiction, horror etc.) using numerous short stories, novels, and essays etc. Several authentic materials were also used ranging from movie-trailers, movie-extracts, songs, famous speeches etc. Moreover, individual web-quests were also encouraged as part of final

projects and oral presentations. Specific aims for using these techniques and materials was to enhance learners' knowledge about L2 language and culture and to produce spontaneous interaction in classrooms. However, as shown in table 4.2.12 below, the general focus of majority of activities, at each level, was to improve learners' grammar, vocabulary, and/or their cultural knowledge about the L2 setting (see appendices 15,16, 17). In contrast, L2 pragmatics was seldom

Table 4.2.12 Summary of the general focus of classroom activities conducted during filming sessions

General focus of classroom activities						
Level	Hours of filming	Total activities	Grammar	Vocabulary	Culture	Pragmatics
Level 1	14	46	35	25	4	1
Level 2	9	13	11	13	10	0
Level 3	16	22	14	20	7	4
Total	39	81	60	58	21	5

Example 4.13: A letter to the pupils from the Queen of England (LIB, 2nd obs)



addressed in classroom activities. At level 1, only one such activity indirectly linked to L2 pragmatics was identified. This activity was based on a thanking letter by the queen of England (written by a lady-in-waiting for the queen) to pupils for sending a Christmas card to the queen. In this activity, learners read the letter together with the help of the teacher who explained the meaning of several difficult words and the reason for which the queen sent them the letter. But little attention was paid to the concept of thanking and specific ways for expressing gratitude (see example 4.13 above)

Other than this activity, no such activity was recorded which was directly linked to L2 pragmatics. However, one teacher at level 1 (L1E) tried to incorporate L2 requests in a classroom activity which was focused on grammar (past tense). In this activity, learners had to participate in an oral fill-in-the-blanks exercise in which learners took part turn by turn. The teacher selected the first participant for the first blank and this pupil had to choose the next participant saying “(name), can you do number X”. About ten such requests were found in this class. For example;

Example 4.14

Pupil A to B: Ethan Can I, uh, can you, number two?

Pupil B: Uh I walked to school...

Pupil B to C: Uh, can you (three?) (noise) comment on dit trois? ... Can you three Julie?

Teacher: Uh she doesn't have her workbook.

Pupil B: *Ben* uh, Mathias. (L1E, First observation)

However, even in this activity, pragmalinguistic or sociopragmatic aspects of L2 requests were not explained. Like level 1, L2 pragmatics did not receive much attention in classroom activities at level 2 as well.

In contrast, one of the L2 pragmatic aspects was addressed in a class at level 3 (see appendix 17, teacher code: 3A). In this class, 4 out of 5 activities (during 3 hours of filming) included an implicit focus on the speech act of agreement/disagreement. Several literary documents (*e.g.*, short stories, novel extracts on topics such as war, cosmetic engineering etc.) were used in this class and learners were encouraged to work in groups, discuss the concepts presented in the documents, work on several given questions, and then discuss their ideas in class while agreeing or disagreeing with each other's' point of views. However, explicit metapragmatic instruction about the nuances of different expressions to agree or disagree were

not explained. Likewise, L2 requests were also not addressed (explicitly or implicitly), neither in this class (3A) nor in other classes at level 3 during filming sessions.

Summary

Results reported in this section indicate that learners at all levels had limited opportunities to learn L2 pragmatics in L2 classrooms. Textbook analysis showed that explicit focus on L2 requests was rare at all levels under study (level 1: 0.7%, level 2: 0.5%, level 3: 0.1%; tables 4.2.1, 4.2.3, & 4.2.5). The few activities which contained metapragmatic information in textbooks were generally limited to the explanation of the use of modals or specific expressions to make a particular request (see table 4.2.7). Metapragmatic information about the use of L2 requests, or their sociopragmatic variations in different contexts was not provided. Examination of authentic classroom activities showed that the input in L2 classrooms was generally aimed at enhancing learners' grammar, vocabulary, cultural knowledge, and speaking skills (see table 4.2.12). L2 pragmatics received little or no attention in these activities. Teachers provided some L2 pragmatic information to learners incidentally but they did not plan activities to teach metapragmatic knowledge implicitly or explicitly (see tables 4.2.8, 4.2.9, & 4.2.10). The little spontaneous metapragmatic input found in these classes mostly consisted of translations of requests (French to English). Similarly, the sociopragmatic aspects of L2 requests were not addressed in these classes. These findings suggest that L2 learners' limited access to L2 pragmatic knowledge may well have contributed to their restricted L2 pragmatic development. Major issues and common patterns concerning learners' ILP development identified in this chapter are discussed in the next chapter in detail.

Chapter 5: Discussion

This chapter consists of three major parts. First, the summary and the interpretation of results for each research question are presented describing a) major findings about secondary school EFL learners' request behaviour and b) explanations for learners' request behaviour based on the analysis of opportunities for learning L2 pragmatics. Later, different methodological implications are discussed concerning instruments employed in the study: COPT, role plays, authentic data. Discussion is based on the comparison of different methods highlighting similarities and differences among methods used for data collection. Next, a small-scale analysis involving six learners (2 learners at each level) is conducted to compare learners' individual request performance across three methods. The chapter ends with several pedagogical implications which are based on an additional interventional study in which pre-service teachers provided L2 pragmatic input to learners of English. Each of these topics will be discussed in detail below.

5.1 L2 Learners' Request Behaviour: Examination of ILP Development with Proficiency

As noted earlier (see section 3.2), three levels of learners took part in this study to examine L2 learners' ILP development with the increase in proficiency. Level 1 learners were in the first year of lower secondary school (age: 11-12), level 2 learners were in the last year of lower secondary school (age: 14-15), whereas level 3 learners were finishing upper secondary school (age: 17-18). Data is collected using a number of instruments including films of classroom activities (see table 3.19), the COPT (see table 3.20 for the number of participants), role plays (see table 3.21), authentic requests, interviews, and textbook analysis (see table 3.18). The detailed analysis of learners' request behaviour based on findings of these methods revealed a number of patterns which are summarised below.

The first and foremost pattern observed found in the study was that a large number of lower proficiency learners could formulate L2 requests, despite a high rate of opting out at this level. Second, there is a clear evidence of pragmatic development from level 1 to level 3, especially regarding the use of request strategies and requests modifiers. Concerning the order of pragmalinguistic development, findings showed that the development from level 1 to level 2 was salient but it was more prominent from level 2 to level 3, especially in the use of request modifiers (see section 5.1.3 below).

Moreover, despite evident pragmatic development with level, learners even at highest proficiency level depicted restricted familiarity and/or practice of an array of request strategies, modifiers, and modals with a few exceptions at level 3. As a result, learners at all levels showed an overreliance on a number of linguistic elements (*e.g.*, “politeness marker” as an internal modifier, “supportive move” as an external modifiers, and “query preparatory” as a request strategy). Compared to pragmalinguistic development, learners showed more restricted development on sociopragmatic level by evidencing little familiarity with the impact of social status (*e.g.*, request perspective and strategies) and the degree of imposition (in particular) on requests. In the following section, supporting evidence for each of these arguments is presented in detail.

5.1.1 L2 pragmatic skills in lower proficiency group.

The request performance by lower proficiency group showed that learners even at the beginning level possessed basic knowledge about request formulation. For example, as shown in table 5.1 below, level 1 learners used conventionally indirect strategy (*e.g.*, “Can you give me money please?”) in a great majority of requests (also see tables 4.9, 4.11, 4.13 in chapter 4) unlike previous research (Al-Gahtani and Roever, 2013; Ellis, 1992; Roever and Al-Gahtani, 2015)

which established that lower proficiency learners used direct strategies (*e.g.*, “Give me a paper.”) more frequently in their requests.

Table 5.1 Distribution of request strategies in oral production data by level

	Direct (n)	%	Conventionally indirect (n)	%	Non-conventionally indirect (n)	%	Total head acts analysed (n)	%
Level 1	128	22%	444	76%	12	2%	584	100%
Level 2	84	16%	437	82%	10	2%	531	100%
Level 3	42	7%	536	90%	19	3%	597	100%

Similarly, level 1 learners also used lexical modifier (*e.g.*, “Can I go to the bin *please*?”) frequently in their requests, with almost similar frequency like level 2 and level 3 learners. For example, examine table 5.2 below (see also table 4.15, 4.18, 4.21 in chapter 4 for more details);

Table 5.2 Frequency of lexical modifiers in oral production data per request by level

Level	Lexical downgraders (n)	%	Total requests (n)
1	359	61%	584
2	359	67%	531
3	456	76%	597

Regarding the use of alerters (*e.g.*, “miss”, “teacher”), level 1 learners also showed similar skills like higher proficiency levels (see table, 4.28, 4.30 in chapter 4). As shown in table 5.3 below, level 1 learners used alerters frequently like higher proficiency groups (see tables,

Table 5.3 Frequency of modal "can" in conventionally indirect requests in COPT data by level

Level	Can (n)	%	Total conventionally indirect requests (n)	%
1	439	99%	444	100%
2	426	97.5%	437	100%
3	437	81.5%	536	100%

4.31, 4.34, and 4.37 in chapter 4 for details), showing their command over classroom English.

Overall, it appears that the majority learners at level 1 were familiar with the basic/formulaic structure of making L2 requests using some request strategies, modifiers, and modals. However, level 1 learners' requests were generally shorter and not as elaborate/clear as were higher-level learners' requests. Compared to level 1, learners at higher levels showed evident development in their request behaviour which will be highlighted in the following section.

5.1.2 ILP development with proficiency.

More proficient learners used a wider variety of request strategies, modifiers, and modals as compared to their lower proficiency counterparts, indicating ILP development with level. For instance, as shown in table 5.1 above more proficient learners demonstrated a higher tendency of using indirectness in their requests (see also tables 4.9, 4.11, 4.13 in chapter 4). Some evidence also indicated that higher proficiency learners used conventionally indirect strategy more frequently (see table 5.1 above), whereas only limited evidence suggested an increase in nonconventionally indirect strategy (or hints) in more proficient learners' requests (see table 5.4 below).

Table 5.4 Distribution of request strategies in free production data per head act by level

	Conventionally indirect (n)	%	Nonconventionally indirect (n)	%	Total head acts analysed (n)
Level 1	64	74%	15	17%	87
Level 2	44	85%	2	4%	52
Level 3	37	61%	16	27%	60

It is speculated that the increased use of hints in older learners' requests might be indicative of their heightened awareness about the greater degree of politeness associated with hints (Brown & Levinson, 1987) as shown in example 5.1 below;

Example 5.1

- 1 Teacher: Who, hallelujah, who brought today to do their exposées? (three pupils raise their
hands) Bravo, bravo, bravo, so this was the only
- 2 Pupil: Miss I have a problem. I don't found um
- 3 Teacher: I didn't find
- 4 Pupil: I didn't find uh: the
- 5 Teacher: an advert
- 6 Pupil: an advert what you (inc.)
- 7 Teacher: There were thousands of these on the internet.
- 8 Pupil: It's too //short//, too long uh
- 9 Teacher: (to another pupil) //okay// you want to go first?

(Level 3, Item 40, Authentic request)

The pupil in example 5.1 above made an excuse while explaining a problem related to the *exposée* (presentation) he was supposed to present on the given day. The pupil's excuse was taken as a hint by the teacher to move his presentation to the following class because his presentation was not ready. The decision for coding the learner's excuse as a request was made on the grounds that giving reasons and explanations for a future action is one of the nonconventional ways of making English requests (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989). Moreover, the contextual clues such as the perlocutionary act by the teacher "(to another pupil) //okay// you want to go first?" confirmed the teacher's recognition of the learner's request and her moving on to the next pupil.

However, as noted in previous studies (Trosborg, 1995; Hassall, 2003), the increased use of hints, especially at level 1, can also be triggered by learners' limited pragmalinguistic resources rather than their conscious effort to be polite. As shown in example 5.2 below, a level

1 learner wants to ask the teacher to postpone the test because he is too tired or is not prepared for the test. The learner used the hint to make the request (delay the test): “Teacher please, uh I went to tonight uh video game centre. Uh I slept, but, uh and *non* and but, I (*report?*) uh, uh I I err think, *semaine*, the test”. This request is coded as a hint because the meaning is ambiguous due to the learner’s limited linguistic skills. However, such instances mostly occurred at level 1 and their occurrences were rare in COPT (see table 5.1 above or table 4.9 in chapter 4) and authentic data (see table 4.13 in chapter 4).

Example 5.2

- 1 S: Teacher please, uh I went to tonight uh video game centre. Uh I slept, but, uh and *non*
and but, I (reported?) uh, uh I I err think, *semaine*, the test.
- 2 A: okay. Uh why, why did you not sleep?
- 3 S: err (long pause) uh I I (want ?) to you I sleep video game centre
- 4 A: Okay um, so: you're not ready for the test?
- 5 S: Uh yes please
- 6 A: well, do you think that's fair?
- 7 S: err I don't know.
- 8 A: okay.

(#7, Level 1, Item 5, Role play)

Presence of time constraints and rich context can also contribute to the increased use of hints. Likewise, speakers might also use hints in order to avoid stating the obvious because their addressee(s) could easily recognise the intent with brief contextual cues. For instance, examine example 5.3 below, in which a learner asks the teacher for a handout which the teacher has distributed earlier, but this learner did not get any. So, his mere hint “I don’t have the paper”

serves to convey his illocutionary intent (request for the handout) and the teacher gives him the handout.

Example 5.3

- 1 S: Miss
- 2 A: Yes
- 3 A: I don't have the paper.
- 4 A: Oh you don't have a paper. (She runs and gives the pupil the handout)

(Level 1, Item 19, authentic request)

Like request strategies, pragmatic development with level was also found in the use of request modifications. For instance, as shown in table 5.5 below, a vivid increase in the use of internal modifiers, especially in lexical or phrasal downgraders, was found in more proficient learners' requests (see also tables 4.15, 4.18, 4.21 in chapter 4).

Table 5.5 Frequency of internal modifiers in free production data per head act by level

	Lexical or phrasal downgraders (n)	%	Upgraders (n)	%	Total head acts analysed (n)
Level 1	51	57%	1	1%	87
Level 2	43	82%	1	2%	52
Level 3	84	140%	13	22%	60

Higher proficiency learners also displayed pragmatic development in the use of Alerters (*e.g.*, “excuse me”) and Supportive moves (*e.g.*, “Excuse me, can I have your class notes please? *I wasn't there yesterday I was sick ...*” Level 3, #10B, item 17). Examine table 5.6 below in which a clear increase in the use of external modifiers (especially alerters) in higher level learners' requests can be found (see also tables 4.28 and 4.30 in chapter 4).

Table 5.6 Frequency of external modifiers in COPT data per request by level

	Alerters (n)	%	Supportive Moves (n)	%	Total requests (n)
Level 1	72	12%	21	4%	584
Level 2	143	27%	71	13%	531
Level 3	494	83%	231	39%	597

Likewise, as shown in table 5.7 below, the use of the modal “could” was almost absent in level 1 and level 2 learners’ requests. In contrast, some development was found at level 3 with some increase in the use of “could” at this level.

Table 5.7 Frequency of modal "could" in COPT data per conventionally indirect request by level

	Could (n)	%	Total CI ³⁵ requests (n)	%
Level 1	0	0%	444	100%
Level 2	10	2.3%	437	100%
Level 3	71	13.3%	536	100%

Thus, higher level learners demonstrated L2 pragmatic development by using a higher frequency of several request strategies, modifiers, and modals. However, it is important to note that the development from level 1 to level 2 was salient but it was more prominent at level 3. The order of pragmatic development is further discussed in the following section.

5.1.3 Order of development.

With regard to learners’ order of development, more similarities were found between level 1 and level 2 learners’ requests as compared to level 3 even though the proficiency difference between all groups was statistically significant (see tables 3.4 and 3.5 for statistical analysis details of cloze tests). For instance, as shown in table 5.8 below, the choice of request perspectives was generally more similar between level 1 and level 2. (see tables 4.2, 4.4, 4.7 in chapter 4 for more

³⁵ conventionally indirect requests

evidence in this regard). Both groups used hearer dominant perspective increasingly unlike level 3 learners who showed a decrease in the use of hearer dominant perspective while adding other request perspectives (*e.g.*, joint or impersonal perspectives) in their repertoire.

Table 5.8 Distribution of request perspectives in free production data per head act by level

	H dominant (n)	%	S dominant (n)	%	S & H ³⁶ dominant (n)	%	Impersonal (n)	%	Unclear (n)	%	Total head acts
Level 1	64	74 %	16	18 %	2	2 %	3	4 %	2	2 %	87
Level 2	41	79 %	10	19 %	0	0 %	0	0 %	1	2 %	52
Level 3	35	58 %	19	32 %	3	5 %	3	5 %	0	0 %	60

Likewise, as shown in tables 5.5, 5.6, and 5.7 above, level 1 and level 2 learners showed limited development in the use of internal modifiers, external modifiers, and modals respectively. In comparison, a much higher development in the use of internal modifiers was found at level 3 (see tables 5.5, 5.6, and 5.7 above). More notable development at level 3 was found in the use of external modifiers especially Alerters in free production data (see table 5.9 below) — level 3 learners used almost three times as many alerters (131%) as were used at level 1 (53%).

Table 5.9 Frequency of external modifiers per request sequence in role play interactions by level

Level	Alerters (n)	%	Total role plays (n)
1	38	53%	72
2	32	80%	40
3	63	131%	48

Despite visible distinctions, differences in development across levels were generally not statistically significant, except in the use of external modifiers (alerters, supportive moves)³⁷ and

³⁶ S refers to speaker and H refers to hearer

³⁷ See tables 4.30, 4.31 for statistical significance regarding the use of external modifiers

modals (could)³⁸. It is also worth mentioning that despite higher level learners' enhanced pragmatic abilities, learners at all levels showed an overreliance on some linguistic elements which are discussed below.

5.1.4 Overreliance on few elements.

In order to determine if learners showed an overreliance on some linguistic features, an indirect comparison of learners' request performance with previous studies was conducted, in which English speakers' request behaviour was examined. For instance, learners in this study showed an overreliance over hearer dominant perspective (see table 5.8 above and 5.10 below). In contrast, native speakers in Economidou-Kogetsidis' (2012) study used speaker dominant

Table 5.10 Distribution of request perspectives in COPT data per request by level

Level	Hearer dominant	%	Speaker dominant	%	S & H dominant	%	Impersonal	%	Total requests
1	379	65%	169	29%	1	0%	35	6%	584
2	322	61%	163	31%	8	1%	38	7%	531
3	419	70%	133	22%	16	3%	29	5%	597

perspective in 74.7% of requests and hearer dominant perspective in only 29.9% of requests (e.g., "Well actually I was wondering if you wouldn't mind too much if you were going home if *I could get a ride with you...*" (Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2012, p. 186, italics added). Preference for the speaker dominant perspective in native speakers' requests was also found in Félix-Brasdefer (2007) and Woodfield and Economidou-Kogetsidis (2010). It appears that learners in

³⁸ tables 4.37, 4.38 for statistical significance regarding the use of modals

the present study overused the hearer dominant perspective which might be a result of L1 transfer. The evidence for this claim can be found in table 5.11 which showed that native French speakers used hearer dominant perspective frequently in their requests (see also table 4 in appendix 19). Moreover, an increase of hearer dominant perspective in older learners' requests in the present study can be ascribed to their improved linguistic abilities to translate L1 knowledge to L2.

Table 5.11 Distribution of request perspectives in L1 French data per request by level

Level	Hearer dominant	%	Speaker dominant	%	Other	%	Total
1	183	75%	50	21%	10	4%	243
2	183	80%	37	16%	9	4%	229
3	181	76%	49	20%	9	4%	239

Likewise, concerning the choice of request strategies, Blum-Kulka (1989) showed that native speakers used conventionally indirect strategy in about 82% of requests, whereas they used this strategy in 67% of requests in Trosborg (1995). These findings indicated that English speakers prefer conventional indirectness, but its frequency varied from one study to another mainly due to different scenarios and methods involved. As shown in table 5.1 above, level 3 learners in the present study used conventional indirectness in about 90% of requests indicating somewhat overreliance on this strategy.

Likewise, on micro-level, learners relied on one specific strategy "Query Preparatory" ("Can I have a paper please?", COPT, #29, level 2) to be conventionally indirect compared to native speakers in Taguchi's (2006, 2011) studies in which native speakers employed complex mitigated preparatory structures (*e.g.*, "I was wondering if + verb"), which were almost absent from learners' requests in the present study.

Concerning the use of politeness markers, native English speakers in Faerch and Kasper (1989), House (1989), and Beltrán and Martínez-Flor (2008), used politeness markers in up to 31%, 55%, and 32% of their requests, respectively. In contrast, learners in the present study used lexical downgraders (*e.g.*, politeness markers) much more frequently (see tables 5.5 and 5.12). Level 3 learners in this study used lexical modifiers in about 76% of requests out of which about 95% were politeness markers (*e.g.*, “please”, see table 4.17) which indicates that learners in this study did not use a variety of other possible lexical downgraders while overusing politeness markers.

One reason for the overuse of “please” is the ease with which it can be employed, since it can be placed extrasententially (Faerch & Kasper, 1989), not as part of a planned grammatical structure which might require complex cognitive processing.

Table 5.12 Frequency of lexical modifiers in oral production data per request by level

Level	Lexical downgraders	%	Total requests
1	359	61%	584
2	359	67%	531
3	456	76%	597

Another reason for learners’ overreliance on specific linguistic elements could be their limited familiarity with a variety of linguistic forms to convey the meaning, or because these formulaic expressions are recurrently practiced in L2 classrooms without introducing alternative linguistic tools. In this section, learners’ overreliance on some linguistic elements is presented. In the following, major reasons behind learners’ restricted development are highlighted.

5.1.5 Limited pragmalinguistic repertoire.

Since learners used a limited variety of linguistic form to make requests in all types of methods, it appears learners might either not be familiar with alternative linguistic forms (and their functions) or because they could not recall it at the time of request production due to the lack of practice. For instance, the use of the impersonal perspective (“*Is it possible to put the test another day please?*” COPT, #10, level 3, Item 3) and the speaker and hearer dominant perspective (*e.g.*, “*Can we have the silence please?*” COPT, #46, Level 1, Item 16) was infrequent at all levels (see tables 5.8 and 5.10 above), which indicated learners’ lack of awareness about the politeness/social functions of these request perspectives (Eelen, 2001; Félix-Brasdefer, 2006, p. 2179). Similarly, as shown in table 5.13 below, the use of syntactic downgraders (*e.g.*, use of past tense instead of present tense or conditional sentences.) and upgraders (*e.g.*, “really”) was also limited in learners’ requests at all levels (see also tables 4.18 and 4.21 in chapter 4).

Table 5.13 Frequency of internal modifiers in oral production data per request by level

Level	syntactic downgraders (n)	%	Upgraders (n)	%	Total requests (n)
1	3	0.5%	4	.7%	584
2	5	1%	8	1.5%	531
3	8	1%	7	1%	597
Total	16	1%	19	1%	1712

Furthermore, table 5.14 shows that learners at all levels relied heavily on grounders (supportive moves: giving reasons and explanations). Higher proficiency learners used more Grounders as compared to lower levels, but learners’ familiarity with other supportive moves such as Preparators (*e.g.*, “*I’d like to ask you something...*”) and Imposition minimizers (*e.g.*,

Table 5.14 Distribution of supportive moves into subcategories in oral production data by level

		Preparator	Grounder	Promise of reward	Imposition minimizer	Insult	Gratitude	Apology	Total supportive moves at this level
Level 1	Count	0	20	0	0	0	1	0	21
	%	0%	95%	0%	0%	0%	5%	0%	100%
Level 2	Count	0	67	0	0	0	3	1	71
	%	0%	94.4%	0%	0%	0%	4.2%	1.4%	100%
Level 3	Count	1	201	2	1	1	21	4	231
	%	.4%	87%	1%	.4%	.4%	9%	1.8%	100%

“would you like to give me a lift, *but only if you’re going my way*”) seemed to be in a burgeoning state.

So far, problems concerning learners’ pragmalinguistic development have been discussed. In the following, some issues regarding learners’ sociopragmatic development are highlighted.

5.1.6 Restricted sociopragmatic development.

Unlike learners’ notable progress on pragmalinguistic level with the increase in proficiency (see also section 5.1.2), learners at all levels demonstrated little progress on sociopragmatic level. Learners showed some variation (though not significant) in the choice of strategies, perspectives, and modifiers across requests to equal and higher status addressees. For instance, learners at all levels used hearer dominant perspective relatively more frequently in requests to equal status

Table 5.15 Distribution of request perspectives in oral production data by level

Level	Hearer’s status	Hearer dominant (n)	%	Speaker dominant (n)	%	Other (n)	%	Total (n)
1	Higher	175	55%	125	40%	17	5%	317
	Equal	204	77%	44	16%	19	7%	267
2	Higher	141	49%	112	39%	33	12%	286
	Equal	181	74%	51	21%	13	5%	245
3	Higher	167	56%	97	33%	33	11%	297
	Equal	252	84%	36	12%	15	4%	300

addressees as compared to higher status addressees (see table 5.15), although the difference was not statistically significant (see also tables 4.38 and 4.43 for statistical analysis results).

Likewise, as shown in table 5.16 below, learners demonstrated some variation in the use of request strategies by using a slightly greater frequency of conventionally indirect requests to higher status addressees as compared to equal status addressees, indicating their awareness about the strategic use of indirectness in formal settings. Again, differences in the choice of strategies across different addressees were not statistically significant (see also tables 4.48 and 4.53).

Table 5.16 Distribution of request strategies in oral production data by level

Level	Hearer's status	Direct	%	CI	%	NCI ³⁹	%	Total
1	Higher	55	17%	259	82%	3	1%	317
	Equal	73	28%	185	69%	9	3%	267
2	Higher	41	14.4%	244	85.3%	1	.3%	286
	Equal	43	18%	193	79%	9	3%	245
3	Higher	18	6.1%	278	93.6%	1	.3%	297
	Equal	24	8%	94%	86%	18	6%	300

Concerning learners' use of internal modifiers, social status of interlocutors influenced learners' requests in role plays (see table 4.62) and in authentic data (see table 4.68), though not in COPT (see table 4.58). As expected, learners used lexical and phrasal downgraders (*e.g.*, “please”) more frequently in requests to higher status addressees (see table 5.17 below) given the

Table 5.17 Frequency of internal modifiers in free production data by level

Downgraders and Upgraders by dominance: Free production data					
Level	Hearer's status	Lexical & phrasal (n)	%	p-values	Total head acts (n)
1	Higher	24	80%	0.4136	30
	Equal	27	64%		42
2	Higher	25	208%	0.5805	12
	Equal	18	64%		28
3	Higher	38	181%	0.7480	21
	Equal	46	170%		27

³⁹ Nonconventionally indirect

formal nature of relationship between interlocutors.

Compared to other linguistic features (strategies, modifiers etc.), learners at all levels showed significant variation in the use of Alerters (*e.g.*, “miss”, “madam”) across requests to higher and equal status addressees (see tables 5.18 (below) and 4.75 in chapter 4). As expected, learners used a significantly higher frequency of Alerters in requests to higher status addressees compared to equal status addressees, mainly because using address terms such as “miss/madam” are commonly practiced during classroom English. Another notable feature of learners’ external modifiers was that learners at all levels (especially level 3) used more supportive moves in requests to equal status addressees (classmates) than higher status addresses (see table 5.18 below and table 4.75 in chapter 4). The explanation for this finding could be that learners might have felt more at ease with equal status addressees to negotiate requests using supportive moves.

Table 5.18 Frequency of external modifiers in oral production data by level

	Addressee’s status	Alerters (n)	%	p-values	Supportive moves (n)	%	p-values	Total
Level 1	Higher	59	19%	0.0311*	7	2%	0.4101	317
	Equal	13	5%		14	5%		267
Level 2	Higher	86	30%	0.0301*	30	10%	0.6572	245
	Equal	57	23%		41	17%		286
Level 3	Higher	300	101%	0.0002*	81	27%	0.0942	297
	Equal	194	65%		150	50%		300

p<0.05

Compared to interlocutors’ social status, learners’ requests were even less affected by the imposition of requests. Learners at all levels used similar perspectives (see tables 4.41, 4.45), external modifiers (see table 4.72), and modals (see table 4.83) both in high and low imposition requests. Some variation in this regard was found in the use of request strategies and internal modifiers. However, in both cases, findings were contrary to expectations: learners at all levels used direct strategies with greater frequency in high imposition requests (*e.g.*, “Delay the test.”

#51, Level 1, COPT, item 3) compared to low imposition requests (*e.g.*, “Can you move the left please?” #1, Level 1, COPT, item 9) in which a greater degree of indirectness/politeness could be expected (see table 5.19).

Table 5.19 Distribution of request strategies in oral production data by imposition

Level	Imposition	Direct (n)	%	p-values	CI (n)	%	p-values	NCI (n)	%	p-values
1	High	78	33%	0.2171	154	65%	0.0503	6	2%	0.7829
	Low	50	14%		290	84%		6	2%	
2	High	65	28%	0.0610	166	70%	0.0982	5	2%	0.8291
	Low	19	6%		271	92%		5	2%	
3	High	38	14%	0.0638	219	83%	0.0519	8	3%	0.8994
	Low	4	1.2%		317	95.5%		11	3.3%	

$p < 0.05$

Likewise, as shown in table 5.20 below, learners at all levels used a higher frequency of lexical modifiers (*e.g.*, “please”) in low imposition requests compared to high imposition requests which might require more redress.

Table 5.20 Frequency of internal modifiers in oral production data by imposition

Level	Imposition	Lexical downgraders (n)	%	p-values	Total requests (n)
1	High	136	57%	0.2980	238
	Low	223	64%		346
2	High	142	60%	0.1775	236
	Low	217	74%		295
3	High	194	73%	0.2059	265
	Low	272	82%		332

$p < 0.05$

Overall, learners at all levels showed little sociopragmatic awareness concerning the effect of social variables (social status, imposition) on L2 requests. In order to examine if learners’ limited pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic skills in L2 were affected by L1 transfer, learner COPT data is compared with L1 French COPT data in the following section.

5.1.7 L1 transfer.

Learners' interlanguage data was compared with L1 French data to find if L1 transfer had any explanatory value in learners' request behaviour (see appendices 19 and 20 for French COPT results). Learners at all levels showed many similarities in their L1 and L2 requests, especially on pragmalinguistic level, showing that L1 transfer has a major effect on their interlanguage. Moreover, compared to lower levels, level 3 learners showed greater similarities in their L1 and L2 requests. For instance, as shown in table 5.21 below, hearer dominant perspective was frequently used, both in L2 English and L1 French data. For example, compare the use of similar perspective (hearer dominant) by learners in an L1 French and an L2 English request below:

Example 5.4

“Peut **tu** me prêter un mouchoir s’il te plait?” (Level 1, Item 12, French COPT)

Example 5.5

“Can **you**, give me you tissue please?” (#17, Level 1, Item 12, COPT)

Table 5.21 Distribution of request perspectives in L2 English and L1 French COPT data by level

Level	Type of data	Types of request perspectives in L1 and L2 data			
		HD	%	SD	%
1	L2 English data	379	65%	169	29%
	L1 French data	183	75%	50	21%
2	L2 English data	322	61%	163	31%
	L1 French data	183	80%	37	16%
3	L2 English data	419	70%	133	22%
	L1 French data	181	76%	49	20%

Likewise, level 3 learners also showed the highest level of similarities in strategy choices in L1 and L2 data (see table 5.22). These similarities were also found at lower proficiency levels since conventionally indirect strategy was predominantly used in interlanguage as well as in L1 French data (see examples 5.4 and 5.5 above). Moreover, the use of nonconventionally indirect strategy was infrequent both L2 English and in L1 French data which shows that the limited use

of this strategy in learners' interlanguage might be influenced by L1 transfer. However, it is possible that connections between L1 and L2 data might also be triggered by the similarity of task type (COPT) employed to collect L1 and L2 data, because as compared to other methods (authentic data, role plays) L2 COPT data resembled more closely to L1 COPT data.

Table 5.22 Comparison of request strategies in L1 and L2 COPT data per request by level

Types of request strategies used in L2 English and L1 French COPT data								
Level	Type of data	Direct (n)	%	Conventionally indirect (n)	%	Non-conventionally indirect (n)	%	Total requests
1	L2 English data	128	22%	444	76%	12	2%	584
	L1 French data	24	10%	214	88%	5	2%	243
2	L2 English data	84	16%	437	82%	10	2%	531
	L1 French data	13	6%	216%	94%	0%	0%	229
3	L2 English data	42	7%	536	90%	19	3%	597
	L1 French data	11	5%	216%	90%	12%	5%	239

Evidence of L1 transfer was also found in learners' choice of internal modifiers. For instance, as shown in table 5.23 below, learners' use of syntactic downgraders and upgraders was limited both in L2 and L1 data. In contrast, they used lexical modifiers with comparable frequencies in L2 English and L1 French data, at all levels. Moreover, most of their lexical modifiers, both in L1 and L2 data, consisted of Politeness Markers ("please") (see table 4.21 for L2 data and appendix 19 for L1 data). Examine the use of similar internal modifiers in requests below;

Example 5.6

"Can you please lower your voices please? I can't hear the mi/ the professor." (#12, Level 3, L2

English COPT, Item 16)

Example 5.7

“Les gars, vous pouvez faire un peu moins de bruit s’il vous plaie, j’essaie de me concentrer.”

(Level 3, L1 French COPT, Item 16)

Table 5.23 Frequency of internal modifiers used in L2 English and L1 French COPT data by level

Level	Type of data	lexical (n)	%	syntactic (n)	%	Upgraders (n)	%	Total requests
1	L2 English data	359	61%	3	.5%	4	.7%	584
	L1 French data	153	63%	2	1%	2	1%	243
2	L2 English data	359	67%	5	1%	8	1.5%	531
	L1 French data	167	73%	1	.4%	11	5%	229
3	L2 English data	456	76%	8	1%	7	1%	597
	L1 French data	180	75%	15	6%	9	4%	239

The comparison of learners’ interlanguage and L1 French data further revealed that L1 transfer may also have some explanatory value concerning the use of limited variety of modals in interlanguage data, especially at level 1. For instance, as shown in table 5.24 below, French speakers used the present form of “*pouvoir* (*peux/peut* = can)” very frequently at level 1 (age:11-12 years). Moreover, French speakers did not use any other modal than “*pouvoir*” (in present and conditional forms), which might have contributed to their limited use of modals in interlanguage data (*e.g.*, “would”, “might”).

Table 5.24 Distribution of modals in conventionally indirect requests in L2 English and L1 French data

Level	Type of data	Can/ “ <i>pouvoir</i> ” (<i>présent</i>)	%	Could / <i>pouvoir</i> (<i>Conditionnelle</i>)	%	Other structures	%	Total requests (n)
1	L2 English data	439	99%	0	0%	5	1%	444
	L1 French data	193	90.2%	16	7.5%	5	2.3%	214
2	L2 English data	426	97.5%	10	2.3%	1	.2%	437
	L1 French data	164	76%	32	15%	20	9%	216
3	L2 English data	437	81.5%	71	13.3%	28	5.2%	536
	L1 French data	112	52%	77	36%	27	12%	216

Some similarities in learners' L1 and L2 requests were also found on sociopragmatic level. For instance, as shown in table 5.25 below, learners at all levels used hearer dominant perspective relatively more frequently in requests to equal status addressees, both in L1 and L2 data. In contrast, their use of the speaker dominant perspective was relatively higher in requests to higher status addressees in both types of data which shows that L1 transfer may have affected learners' choice of perspectives.

Table 5.25 Comparison of request perspectives in requests to different addressees in L1 and L2 data

Level	Hearer's status	Request perspectives in L2 English data				Request perspectives in L1 French data			
		HD	%	SD	%	HD	%	SD	%
1	Higher	175	55%	125	40%	71	58.2%	44	36.1%
	Equal	204	77%	44	16%	112	92%	6	5%
2	Higher	141	49%	112	39%	72	63%	36	31%
	Equal	181	74%	51	21%	111	97%	1	1%
3	Higher	167	56%	97	33%	66	55%	48	40%
	Equal	252	84%	36	12%	115	97%	1	1%

Regarding the choice of lexical and phrasal downgraders (*e.g.*, “please”), learners' choice of modifiers did not seem to be greatly affected by social status of the addressees since they used these modifiers increasingly in both types of requests: requests to equal and higher status addressees. This trend was also found in L1 data showing that L1 transfer might have occurred.

Table 5.26 Frequency of internal modifiers in L1 French and L2 English COPT data by dominance

		L2 English data			L2 French data		
Level	Hearer's social status	Lexical & phrasal downgraders	%	Total requests	Lexical & phrasal downgraders	%	Total requests
1	Higher	194	61%	317	82	67%	122
	Equal	165	62%	267	71	60%	119
2	Higher	190	66%	286	95	83%	114
	Equal	169	69%	245	72	64%	113
3	Higher	237	80%	297	98	82%	120
	Equal	229	76%	300	82	69%	119

Regarding the impact of imposition, learners showed little or no L1 transfer to their interlanguage, especially in the choice of request perspectives, strategies, and external modifiers (see appendix 20). However, learners indicated some L1 transfer in the use of lexical and phrasal downgraders (internal modifiers) by using slightly greater number of lexical modifiers (“please”) in low imposition requests as compared to high imposition requests like French native speakers (as shown in table 5.27 below).

Table 5.27 Frequency of internal modifiers in L1 French and L2 English COPT data by imposition

Level	Imposition	L2 English data		L1 French data	
		Lexical & phrasal downgraders	%	Lexical & phrasal downgraders	%
1	High	136	57%	64	59%
	Low	223	64%	89	67%
2	High	142	60%	80	77%
	Low	217	74%	87	71%
3	High	194	73%	74	70%
	Low	272	82%	106	80%

In sum, major patterns observed in learners’ request behaviour include: lower proficiency learners were successful in formulating L2 requests, more proficient learners showed pragmatic development by using greater frequency of indirect strategies and request modifiers (both internal and external) as compared to lower levels. Concerning the order of development, the pragmatic advancement from level 1 to level 2 was notable, but it was more conspicuous from level 2 to level 3. Despite progress, learners showed an overreliance on a number of linguistic elements (*e.g.*, “please” as an internal modifier, “query preparatory” as a request strategy, “hearer dominant” as the request perspective), while the occurrence of alternative elements was rare. Since learners’ range of perspectives, strategies, modifiers, and modals was restricted in all methods (both elicited and naturalistic methods), it can be speculated that learners’ limited use of

several linguistic features might be caused by their limited familiarity / practice of a number of alternative strategies and modifiers etc. On sociopragmatic level, learners' development with level was even more restricted because learners at all levels made similar linguistic choices across different request scenarios involving higher/equal social status of addressees in high/low imposition requests. The comparison of learners' interlanguage data with French baseline data revealed a number of similar patterns in L1 and L2 request behaviour which shows that L1 transfer may have a significant explanatory value in learners' L2 request performance.

Since learners showed limited pragmalinguistic repertoire and restricted sociopragmatic skills in their L2 requests, we are now looking for explanations by examining L2 input and interaction opportunities in foreign language classrooms and textbooks to find reasons for learners' limited L2 pragmatic development.

5.2 Input and Interaction Opportunities in L2 Classrooms

Findings for last two research questions which examine the type of input and the extent of opportunities for learning/practicing L2 pragmatics in L2 classrooms are discussed in this section in detail. As noted earlier, participants in this study include three levels of learners in French secondary schools. Level 1 learners (age 11-12 years) were in the first year of lower secondary school, level 2 learners (14-15) in final year of lower secondary school, and level 3 learners (17-18) in final year of upper secondary school. The French education system involves the use of national programmes for all levels in collège and Lycée in all subjects. While teachers are, in theory, free to teach using their own methods and materials, current language programmes are based on the the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) with the addition of specific cultural materials organized in themes which are common to all modern foreign language programmes (*i.e.*, English, German, Italian, Spanish).

This section is based on findings of classroom observations, textbook analysis, supplemented by teacher interviews. An overall of 13 classes participated in classroom filming (5 classes at level 1, 3 at level 2, 5 at level 3), in which 308 learners participated (see section 3.4.1.1 for more details about participants). Each participant class was filmed for three hours during which a number of classroom activities were conducted. In order to examine L2 pragmatic input opportunities, classroom films were analysed to find any type of L2 pragmatic input, both spontaneous and planned, as part of classroom activities. In order to get a better understanding of the type of input provided in L2 classrooms, all activities were categorised according to their relevance with L2 pragmatics, grammar, vocabulary/lexicon, and pronunciation. Since textbooks were frequently used in L2 classes in French secondary schools, a total of fifteen textbooks (5 at each level) were analysed to find activities/exercises which might serve as a source for learning L2 pragmatics (see sections 3.3.7 and 3.4.2.2 for more details on textbooks).

Finally, insights from teacher interviews were also included in the analysis to shed light on learners' restricted L2 pragmatic skills and teaching materials/activities used in L2 classes. A total of ten teachers, who taught the 13 classes under study, took part in semi-structured interviews in which they explained the standard practice in foreign language classrooms in France in general, and the activities and techniques they used in filming sessions, in particular.

As noted earlier in chapter 4 (sections 4.2 & 4.3), input opportunities for learning L2 pragmatics were rare both in classroom activities and textbooks. The few opportunities observed in classroom activities occurred spontaneously, rather than as part of structured activities. In contrast, textbooks contained slightly greater number of activities including requests (see section 4.4). However, activities with an explicit focus on requests were rare also in textbooks, at all

levels. Activities were mainly aimed to improve one or more of the following skills: L2 grammar, lexicon, pronunciation, and/or culture (including literature, places, people, multimedia resources etc.) irrespective of means (multimedia, written, etc.) used to teach them, both in self-designed classroom activities (by teachers) and in textbook materials.

The explicit metapragmatic explanation of variables (social status/imposition) affecting request strategies or alternative range of expressions (strategies, modifiers, perspectives etc.) for realizing requests were almost absent from textbooks as well as classroom activities. Unlike classroom activities, a number of activities with an implicit focus on requests were found in textbooks. However, the salience of such requests could be questionable since all learners might not be able to benefit from these resources equally. Interviews with teachers confirmed that L2 pragmatics received little or no attention in L2 classrooms, especially at higher levels, due to exam-driven nature of the curriculum. In the following, each of these points will be explained in detail.

5.2.1 Type of input in French secondary schools.

As noted earlier, analysis of input in L2 classrooms indicated that despite some differences in specific linguistic objectives across levels, general aims of classroom activities/lessons across levels were similar: improvement of learners' grammar, lexicon (vocabulary), pronunciation, and knowledge about L2 culture. Pragmatics was generally not focused in L2 classrooms, at least the ones which were filmed.

Input at level 1 mostly consisted of activities which involved the use/practice of L2 vocabulary items or they had to make short sentences using simple grammatical structures (see appendix 15). Learners were provided with opportunities to read, write, listen (to recorded textbook materials), and to a limited extent speak/interact during activities. Compared to level 1

in which textbooks were widely used, a greater range of authentic materials was used at level 2. Learners were introduced to a variety of events, people, places, and movies etc. related to the target culture. However, like level 1, the major aim of input at level 2 was to increase learners' vocabulary, correct grammar, and improve pronunciation (see appendix 16). Input at level 3, on the other hand, was based on different “notions” or themes (*e.g.*, “spaces and forms of power”, “myths and heroes”) related to the target culture (see appendix 17). Themes or notions were specified by national curriculum for final examination: “Baccalaureate”. While working on each notion (which might take weeks), learners were trained to search, write, and orally report facts and figures about several events and people which were related to the specific “notion” under study to successfully pass final exams.

Overall, the analysis of the type of input in French secondary schools indicated that classroom activities were generally aimed to improve learners' grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and knowledge about L2 culture. Even though pragmatic input did not occur as part of classroom activities at all levels under study, some unstructured instances were found in which spontaneous input was provided to learners. The extent of opportunities for such an input during classroom activities will be discussed in the following section.

5.2.2 Opportunities for learning and practicing L2 pragmatics.

Classroom activities and L2 textbooks were analysed to find opportunities for learning L2 pragmatics. As shown in table 5.28 below, during 39 hours of classroom filming, only a few examples of spontaneous metapragmatic input were identified when teachers provided some information about L2 requests (see also tables 4.2.8, 4.2.9, and 4.2.10 in chapter 4). Such input generally occurred in the form of English translation of learners' spontaneous French requests. However, none of these examples were part of classroom activities at any level, suggesting that

learners received little or no metapragmatic input in classrooms. One of the several constraints which might have contributed in this regard could be the pressure of finishing the syllabus in time to prepare for exams which tested learners' lexico-grammatical abilities, but not pragmatic competence.

Table 5.28 L2 pragmatic input during classroom filming at all three levels

Level	Total classes	Hours of filming (n)	Instances of spontaneous metapragmatic input (n)	Instances of planned metapragmatic input (n)
1	5	14	5	1
2	3	9	1	0
3	5	16	3	0

Since a number of participating teachers at all levels confirmed the regular or occasional use of textbooks in L2 classrooms, textbooks were also analysed in detail. As shown in table 5.29, the explicit metapragmatic input regarding L2 requests was rare in textbooks (see also section 4.4 in chapter 4 for more details on textbook findings).

Table 5.29 Number of activities in L2 textbooks with explicit, implicit, and incidental focus on requests

Level	Number of textbooks analysed	Estimated total of activities in textbooks	Activities with explicit metapragmatic input	%	Activities with implicit metapragmatic input	%	Activities with incidental requests	%	Total ⁴⁰
1	5	1315	9	0.7%	34	2.6%	65	5%	108
2	5	1342	7	0.5%	9	0.7%	40	3%	56
3	5	2170	2	0.1%	6	0.3%	34	1.6%	42

As shown in table 5.30 below, the few activities which focused on L2 requests explicitly consisted of the explanation of modals (see example 5.8), or sample requests in specific contexts

⁴⁰ Total number of activities containing requests

(see section 4.4.3 for an example), without providing any metapragmatic information about the impact of social variables (e.g., power, distance) on the selection of strategies. For instance;

Example 5.8 (Step in, Level 2, page, 160)

24. Les auxiliaires de modalité

Il n'existe que deux « temps » en anglais, le présent et le prétérit. Pour exprimer le futur ou encore des notions telles que la capacité, l'obligation, la déduction, la permission, la probabilité, etc., on emploie des auxiliaires de modalité. Voici les valeurs courantes de ces auxiliaires de modalité.

Auxiliaire	Valeur	Exemples	
<i>will</i>	• le futur	<i>It will rain tomorrow.</i>	Il pleuvra demain.
<i>would</i>	• le conditionnel	<i>I would help you if...</i> <i>I would have helped you if...</i>	Je t'aiderais si... Je t'aurais aidé si...
<i>can / could</i>	• la permission	<i>Can I watch television?</i>	Est-ce que je peux regarder la télévision ?
	ou l'absence de permission	<i>Could I come?</i> <i>No, you can't!</i>	Est-ce que je pourrais venir ? Tu n'as pas le droit !

Table 5.30 Distribution of explicit metapragmatic input activities into subcategories by level

Level	Total Activities with explicit metapragmatic input (n)	Division of explicit input activities into subcategories	
		Explanation of Modals (n)	Sample expressions for specific requests (n)
Level 1	9	6	3
Level 2	7	6	1
Level 3	2	0	2

Although a number of activities with an implicit focus on requests were found in textbooks (see table 5.29 above), the salience of such requests could be questionable since the provision of metapragmatic information regarding L2 pragmatics depended on teachers, especially at lower levels. In contrast, older more proficient learners were more likely to get implicit input from several online resources, book extracts, movies etc. with which they worked during class projects and presentations. Even though learners at all levels received little or no

metapragmatic input, higher level learners' greater exposure to several linguistic resources could explain their better performance in elicited and authentic data as compared to learners at lower levels.

Further analysis of L2 requests found in textbooks showed that information available in textbooks might not be sufficient to learn all types of request strategies. For instance, most of the requests found in textbooks were realised by means of Mood Derivable (direct) strategy (*e.g.*, “Call me back.” New Enjoy, level 1, p. 32), whereas the number of conventionally indirect requests was quite limited (see table 5.31 below). Furthermore, conventionally indirect requests were limited to Preparatory strategy (*e.g.*, “Can I go to the cinema with Sue?” Connect, level 3, p.137), whereas nonconventionally indirect requests were rare in textbooks and were limited to Strong hints only (*e.g.*, “Have you got a (key)? My cat is in the tree.” *Making friends*, level 1, p. 76).

Table 5.31 Division of request strategies for requests found in the textbooks

Level 1	Textbooks (n)	Activities containing requests (n)	Total requests in activities (n)	Type of requests			
				Direct (n)	CI (n)	NCI (n)	Requests to be made by learners (exercises) (n)
1	5	108	242	139	87	6	10
2	5	56	106	67	37	2	0
3	5	77	54	16	4	3	0

Overall, based on findings discussed in this section, it can be argued that learners' limited repertoire concerning request modifiers, request strategies, and modals could be a result of the lack of focus on L2 requests, or at least, the lack of practice thereof in L2 classrooms and textbooks.

5.2.3 Insights from teacher interviews.

All teachers who participated in the study were interviewed to better understand the classroom context and reasons for particular pedagogical decisions made during classroom filming. Most of the participant teachers confirmed that the focus of L2 classrooms, both in lower and higher secondary schools, was to improve learners' grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and cultural knowledge.

Teachers had different views about the importance of learning L2 pragmatics. According to one teacher (L3-I), accuracy (in grammar & choice of lexicon) while speaking was the most important skill to master while learning a second language because it was likely to help learners “survive” during their travel abroad. Concerning pragmatics, the teacher maintained that there was little difference between saying “can I have ice-cream” and “ice-cream” as long as learners were capable of conveying their meaning. The teacher further added;

But we we do focus on, pragmatics especially with younger students uh what is lacking perhaps is the, is the accuracy... The fact that students are actually able to um ask directions or (inc.) you know buy things from, a shop.... We saw that when we went on a trip to London. So they were all free to do whatever they wanted so they managed to survive. (L3-I)

Teachers at level 3 also claimed that pragmatics was supposed to be taught at lower levels. Other teachers, especially at lower levels were either not familiar with pragmatics or they thought that learners' proficiency level was too limited at this stage to focus on any other skill than improving their grammar and vocabulary. They relied on textbooks which provided little metapragmatic information.

Moreover, one of the teachers at level 2 argued that the aim of syllabus was to enable L2 learners to speak “in front of an audience um, more than one or two minutes” (L2-C). Other two teachers at level 2 also stressed the importance of speaking in L2 but they also reported having used some materials (before filming sessions) in classrooms which were related to L2

pragmatics. For instance, one of the teachers reported that after a web-quest she organized a role play activity in which learners practiced “real-life conversation” to “order food in a restaurant” or “ask for directions” etc. (L2-F). The third teacher at level 2 (L2-E) reported that she imparted some metapragmatic input to learners about making requests and asking questions during class presentations but this strategy did not work well, as she had planned. According to her;

For the presentations, they had beforehand we had worked on uh how to, precisely to ask to repeat or speak louder and everything, because they normally ask me but the thing is when they when the classmates do their presentation they don't necessarily do this or they tend to react in French because it's their classmates, and it was, it was they didn't really use it so that was a strategy but they didn't, didn't use it really. (L2-E)

Overall, it appeared that some teachers provided some metapragmatic knowledge to L2 learners but it did not always work because learners only practiced it during the given activities, but they did not use it outside the activity because they usually chose to speak French while making spontaneous requests in classrooms.

Convincing pupils to speak in English was challenging for teachers at all levels because using English with their classmates might sound “unnatural” (L3-I). Therefore, teachers also confessed having used French frequently in their L2 classes to help pupils understand lessons. In teachers' point of views, one of the major reasons due to which L2 pragmatics receives little attention in French secondary schools is that both syllabus and classroom activities are exam-driven, especially at level 2 and level 3. According to one teacher,

The exam doesn't require them (learners) to, play game or to, they require them to learn something at heart to be able to explain something. So, the task-based activities are not what is required for the exams. They really have to work on their language more um and they need to have like cultural references...the exam still requires them to be, be able to talk about Shakespeare and literature with uh literary terms and to analyse something uh like uh in details. (L3-I).

The comment above also serves as a window on the teachers' attitude to goals and processes in FL teaching and learning. The teacher does not consider that a task-based approach will help learners

acquire the skills learners need to pass their exams. In contrast, learners have to focus on fluency, culture, and literature which are part of final examination.

The second contributing factor which might have led to the lack of focus on L2 pragmatics in FL classrooms was that teachers generally do not receive ample training during their teacher-training programmes. All ten teachers who took part in this study confirmed that they did not receive any specific training for teaching L2 pragmatics. Thus, some teachers admitted that they were not familiar with “pragmatics” at all. Others were familiar with the term but they did not know how to incorporate pragmatics in their classroom activities because they did not receive any training in this regard. As a result, it appears that the lack of focus on ILP in L2 classrooms might be a major contributing factor in learners’ limited pragmalinguistic repertoire, as shown in the COPT, role plays, and authentic data (see section 5.1 above).

On a brighter note, all participant teachers showed keen interest in learning to teach L2 pragmatics in their classes, but they were uncertain about the ways to include pragmatics in their usual activities. According to a teacher, “I don’t I don’t really know how how to teach pragmatics, I mean. How how you would, you know, find some activities for teaching it?” (TH, level 3). Thus, it is important to find ways to integrate pragmatics into existing syllabus and/or into formal examinations.

So far, results for all four research questions have been discussed with a focus on learners’ request behaviour and explanations for their request performance. Since a number of methods were used for data collection in the present study, several methodological implications emerged from the comparison of these methods which will be discussed below, before giving final pedagogical implications of the study.

5.3 Methodological Implications

The use of multiple methods (COPT, role plays, and authentic data) in this study has rendered several methodological implications which are discussed in this section. First, various patterns emerging from the triangulation of methods are presented to have a general view about the product of different methods. Later, individual learners' requests are compared across all three methods to have a closer look at learners' actual performance (L2 requests) on a micro level.

5.3.1 Triangulation of methods.

Triangulation of methods has the potential to confirm if certain patterns are recurrent in all methods or they are specific to some methods. For instance, all methods used in the study confirmed that conventionally indirect strategy was frequently used by learners at all levels (see tables 4.10, 4.13, and 4.16 in chapter 4). Likewise, triangulation of methods also established that lexical and phrasal downgraders (*e.g.*, "please") were the most frequent internal modifiers at all levels (see tables 4.18, 4.22, and 4.25).

However, findings also revealed that despite evident similarities on some measures, results of triangulated data might differ distinctly in terms of frequencies and developmental patterns regarding several elements in L2 requests. For instance, even though hearer dominant perspective was most frequent at all levels in the COPT and role plays, the frequency of this perspective varied across methods. For example, level 3 learners used hearer dominant perspective in 70% of requests in COPT (see table 4.2), but they used this perspective in 58% of requests in role plays (see table 4.4).

Another striking feature which surfaced from the comparison of different types of data was that some pragmalinguistic elements occurred much more frequently in some methods whereas their occurrence was limited in others. For instance, learners especially at level 3 used

internal and external modifiers moderately (33%) in authentic data (4.21) whereas they used these modifiers frequently (76%) in COPT (see table 4.18). In contrast, they used external modifiers with exceptionally high frequency (140%)⁴¹ in role plays (see table 4.18). It can be assumed that the limited frequency of internal and external modifiers in authentic data might be caused by several contextual factors including the time pressure, the urgency of the matter, and difficulties of cognitive processing. In comparison, the high frequency of external modifiers in role plays might be affected by the presence of the interlocutor who sought several reasons and explanations for learners' requests as shown in the example below;

Example 5.9

- 1 Pupil A: #00:00:00-6# Uh can you give me some money please?
- 2 Pupil B: #00:00:03-6# How much do you need?
- 3 Pupil A: #00:00:05-4# Um, ten dollars.
- 4 Pupil B: #00:00:08-0# What for?
- 5 Pupil A: #00:00:09-1# **Uh for eat. I don/ I have, fo/ forgotten my money at home.**
- 6 Pupil B: #00:00:14-5# I only have five dollars. Is that enough?
- 7 Pupil A: #00:00:17-5# Uh yeah.
- 8 Pupil B: #00:00:18-8# Okay. //You//I'll pay me back tomorrow?
- 9 Pupil A: #00:00:18-8# //ok// **Yes.**
- 10 Pupil B: #00:00:21-3# Okay.
- 11 Pupil A: #00:00:22-3# Thank you.

(#30, Level 2, Role plays, Item 8)

Pupil A in example 5.9 above makes a request to Pupil B (interlocutor), asking for money. Pupil A does not use a grounder (reason/explanation) in his request in the beginning. It is the interlocutor (Pupil B) who asks for the reason in turn 4 (e.g., "what for?"). The interlocutor also

⁴¹ Some learners used more than one lexical modifier in their requests

triggers another supportive move by pupil A in turn 9 (promise of reward: repaying money).

Since such interlocutors were not present in COPT, less supportive moves were used. In contrast, even though interlocutors were present in authentic requests, but they did not ask as many reasons and explanation for learners' requests, probably due to the lack of time or the difference in the type of request scenarios involved.

Likewise, the comparison of different types of data also showed that the developmental trajectory concerning some linguistic elements across levels might not be similar in different methods. For example, COPT data showed that the use of hearer dominant perspective increased with level/proficiency (see table 4.2) whereas role plays evidenced that the use of hearer dominant perspective slightly decreased with level (see table 4.4). Concerning the development of request strategies, in contrast, all methods showed different patterns of development. For example, COPT showed that the use of direct strategy decreased and the use of conventional indirectness increased with level (see table 4.9). In contrast, classroom requests showed that the use of directness slightly increased and the use of conventional indirectness gradually decreased with level (see table 4.13). Contrarily, role plays showed an irregular pattern across levels, that is, the use of direct strategy remained comparable at all levels whereas conventionally indirect strategy increased at level 2 but decreased at level 3 (see table 4.11). Similarly, regarding the use of Alerters (external modifiers), COPT and role plays showed that the use of Alerters increased with level (see tables 4.25 for the COPT and table 4.28 for role plays), but authentic data showed that the use of Alerters decreased with level (see table 4.30).

Furthermore, some request elements (*e.g.*, modifiers, strategies) did not occur in some methods altogether whereas they occurred frequently in others. For example, a notable frequency of upgraders (*e.g.*, “really”) was found in role plays at level 3 (see table 4.18) which was almost

absent in COPT (see table 4.15) and authentic data at all levels (see table 4.21). Likewise, it is worth mentioning here that nonconventionally indirect strategy (or hints) rarely occurred in COPT at all levels (see table 4.9), whereas the use of this strategy was higher in role plays and authentic data, especially at level 1 and level 3 (see tables 4.11 and 4.13). One possible explanation for the limited use of nonconventionally indirect strategy in COPT could be the absence of actual context which might have made it difficult for learners to concoct related hints as compared to authentic requests. Likewise, learners might not have felt the pressure / obligation to increase the degree of politeness by being more indirect (Brown & Levinson, 1987) in the COPT due to the absence of the interlocutor/context (see example 5.3 in section 5.1.2 above).

Another method-specific feature found in the study was the shift in perspective or strategy over the course of a conversational exchange. For example, sometimes in role plays learners realized their requests using more than one head acts. Interestingly, they did not always use the same perspective or strategy in all head acts used in a specific speech event. For example, the speaker in example 5.10 below shifted his request strategy (see turn 1) from conventionally indirect to direct strategy (see turn 9). Although the frequency of such strategic shift was limited in role plays, such instances were rare in COPT and authentic data. For instance;

Example 5.10

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 | S: Excuse me I have no money. I have to to to buy something. <u>Just, can you give just, may be, ten euros please?</u> |
| 2 | A: Okay. But I don't have euros, I have dollars. Will, will that work? |
| 3 | S: Yes because, because I'm friend so uh |
| 4 | A: All right. I understand this is, this is //the problem. But that doesn't//, doesn't matter. |
| 5 | S: //yes// like that |

play scenarios (n=8). However, differences between authentic and elicited data could also represent what learners think they would do in a given situation and what they actually do in a real situation. Thus, it is likely that COPT and, to some extent, role plays served to show learners' knowledge about L2 requests but authentic data revealed that learners might not always display the extent of their knowledge in real life situations due to several constraints. However, it is important to note that COPT and role plays also differed on several accounts especially in terms of frequency of internal and external downgraders (compare tables 4.15 with 4.18, and tables 4.25 with 4.28).

In this section, several methodological implications based on similarities and dissimilarities among different methods (COPT, role plays, and authentic data) are discussed in detail. However, in order to have a closer look at learners' individual performance across all three methods, a small-scale comparison of L2 requests by two learners at each level is presented in the following section to compare methods on a micro level.

5.3.2 Comparison of learners' individual performance across methods.

As noted above, six learners' pragmalinguistic performance is compared across all three methods to have a closer look at learners' actual performance and to compare all elicitation tasks based on requests of same individuals (2 learners at each level). As shown in table 5.32 below, the comparison of these learners' cloze test scores with the rest of learners at each level showed that level 1 learners performed according to the average scores at this level. Level 2 learners, on the other hand, were above average as compared to other learners at level 2. In contrast, one of the learners (3B) at level 3 scored according to the average scores at this level, whereas the other learner (3A) scored much higher than the average scores at this level.

Table 5.32 Cloze test scores of 6 participants compared to the rest of participants at each level

Level and learner #	Cloze test scores (total 80)	Total participants at each level	Mean cloze test score at each level	Standard deviation
1A	7	111 (level 1)	8.15	6.99
1B	7			
2A	35	73 (level 2)	15.75	11.96
2B	36			
3A	72	71 (level 3)	45.12	20.69
3B	48			

Findings also indicated that learners displayed many similarities in their linguistic choices regardless of methods employed. Table 5.33 shows that both learners at level 1 used conventionally indirect strategies frequently in all types of data. Level 2 learners performed differently from each other, however, their own performance across all three methods was similar. For instance, examine the similar choice of request strategy (conventionally indirect strategy) by a learner in different methods;

Example 5.11

- “A pupil raises hand during the start of a classroom activity:
- 1 Teacher (to the pupil): #00:21:36-7# Alex.
 - 2 Alex: #00:21:38-3# Um, can I throw the light on the, lesson objectives please?
 - 3 Teacher: Yes. You can.”
- (Authentic data, #1A, 1st obs)

Example 5.12

“Can you repeat? I don't understand.” (COPT, #1A, item 8)

Example 5.13

“Uh excuse me, teacher. Uh can you repeat the the last, sentence please?” (Role play, #1A, Item1)

In contrast, level 3 learners showed somewhat different tendency by using nonconventionally indirect strategy more frequently in both role plays and authentic data (see

table 5.33 below), but they used conventionally indirect strategy more often in COPT. For instance, the use of nonconventionally indirect strategy in an authentic request below;

Example 5.14

- 1 In the beginning of a class the teacher asks a pupil #00:00:59-5# (to a pupil who was having a snack) Have you finished? (she laughs) that smelt that smelt very good.
- 2 Pupil: yes (she walks towards the teacher, smiling)
- 3 Teacher: That smelled, that smelled very good.
- 4 Joanna: #00:01:13-9# **I forgot my bag.** (laughs and makes a gesture with her hand to her head)
- 5 Teacher: Uh?
- 6 Joanna: #00:01:16-3# **I forgot my bag.**
- 7 Teacher #00:01:18-1# Yes. You were so busy about your food that you forgot your bag. Of course. (then the pupil leaves the class to get her bag)

As shown in example 5.14, the learner makes the request to leave the class to bring her school bag from the hall using a hint “I forgot my bag”. Teacher decodes the hint and gives her permission (by using expressions like “yes” and “of course”) to the pupil to leave the class and bring her bag. Difference in the choice of strategies in different methods might be affected either by the type of methods or by scenarios involved in different methods. Another pattern observed in learner data was that learners used some linguistic elements frequently in a method but they did not do so in other methods. This tendency was evident in the use of request perspectives by learners at level 2 and level 3 (see table 5.33 above). For instance, examine the use of request perspective in different examples of requests (in different methods) by the same learner;

Example 5.15 (Authentic data, 3B, first obs)

- 1 Teacher #00:15:08-0#... My question is what does the expression mean? (a pupil raises hand) Anthony
- 2 Anthony: #00:15:31-8# I don't understand the lowest.
- 3 The teacher: #00:15:32-8# (the teacher makes a gesture with her hand) the highest, the lowest.

Table 5.33 Distribution of request strategies by level and method

Distribution of request strategies across methods												
Learner code	COPTs				Role plays				Authentic data			
	Total requests (n)	Direct	CI	NCI	Total Requests (n)	Direct	CI	NCI	Total requests (n)	Direct	CI	NCI
1A	7	0%	100% (7)	0%	5	0%	80% (4)	20% (1)	1	0%	100% (1)	0%
1B	10	10% (1)	90% (9)	0%	7	0%	86% (6)	14% (1)	2	0%	100% (2)	0%
2A	9	44% (4)	56% (5)	0%	8	50% (4)	37.5% (3)	12.5% (1)	2	50% (1)	50% (1)	0%
2B	10	20% (2)	80% (8)	0%	4	0%	100% (4)	0%	1	0%	100% (1)	0%
3A	10	0%	90% (9)	10% (1)	4	0%	25% (1)	75% (3)	1	0%	0%	100% (1)
3B	10	0%	100% (10)	0%	4	0%	0%	100% (4)	1	0%	0%	100% (1)

- 4 The pupil #00:15:35-6# but I don't understand the, the (inc.)⁴²
 5 Teacher #00:15:41-0# the? (makes a gesture indicating she couldn't hear)

Example 5.16

"I'm sorry miss but I don't understand the lesson can you explain me another time please?"
 (COPT, 3B, item 7)

Example 5.17

- 1 Student: #00:00:01-0# Uh miss, I didn't understand the: lesson yesterday because uh:
 when I read when I rode the lessons =
 2 G: #00:00:10-6# When I?
 3 Student: #00:00:11-5# Rode.
 4 G: #00:00:12-9# Read =
 5 Student: #00:00:13-6# Read.=
 6 G: #00:00:14-0# Read (teaching him the second form of the verb).
 7 Student: #00:00:14-6# Read. When I read the lessons yesterday I didn't understand the sentences, tree.

(Role play, 3B, Item 2)

As shown in examples above, speaker 3B used speaker dominant perspective (*I* didn't understand) in authentic data as well as in role plays, but not in the COPT; mainly because the request strategies were different between the COPT and the other two methods. The learner used hints in the role play and the authentic request, which is basically the explanation for making the request. Since a clear request is not made, the hint serves as the main head act. In comparison, the speaker uses the same reason in the COPT request, but in this method he also makes use of a clear head act ("can **you** explain me another time please?") resulting in a different type of request perspective and strategy unlike other methods. Even though learners used some linguistic elements (*e.g.*, "Please") frequently in all methods, but the exact percentage or frequency of their use varied across methods. This pattern was found in request strategies (see table 5.33), request perspectives (see table 5.34), and request modifiers (see table 5.35). For instance, all learners

⁴² Incomprehensible sound

Table 5.34 Distribution of request perspective by level and methods

Request Perspectives ⁴³										
		COPTs			Role plays			Authentic requests		
Learner	Level	Total (n)	HD % (n)	SD % (n)	Total (n)	HD % (n)	SD % (n)	Total (n)	HD % (n)	SD % (n)
1A_L1#1	1	7	86% (6)	14% (1)	5	80% (4)	20% (1)	1	1 (100%)	0%
1B_L1#2	1	10	80% (8)	10% (1)	7	86% (6)	0%	2	50% (1)	50% (1)
2A_L2#3	2	9	67% (6)	22% (2)	8	37.5% (3)	37.5% (3)	2	50% (1)	50% (1)
2B_L2#4	2	10	60% (6)	20% (2)	4	75% (3)	25% (1)	1	0%	100% (1)
3A_L3#5	3	10	60% (6)	20% (2)	4	25% (1)	75% (3)	1	0%	100% (1)
3B_L3#6	3	10	80% (8)	10% (1)	4	0%	100% (4)	1	0%	100% (1)

⁴³ The percentages do not add up to 100% because the frequencies of impersonal and speaker and hearer dominant perspective were removed from this table due to their low values

Table 5.35 Frequency of internal modifiers by level and method

Internal modification									
	COPTs			Role plays			Authentic data		
Learner codes	Total requests (n)	Lexical and phrasal downgrader % (n)	Upgraders %	Total requests (n)	Lexical and phrasal downgrader % (n)	Upgraders % (n)	Total requests (n)	Lexical and phrasal downgrader % (n)	Upgraders % (n)
1A	7	57% (4)	0%	4	125% (5)	0%	1	0%	0%
1B	10	40% (4)	0%	4	100% (4)	0%	2	100% (2)	0%
2A	9	100% (9)	0%	4	100% (4)	0%	2	50% (1)	0%
2B	10	100% (10)	0%	4	100% (4)	0%	1	0%	0%
3A	10	90% (9)	0%	4	150% (6)	100% (4)	1	0%	100% (1)
3B	10	140% (14)	0%	4	100% (4)	100% (4)	1	0%	100% (1)

used lexical and phrasal downgraders (*e.g.*, “Please”) frequently, but the percentage of these modifiers varied across methods, although request scenarios were comparable, at least between role plays and COPTs.

Even though learners used some linguistic elements (*e.g.*, “Please”) frequently in all methods, but the exact percentage or frequency of their use varied across methods. This pattern was found in request strategies (see table 5.33), request perspectives (see table 5.34), and request modifiers (see table 5.35). For instance, all learners used lexical and phrasal downgraders (*e.g.*, “Please”) frequently, but the percentage of these modifiers varied across methods, although the request scenarios were comparable, at least between role plays and COPTs.

In contrast, such instances were also found in which learners used different elements with surprisingly variant frequencies in different methods. For example, as shown in table 5.36 below, learners at level 1 and level 2 used Alerters with notably different frequencies in all methods. Another notable pattern which was mostly specific to role plays was that learners used some request modifiers much more frequently in role plays as compared to other methods. For instance, examine the use of supportive moves (reasons/justifications etc.) in requests of the same learners across three different methods;

Example 5.18

- 1 A pupil raises hand and says #00:07:08-2# Miss
 - 2 Teacher #00:07:08-9# Uh?
 - 3 The pupil #00:07:09-0# Can I pick up the names (from the box, for the next presentation)?
- (Authentic data, 2B, 1st obs)

Example 5.19

“Can we do the test the next time please because I have headache.” (COPT, 2B, Item 3)

Example 5.20

- 1 Student: #00:00:00-6# Uh can you give me some money please?

- 2 L: #00:00:03-6# How much do you need?
 3 Student: #00:00:05-4# Um, ten dollars.
 4 L: #00:00:08-0# What for?
 5 Student: #00:00:09-1# Uh for eat. I don/ I have, fo/ forgotten my money at home.
 6 L: #00:00:14-5# I only have five dollars. Is that enough?
 7 Student: #00:00:17-5# Uh yeah.
 8 L: #00:00:18-8# Okay. //You//I'll pay me back tomorrow?
 9 Student: #00:00:18-8# //ok# Yes.
 10 L: #00:00:21-3# Okay.
 11 Student: #00:00:22-3# Thank you. (Role plays, 2B, Item 8)

Table 5.36 Frequency of external modifiers by level and method

External modifiers									
	COPTs			Role plays			Authentic requests		
Learner Code	Total request s (n)	Alerter s (n)	Supportiv e moves	Total request s (n)	Alerter s (n)	Supportiv e moves ⁴⁴	Total request s (n)	Alerter s (n)	Supportiv e moves
1A	7	43% (3)	0%	4	25% (1)	225% (9)	1	100% (1)	0%
1B	10	10% (1)	40% (4)	4	150% (6)	325% (13)	2	50% (1)	0%
2A	9	67% (6)	22% (2)	4	125% (5)	425% (17)	2	0%	0%
2B	10	60% (6)	70% (7)	4	50% (2)	250% (10)	1	100% (1)	0%
3A	10	100% (10)	20% (2)	4	75% (3)	250% (10)	1	100% (1)	100% (1)
3B	10	130% (13)	140% (14)	4	100% (4)	400% (16)	1	0%	0%

⁴⁴ some percentages in these results are higher than 100% because learners used more than one supportive moves in their requests.

As shown in examples above, learner 2B did not use any supportive move in the authentic request (see example 5.18). The learner used one supportive move in COPT whereas he used about three supportive moves in the role play that can also be found in other learners' requests (see table 5.36). Increased use of supportive moves in role plays is generally triggered by the interlocutor's recurrent questions (examine the interlocutor's turn 4 and 8 in example 5.20 above).

Emergence of some linguistic elements in specific methods was also found in this small-scale analysis. For instance, table 5.37 below shows that learner 3A used "could" only in COPT but did not use this modal in other methods. Similar trend was found in learners' use of internal modifiers (*e.g.*, upgraders, see table 5.34 above). Both learners at level 3 (3A, 3B) did not use upgraders (*e.g.*, "really") in COPT but they used upgraders frequently in role plays and authentic data (see table 5.3 above). Examine the use of upgraders (*e.g.*, "really") in following examples by the same learner in different request conditions (methods);

Example 5.21

- 1 Pupil #00:21:11-6# Miss (raises hand), I didn't **really** get: (inc.), when when are they (teacher goes to her)
- 2 Teacher (walks up to the pupil): #00:21:17-8# So it's actually a good question. You read the text until the end?
- 3 Pupil #00:21:21-5# No.

(Authentic data, 3A, 1st obs)

Example 5.22

"Uh excuse me, could we open the windows please?"⁴⁵ (COPT, 3A, Item 18)

Example 5.23

- 1 Pupil: #00:00:00-6# Excuse me //uh//
 - 2 Teacher: #00:00:01-0# //Yeah//
 - 3 Pupil: #00:00:01-6# I don't **really** get when we use the passive voice.
- (Role play, 3A, Item 2)

⁴⁵ No upgrader is used in this request as compared authentic and role play requests

Table 5.37 Distribution of modals in L2 learners' conventionally indirect requests by level and method

Modals									
	COPTs			Role plays			Authentic data		
Learner code	Total CNI (n)	Can % (n)	Could % (n)	Total CNI (n)	Can % (n)	Could % (n)	Total CNI (n)	Can % (n)	Could % (n)
1A	7	100% (7)	0%	4	100% (4)	0%	1	100% (1)	0%
1B	9	100% (9)	0%	6	100% (6)	0%	2	100% (2)	0%
2A	5	100% (5)	0%	3	100% (3)	0%	1	100% (1)	0%
2B	8	100% (8)	0%	4	100% (4)	0%	1	100% (1)	0%
3A	9	0%	100% (9)	1	100% (1)	0%	0	0%	0%
3B	10	80% (8)	0%	0	0%	0%	0	0%	0%

Overall, the comparison of learners' performance in different methods showed that similarities in learners' request strategies and modifiers across all three methods were generally limited. In some cases, learners' performance in role plays was closely connected to authentic data whereas in other cases their role play data resembled more closely to the COPT data. In contrast,

such patterns were also found in which learners showed similar tendencies in COPT and role plays but displayed opposite trends in authentic data. However, only few such instances were found in which the COPT and authentic data shared similarities as opposed to role plays (*e.g.*, use of supportive moves). Thus, it appears that role plays were at the mid-point of the continuum of methods employed in the present study.

So far, findings of all four research questions are summarised followed by a discussion on methodological implications based on the findings of triangulated data. Overall findings of the study suggested that learners especially at higher levels were familiar with a number of linguistic strategies to make requests. However, despite many advancements on pragmalinguistic level, learners showed limitations on sociopragmatic level. Moreover, learners' pragmalinguistic repertoire also appeared to be restricted. Analysis of classroom activities and textbooks showed that learners received little or no L2 pragmatic instruction which might be a major contributing factor concerning limited pragmatic skills of L2 learners. Therefore, we and other researchers who consider L2 pragmatic instruction indispensable for young L2 learners (see also Bardovi-Harlig, 1999; Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003; Cohen, 2005; Kasper, 1997; Martínez-Flor & Usó-Juan, 2006) have tried to address these problems which are discussed in the following section.

5.4 Pedagogical Implications: Teacher Training

Building on findings of the present study, a small-scale follow-up study (Whyte & Siddiqua, 2016) was conducted in which pre-service teachers participated. Two of the major problems found in the present study were addressed in this study by a) providing L2 pragmatic teaching techniques to pre-service teachers and b) by providing L2 pragmatic awareness to EFL learners. It was aimed to examine the problems teachers and learners might face during L2 pragmatic lessons.

As part of their teacher educational programme at a French university, fifteen pre-service teachers took part in this study by taking a “Classroom Research” course. The course focused on a) multiple research methods, data analysis techniques, and various pragmatic aspects including b) ILP awareness-raising. During the 14h “Classroom Research” course, student-teachers were introduced with several methods for developing authentic materials using TV series, films, and corpus data as suggested by Bardovi-Harlig et al. (2015b). Furthermore, they were trained to design and implement classroom activities to teach both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic dimensions of requests to EFL learners in lower and upper secondary schools (aged 11 to 18). Student-teachers worked in groups, prepared and delivered awareness-raising lessons on making appropriate L2 English requests using authentic materials. Data included video-recordings of three classroom activities by four student-teachers, learner focus-group discussions (n=17), video-stimulated recall interviews with student-teachers (n=4), their tutors (n=3), and audio-recorded class presentations of student-teachers.

Teachers structured three lessons independently and taught them in L2 classes where they were giving lessons as part of their two-week teaching practice. Table 5.38 below displays the summary of activities they conducted during their lessons to teach L2 pragmatics. In the first lesson, the student-teacher Jenny⁴⁶ used an implicit metapragmatic instruction technique in the beginning. After using some exercise related to transcripts of video extracts, she gave explicit metapragmatic instruction in order to increase learners’ pragmalinguistic repertoire. She introduced them with new expressions (*e.g.*, “would you mind”) while explaining their sociopragmatic relevance.

⁴⁶ The names of the student-teachers used in this section are pseudonyms

Table 5.38 Structure of metapragmatic awareness-raising lessons by pre-service teachers

Lesson #	Pseudonyms for teachers	Level taught	Time	Activities (steps)
1	Jenny	3ème	50 minutes	1. watch video extracts of series <i>Fresh off the Boat</i> with short whole-class discussion
				2. identify requests from transcripts
				3. find alternatives to <i>can I/can you</i> with different interlocutors
				4. establish when each expression is appropriate (explicit sociopragmatic teaching)
2	Aude & Faiza	1ère	50 minutes	1. brainstorm requests
				2. watch extracts from TV series
				3. analyse transcripts while watching the videos again (who is talking to whom)
				4. focus on modals
				5. written exercises followed by discussion
3	Megane	2nde	50 minutes	1. use of the COPT (A) in classroom activity to elicit pre-instruction requests
				2. explicit metapragmatic instruction about variant possible forms of expressions used to make requests and their sociopragmatic use
				3. use of the COPT (B) for practice of requests and the new expressions taught in this class

The second lesson by Aude and Faiza was also conducted on similar lines like Jenny's lesson except that Aude and Faiza introduced "requests" in the beginning of lesson and used explicit metapragmatic instruction technique throughout the lesson. After the first introduction to the concept of making requests, they asked pupils to note down all expressions concerning requests that they notice in video extracts which were played several times with pauses. Later, sociopragmatic nuances of different linguistic expressions for making requests were discussed in which a number of learners participated. In the end, some written exercises introducing new modals were conducted for practice.

Compared to the first two lessons in which no major production activities were used, student-teacher Megane used a production activity based on the COPT (10 requests) in the

beginning of the lesson to elicit requests to find the type of expressions with which learners were already familiar. Later, the discussion session followed in which each request was discussed and the teacher presented several alternatives for making the same request. The teacher also shed light on sociopragmatic aspects of requests. During the last part of lesson, the teacher used the other ten COPT requests as an oral practice test in which several learners participated.

At the end of each class, a number of volunteers participated in learner focus-group interviews. Learners were asked several questions about their experience in L2 pragmatic instructional session, things they liked about the lesson, and difficulties they faced during the lesson. In two of the three lessons, learner responses were very positive. They appreciated activities and materials teachers used and enjoyed participating in discussions especially when they were made to think about linguistic differences between their L1 (French) and the L2 (English). One of the learners reported “I think, in classes we work more on the grammar, grammar than the expression...there is more participation now...” (Pupil B, Aude & Faiza). Learners reported that they participated more eagerly in these lessons because activities were interactive and included videos for discussion.

In the following week, video-stimulated interviews were conducted with student-teachers to obtain their views regarding lessons they taught. All participants reported that they enjoyed designing and teaching lessons. They shared that they learnt many new things about L2 pragmatics while preparing lessons. According to one teacher “it was a discovery for us and for them as well” (Faiza). Teachers enjoyed discussion sessions with learners, as one teacher reports “we were not expecting ONE answer, there was no, you know the right one and the wrong one. So that makes it more pleasant, altogether.” Moreover, teachers felt liberated while planning L2

pragmatic lessons, because it did not limit them to specific “linguistic objective or cultural objectives” (Faiza, *lère*).

However, student-teachers also shared some problems while planning and delivering lessons. First, they found the planning of pragmatic lessons somewhat challenging because they had to find authentic materials relevant to the content they chose to teach. One teacher said that in the beginning “it was very blurry because we didn’t know where to start because it was so new for us” (Faiza, *lère*). Another problem faced by Jenny was the unexpected lack of response by learners when she was expecting more response from learners. Jenny reported “I don’t know why, I mean when I showed them the video, I don’t know if they didn’t understand what I was asking or if it was that they didn’t understand the video or, they didn’t want to do it, so I don’t know.” As mentioned above, learners later shared that they had difficulties comprehending the lesson because the lesson was delivered entirely in English. Therefore, they could not participate in the lesson properly even though they liked videos and they wanted to participate in the discussion.

During following weeks, video-stimulated interviews of tutors were conducted to gain their perspectives on activity designs and implementation. All tutors showed appreciation for lessons and materials used in L2 pragmatic lessons. One of the teachers was surprised at her pupils’ interest and involvement in L2 pragmatic lessons. According to her, “all (learners) managed to say things what they don’t say, in class. And I was amazed at the reactions of some who are considered as so-called low-achievers and they could react spontaneously. So, this I found this very interesting.” (Aude and Faiza’s tutor, *lère*). Since learners participated actively in the discussion after the video extracts discussing various aspects of L2 pragmatics, the tutor found it very interesting. In contrast, the other tutor (from Jenny’s class) found the video extracts

useful but she found several implementation problems. She said that pragmatic activities were “really too easy for *troisième*”, because such “things they did in *sixième* or even in *cinquième*”. According to her, learners did not use expressions like “would you mind” when the teacher asked them to give alternatives to “can I” structure (part 3 of the lesson), because learners thought the teacher was expecting something more difficult. In contrast, focused-group learners explained that their lack of contribution in this class was caused by their inability to understand lesson because the lesson was delivered in English and the use of French was limited. In this regard, the tutor added that the student-teacher should have first helped learners in translating and “unlocking” everything and then she would have started the discussion. Like this tutor, the third tutor (from Megane’s class) also found some implementation problems such as the limited use of authentic materials in class and the focus on production. However, this tutor showed great interest in integrating L2 pragmatics into classroom activities due to its social and linguistic significance. Megane’s tutor further shed light on classroom practice as follows;

Tutor 3: #00:11:18-9# I mean as I was saying to you I think, I think (pause) uh I mean they have been, in a way almost, brainwashed //by//

Researcher: #00:11:28-5# //hmm-hmm//

Tutor 3: #00:11:29-4# the activities that they do in, in college in (inc.) you know the warming up

Researcher: #00:11:32-4# //hmm-hmm//

Tutor 3:#00:11:32-4# //that we do// uh uh the classroom English that they they they do at the beginning. The class where basically they they they formulate the same the the questions, in in exactly the same way is always ‘can I’, ‘can I go to my locker?’

Researcher: #00:11:45-3# //hmm//

Tutor 3: #00:11:45-3# //‘can I// uh switch on the light?’ etc. etc. So basically, they have been uh in a way conditioned, uh to asking the questions in in in the same way without really adjusting,

Researcher: #00:11:57-9# hmm-hmm

Tutor 3: #00:11:58-5# depending on the person they’re talking to or depending on the context.

Aisha: #00:12:02-0# //Right//

Mackay: #00:12:02-0# //so// I think that’s that’s why it’s an inter/ an interesting activity to uh to to conduct, because um they know, one way of asking question and it’s ‘can I’, ‘may I’ sometimes, and that’s about it.

As the tutor explained above, the use of classroom English in L2 classrooms and the limited attention to sociopragmatic aspects of different speech acts can be a major cause for learners’ limited pragmatic skills regarding L2 requests.

Overall findings of this study suggest a mismatch between secondary EFL expectations and ILP pragmatic goals. Pragmatic instruction seeks to trigger ILP development via rich authentic input using noticing, awareness-raising, and production activities. Pragmatic instruction assumes that similar pragmatic functions can be achieved through a range of grammatical structures (and should not be treated as grammatical rules). In contrast, L2 classrooms in *collège / lycée* pay more attention to L2 grammar, lexicon, and culture while translating and making learners memorise linguistic expressions for subsequent reuse. Moreover, materials are selected on the basis of themes (fitting cultural objectives) rather than language use.

Concerning the design and implementation of L2 pragmatic activities, this procedure seems harder for novice teachers since they are in early stages of experiencing teaching. However, they showed promising results and a great potential for designing L2 pragmatic activities. Such a training for novice teachers prepares them for incorporating pragmatic activities in their future L2 classrooms. However, the problem which needs to be addressed at the

moment is the integration of pragmatics in wider teaching programmes, as one of the tutors emphasized this point in her interview:

But, in the syllabus or in, you know the type of documents or units that we study with the students, how can we relate it (pragmatics), to some unit, for example? That may be, could be, a possible drawback if I may say. It sounds to me a very specific grammatical point or aspect of the language. Now how can we relate it, to the rest of the unit? Or current events? Or maybe we need to add some more follow up work. As the student asked me, what about some more grammatical exercises on modals? (Aude & Faiza's tutor)

Thus, not only does pragmatics needs to be understood as a separate field of study but also its importance has to be recognized in overall communicative competence. It appears that ILP still has to find its niche in the existing syllabus, which could potentially be achieved if L2 pragmatics is included in official examinations (Bardovi-Harlig & Shin, 2014).

In this chapter, major findings of the study are discussed in light of different patterns found in various methods. Findings suggested that learners showed ample evidence of pragmalinguistic development, especially from level 2 to level 3. However, their sociopragmatic development remained limited despite the increase in proficiency. All methods employed in the study confirmed these findings. On methodological levels, more similarities were found between COPT and role play data as compared to authentic data. Authentic data confirmed some developmental patterns found in elicited data, especially role plays, but it also showed several opposite patterns, which could be caused by the lack of control over data in authentic setting compared to carefully designed elicitation methods (COPT & Role plays). The small-scale analysis of six learners' individual performance examining their performance in different methods indicated that learners used some linguistic elements in all methods but they also showed many variations in their requests depending on the method employed. In the end of this chapter, findings of another small-scale study are presented in which various pedagogical implications are discussed. Pre-service teachers were trained to deliver L2 pragmatic activities in

L2 classrooms. Findings of this study suggested that learners take great interest in L2 pragmatic activities involving authentic materials and interaction. Student-teachers found the design of activities somewhat harder due to the difficulty of finding appropriate authentic materials for designing lessons. Tutors, on the other hand, found ILP instruction promising, yet they found the integration of pragmatics into existing syllabus somewhat challenging.

This study highlights several developmental patterns based on results of a large data in several methods, it also has some limitations which are described in the following section followed by suggestions for future research and conclusions of the study.

5.5 Limitations

The first and foremost limitation of this study is that it is limited to one speech act, request, which was examined among English as foreign language learners in France and L1 French speakers. Data from native English speakers was not collected due to several logistic problems. Although learners in this study were at different proficiency levels (in lower and upper secondary schools), but this study only traced beginning to high intermediate proficiency learners' pragmatic development (A1 to B2 level). No university students or advanced-level learners (Level C1 and C2) participated in the study because the focus was on young beginning learners' ILP development.

Some caveats were found on methodological level as well, the number of participants / data samples was not comparable in all methods employed in the study (COPT, role plays, authentic data), because the participation was on voluntary basis, especially in COPT and role plays. Authentic data, on the other hand, was small because the occurrence of an authentic speech act in a limited time-frame constrained the resultant data. Concerning role plays, one major limitation was in order, several interlocutors took part in role plays because the native speaker

volunteers could not be found who would agree to go to all thirteen participant classes in and around Nice, France. Another method-specific limitation in the present study was that the types of authentic requests could not be controlled (49 different request scenarios occurred) compared to COPT (20 request scenarios) and role plays (8 request scenarios) in which request situations were controlled.

Concerning the analysis of data, the major limitation was that data were analysed on group-level rather than individual-level in order to make the analysis more manageable since a large number of learners took part in different methods. Furthermore, findings cannot be generalized to all secondary schools in France because the data is collected from a small number of secondary schools (schools=8, classes=13) in and around Nice (South of France), which might not be representative of secondary schools in other parts of the country.

Nevertheless, despite several limitations, findings of the present study are significant because requests have not been studied with a triangulation of several elicited and naturalistic methods with a large number of young beginning learners before. Moreover, this study also provides a thorough outlook of classroom practice and the position of L2 pragmatics in this setting, two research areas which have not been combined in ILP research. Therefore, this study provides a comprehensive and detailed assessment of learners' use and development of L2 requests while keeping in view their proficiency, background information, and classroom environment providing a general picture of their L2 pragmatic learning.

5.6 Future Research

Keeping in view limitations of the present study, several avenues are recommended for future research. Since the present study focused on one speech act only, future research can consider examining a variety of speech acts. During filming sessions, it was noted that speech acts of

agreement/disagreement and argument were frequently taught and practiced in higher secondary schools which can be a promising avenue for research in a natural setting. However, future studies focusing on authentic L2 requests should consider specific speech events (*e.g.*, taking consent to record private student-teacher talks at the end of classes) rather than general classroom activities only in order to have a richer and greater dataset in a limited time. Likewise, settings beyond classrooms can also be explored in this regard. Since the use of requestive hints was more common in authentic data in the present study, but the focus was on illocutionary acts only, future research can also examine the perlocutionary effect (Félix-Brasdefer, 2002) of hints on addressees in authentic settings.

Even though this study examined the effect of a number of factors on learners' L2 pragmatic development (proficiency level/grade (in schools), lack of metapragmatic input, setting (foreign language), and several other potential factors (*e.g.*, frequency of use of online/textual L2 resources, native speaker parents etc.), a comprehensive proficiency test is recommended in future research to contribute to our understanding of effects of grammatical proficiency on learners' pragmatic development (see also Rose, 2009). Likewise, in order to improve the effectiveness of COPT and role plays it is recommended to apply time constraints during data collection.

Concerning the analysis of data, a micro-level qualitative along with quantitative analysis is recommended to examine the type and quality of structures and expressions used by L2 learners. Likewise, since the analysis of textbooks in this study was mostly quantitative, future research should consider an in-depth qualitative analysis of activities/tasks to examine the quality of activities to account for learners' pragmatic development. Concerning L2 classrooms, the major avenue for future research is to find ways to integrate pragmatics into existing syllabus which focus primarily on other linguistic elements (*e.g.*, grammar, vocabulary, culture).

Furthermore, the present study only examined verbal behaviour, as discussed in Félix-Brasdefer (2002), the future research should consider analysing non-verbal behaviour, for instance, silence, gestures, and other signs of body languages (*e.g.*, signals, movements, eye-rolls) using video data.

5.7 Conclusions

The present study examined the use and development of L2 request by EFL learners at three proficiency levels in French secondary schools. While several interlanguage studies examined the use and/or development of L2 requests in adult learners' requests and employed one or two types of elicited data, the present study focused on young beginning learners using a triangulation of three types of data: oral production (the COPT), free production (role plays), and authentic data which involved situations with variant degrees of imposition and social status of addressees.

Despite some differences across methods, overall findings of the study suggest that learners showed evidence of development in request behaviour with level; older, more proficient learners made more indirect requests with a higher use of modifiers. Concerning the order of pragmalinguistic development, findings showed that the development from level 1 to level 2 was salient but the development from level 2 to level 3 was more prominent, especially in the use of request modifiers (both internal and external). Thus, it appears that L2 linguistic proficiency (*i.e.*, lexico-grammatical) along with greater exposure to online (internet) and multimedia resources (movies, series, etc.) must have contributed in older learners' greater pragmatic development.

However, learners' request performance also depicted their restricted familiarity and/or practice of an array of request strategies, modifiers, and modals even at higher levels. As a result, learners at all levels showed an overreliance on some linguistic elements (*e.g.*, "politeness marker" as internal modifier, "supportive move" as external modifier, and "preparatory strategy" as request

strategy). Overall, findings showed that despite increased frequency of specific pragmalinguistic elements at higher levels, the variety/range of learners' pragmatic repertoire remained limited.

Compared to pragmalinguistic development, more restricted development was found on sociopragmatic level, because learners at all levels showed little familiarity with the impact of social status (*e.g.*, request perspective and strategies) and the degree of imposition on L2 requests. Findings suggest that despite some pragmatic development, even the most proficient learners in the study lacked a number of pragmatic skills which prevented them from using a variety of linguistic elements in different contexts. Moreover, learners also showed some evidence of negative L1 (French) pragmatic transfer which is likely to cause discomfort in communication.

In order to find explanations for learners' limited pragmatic development, classroom activities were analysed. Findings showed that the primary focus of L2 classrooms was on lexico-grammatical and cultural aspects of language whereas pragmatics received little or no attention. Moreover, materials in L2 classes (*esp.* at higher levels) were selected according to themes (fitting cultural objectives) rather than language use. Although authentic materials were frequently used in these classrooms, these materials were mainly translated, subtitled, explained, "unlocked", and memorised for subsequence reuse (Whyte & Siddiq, 2016). Additionally, little or no metapragmatic input was found in L2 textbooks which further demarcated learners' knowledge about contextually appropriate use of L2 requests.

Pedagogical implications of the present study indicate that there is a clear need for instructional intervention in L2 classrooms, which has been emphasized in previous studies as well (Félix-Brasdefer, 2002; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Furthermore, this study suggests that special attention should be given to learners at lower secondary levels because they not only lack

linguistic proficiency with a limited use of online/multimedia resources, but teachers at higher levels of secondary schools seem to expect learners to have already learnt pragmatics aspects of language (*e.g.*, politeness) in lower secondary schools.

In general, pragmatic instruction seeks to trigger ILP development via rich input and noticing of particular pragmatic aspects which can be accomplished through a range of grammatical structures unless they are treated as grammatical rules. Other teaching strategies which can potentially contribute in pragmatic instruction include the provision of immediate feedback to learners, encouraging spontaneous learner participation, placing emphasis on speaking English during class activities, focusing on meaning before form, and drawing learners' attention to features of context and use of language (Siddiqa, 2016).

Concerning the choice of methodology, the triangulation of multiple methods in this study revealed several developmental patterns which might not have been possible by means of one method only. For instance, the use of the COPT and role plays displayed learners' knowledge (to various degrees) about realization of L2 requests, but authentic data depicted the actual realization of requests. Compared to elicited data, learners may or may not display the extent of their pragmatic knowledge in authentic requests due to several potential constraints. Among elicitation methods employed in this study, role plays were found to be on the mid-point between the COPT and authentic data. Major differences between role plays and COPT consisted of frequency of various pragmalinguistic elements whereas major differences between role plays and authentic data comprised of the choice of several pragmalinguistic elements. This study suggests a use of multiple methods in ILP research to eliminate task effects on findings and increasing the generalisability of results.

Overall, the results of this study suggest that learners in France do show a measure of L2

pragmatic development as they move through the secondary school EFL programme. However, due to limited opportunities to learn L2 pragmatic skills in classrooms, their pragmalinguistic repertoire and sociopragmatic competence remained relatively restricted. This result may not be surprising to those familiar with this teaching and learning context, but this study provides clear evidence beyond anecdotal impressions. These findings are not encouraging, especially for school leavers who may be expected to come into contact with a variety of English speakers (native or non-native) in the course of their personal lives and/or professional careers. Given their command of lexico-grammatical aspects of English L2, they might be expected to conform more closely to behavioural and sociolinguistic norms of the second language, since any violations in this regard can lead to misunderstandings and disruptions in communication.

Therefore, based on the insights gained in this study, it is suggested that explicit/implicit metapragmatic instruction should be included in pedagogical practice along with other linguistic elements (e.g., grammar, lexicon). Concerning the ways to incorporate L2 pragmatic instruction into existing syllabus, this study has also explored ways in which teachers can create learning conditions which can contribute to developing learners' L2 pragmatic skills in classroom settings. This study has shown L2 teachers' keen interest in teaching L2 pragmatics, even though they might be held back from doing so by lack of knowledge/training, teaching materials, or relevance of pragmatic competence in final examinations. In line with previous ILP research, thus, this study suggests that L2 pragmatic competence should be given more importance in teaching programmes and assessment. It is hoped if this study can highlight the importance of interlanguage pragmatic development, and the work which can and should be undertaken in this domain, then it may serve a useful purpose.

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Appendices

Appendix 1. Cloze Test

Name: _____ **Class / Level:** _____

English children have two hours of sport at school every week. The English national sport _____ cricket. They like to _____ cricket in summer, from _____ to September. Rugby is _____ popular game in England. _____ mostly play it in _____. But now in some _____ in England, rugby is _____ played in summer. This _____ started there in 1823. _____ the most popular sport _____ the UK is football. _____ has been played in _____ schools since 1581. The _____ people like to play _____ from August to May. _____ is known in the _____ and other countries as _____.

Other sports like swimming, _____ and gymnastics are good _____ kids. Indeed, the children _____ practice them are usually _____, active and healthy. That _____ why many parents want _____ kids to play soccer _____ a week, take gymnastics _____ school or have tennis _____ every weekend. But do _____ really get exercise? Probably _____, because many kids do _____ move around a lot _____ even break a sweat _____ organized sports. The problem _____ that many sports programs _____ too many kids to _____ up but they do _____ have enough coaches to _____ attention to everyone. That _____ why parents should look _____ sports programs with a _____ number of participants. But _____ themselves should also take _____ time out to play _____ their kids.

Great Britain _____ its national teams to _____ Olympics. These sportsmen get _____ basic training in schools. _____ is considered that the _____ schools give better training _____ sports than the state _____. Up to the age _____ 16, most of the _____ in the UK go _____ state schools. But this _____ not reflected among gold _____ winning Olympians. According to _____ Schools Guide report, in _____ last Olympic Games, 12 _____ of 41 gold medal _____ attended private school. That _____ about 29%.

According to _____ medical reports, more and _____ athletes are taking steroids _____ in the UK. It _____ really shocking. They are _____ supposed to do this _____ it is dangerous for _____ health and it is _____ as well. Since their _____ in the 1950s to _____ medical conditions such as _____ and other diseases, steroids _____ been misused to enhance _____ performance. Until recently, most _____ obtained through fraudulent prescriptions, _____ up on the black _____. Although it is not _____ to possess steroids in _____ UK at present, it _____ an offence to supply _____ to others. Penalties for supplying are the same as those for supplying class B drugs.

Appendix 2. Demographic Questionnaire (French version)

Nom: _____ Classe/Niveau: _____
 Sexe: ☐ garçon ☐ Fille Année de naissance: _____
 Nom de Collège ou Lycée: _____

Veillez répondre aux questions suivantes:

1. Étaient vous né en France? ☐ OUI ☐ NON

Si non:

- Veuillez indiquer le pays / lieu de votre naissance. _____
- En quelle année avez-vous déménagé en France? _____

2. En quelle année d'étude avez-vous commencé à apprendre l'anglais? _____

3. Pour combien d'années avez-vous appris l'anglais jusqu'à maintenant? _____

4. Quelles langues parlez-vous à la maison? (Cochez tout ce qui s'applique)

☐ Français ☐ Anglais ☐ Arabe ☐ Italien ☐ autre: _____

5. Quelle langue utilisez-vous à la maison plus souvent que les autres? Réponse: _____

6. Vos parents sont des anglophones?

☐ Oui, L'un d'eux ☐ Oui, les deux ☐ Non, aucun d'entre eux

7. En moyenne, combien d'heures avez-vous regarder des films anglais, séries?

☐ Pas du tout ☐ Moins d'une heure ☐ 1 heure ☐ 2 heures ☐ autre: _____ heures

8. Avez-vous lu les romans anglais, des articles de journaux, des blogs, etc.?

☐ très souvent ☐ parfois ☐ pas du tout

9. Où et quand avez-vous parlé en anglais?

☐ à l'école ☐ chez vous ☐ avec des amis ☐ autre: _____

10. Qui vous aide à pratiquer votre anglais?

☐ Parents ☐ les frères et sœurs ☐ domestique assistant (e) ☐ Assistant de langue à l'école
☐ Enseignant ☐ Ami anglais parlant ☐ autre: _____

11. Avez-vous déjà visité ou vécu dans un pays anglophone? ☐ Oui ☐ Non

Si oui:

- Quel pays? _____
- Combien de temps vous-y-êtes resté? _____

Appendix 3. Exemplar Generation Questionnaire (English version)

Making a request in our daily life is very common. We make a lot of requests to our classmates, our friends, teachers or other people almost every day. Write down some of the requests that you usually make or the requests that you have seen other people making in your school.

For example:

- I asked my classmate to give me a pencil/pen.
- My friend asked the teacher to repeat the sentence.
- I asked my friend to give me his bicycle.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____

Appendix 4. Metapragmatic Assessment Questionnaire A (English version)

Instructions: Read the description of situations (1)–(40), then indicate whether you think each situation could really happen by circling ‘YES’ or ‘NO’.

-
- | | | |
|---|-----|----|
| 1. Alex asked his teacher to go to the toilet. | YES | NO |
| 2. Alex asked his teacher to have a pause during the class. | YES | NO |
| 3. Alex asked his teacher to translate a French word into English. | YES | NO |
| 4. Alex asked his teacher to delay the evaluation/ contrôle until next week. | YES | NO |
| 5. Alex asked his teacher to delay the test until later that day. | YES | NO |
| 6. Alex asked his teacher to repeat what she/he said. | YES | NO |
| 7. Alex asked his teacher to explain the instruction for the exercise again. | YES | NO |
| 8. Alex asked his teacher to revise a part the lesson. | YES | NO |
| 9. Alex asked his teacher to give him the homework for the next class. | YES | NO |
| 10. Alex asked the teacher to finish the class early. | YES | NO |
| 11. Alex asked the teacher to let him have the speaking turn. | YES | NO |
| 12. Alex asked the teacher to allow him to go out of the class for a while. | YES | NO |
| 13. Alex asked the teacher to tell him the answers of the questions in an exercise. | YES | NO |
| 14. Alex asked the teacher to give him the questionnaire. | YES | NO |
| 15. Alex asked the teacher to let him take the quiz again. | YES | NO |
| 16. Alex asked the teacher to let him go to the bin. | YES | NO |
| 17. Alex asked the teacher to let him clean the board. | YES | NO |
| 18. Alex asked the teacher to return the contrôle. | YES | NO |
| 19. Alex asked the teacher to let him write the date on the board. | YES | NO |
| 20. Alex asked the teacher to change the date and time of the next class. | YES | NO |
| 21. Alex asked the teacher to let him go to the infirmary. | YES | NO |
| 22. Alex asked the teacher to let his classmate to accompany him to the infirmary. | YES | NO |
| 23. Alex asked the teacher to let him read. | YES | NO |
| 24. Alex asked the teacher to let him go to the board to have his turn to speak. | YES | NO |
| 25. Alex asked the teacher to let him to go to bring his notebook from the locker. | YES | NO |
| 26. Alex asked the teacher to open the blinds. | YES | NO |
| 27. Alex asked the teacher to open the window. | YES | NO |
| 28. Alex asked the teacher to allow her to leave her bag in the classroom during the recess period. | YES | NO |
| 29. Alex asked the teacher to allow him to open the door. | YES | NO |
| 30. Alex asked the teacher to lend him a pen. | YES | NO |
| 31. Alex asked the teacher to play the video again for evaluation. | YES | NO |

32. Alex asked the teacher to correct his exercise.	YES	NO
33. Alex asked the teacher to give him a tissue paper/Kleenex.	YES	NO
34. Alex asked the teacher to open the door.	YES	NO
35. Alex asked the teacher to turn in home work late.	YES	NO
36. Alex asked the teacher to write the homework again on the board.		
37. Alex asked the teacher to move to the left so that he can see the board.	YES	NO
38. Alex asked the teacher to explain the lesson again as he did not understand.	YES	NO
39. Alex asked the teacher permission to go to drink water.	YES	NO
40. Alex asked the teacher to switch on the light.	YES	NO

Appendix 5. Metapragmatic Assessment Questionnaire B (English version)

Instructions: Read the description of situations (1)–(45), then indicate whether you think each situation could really happen by circling ‘YES’ or ‘NO’.

1. Alex asked his classmate to lend him a sheet of paper.	YES	NO
2. Alex asked his classmate to lend him a book.	YES	NO
3. Alex asked his classmate to help him do his homework.	YES	NO
4. Alex asked his classmate to drive him home.	YES	NO
5. Alex asked his classmate to lend him a pencil.	YES	NO
6. Alex asked his classmate to lend him an eraser.	YES	NO
7. Alex asked his classmate to lend him a ruler.	YES	NO
8. Alex asked his classmate to accompany him for lunch.	YES	NO
9. Alex asked his classmate to lend him a pen.	YES	NO
10. Alex asked his classmate to give him his/her phone number.	YES	NO
11. Alex asked his classmate to be quiet during the teacher’s lecture.	YES	NO
12. Alex asked his classmate to lend him his/her phone to make a call.	YES	NO
13. Alex asked his classmate to help him find his book.	YES	NO
14. Alex asked his classmate to go with him for skiing.	YES	NO
15. Alex asked his classmate to inform the school about his absence that day.	YES	NO
16. Alex asked his classmate to lend him glue.	YES	NO
17. Alex asked his classmate to lend him a bicycle.	YES	NO
18. Alex asked his classmate to wait for him for some time.	YES	NO
19. Alex asked his classmate to help him carry his books.	YES	NO
20. Alex asked his classmate to lend him a correction fluid.	YES	NO
21. Alex asked his classmate to give some water.	YES	NO
22. Alex asked his classmate to tell him the answers of the questions during a contrôle.	YES	NO
23. Alex asked his classmate to lend him a mobile phone charger.	YES	NO

24. Alex asked his classmate to play football with him.	YES	NO
25. Alex asked his classmate to go for running with him.	YES	NO
26. Alex asked his classmate to exchange his pen with her/his pencil.	YES	NO
27. Alex asked his classmate to move his head a little so that he can have a look on the board.	YES	NO
28. Alex asked his classmate to give him a paper towel.	YES	NO
29. Alex asked his classmate to lend him his yesterday's notes as he was absent.	YES	NO
30. Alex asked his classmate to close the door.	YES	NO
31. Alex asked his classmate to come to his home to do the homework together.	YES	NO
32. Alex asked his classmate to lend him some money.	YES	NO
33. Alex asked his classmate to give him a candy or a chocolate.	YES	NO
34. Alex asked his classmate to lend him a set square .	YES	NO
35. Alex asked his classmate to lend him a tablet.	YES	NO
36. Alex asked his classmate to explain the exercise to him.	YES	NO
37. Alex asked his classmate to accompany him to the infirmary.	YES	NO
38. Alex asked his classmate to lend him a CD.	YES	NO
39. Alex asked his classmate to lend him a computer.	YES	NO
40. Alex asked his classmate to lend him a video game.	YES	NO
41. Alex asked his classmate to accompany him to cinema.	YES	NO
42. Alex asked his classmate to repeat what he said.	YES	NO
43. Alex asked his classmate to give him a cigarette.	YES	NO
44. Alex asked his classmate to give him scissors.	YES	NO
45. Alex asked his classmate to give him something to eat.	YES	NO

Appendix 6. Cartoon Oral Production Task (Group A, French version)

Nom: _____

Classe: _____

Nom de l'école _____

Sexe : Garçon / Fille

Nombre de l' iPod: _____

Instructions:

Le personnage principal dans tous les scénarios est Alex. Alex est une fille dans la moitié des cas et un garçon dans l'autre moitié. Alex est né en France mais il / elle a déménagé à États-Unis à un jeune âge. Maintenant, il / elle va à l'école aux Etats-Unis et parle anglais. Il y a douze situations ci-dessous où Alex demande quelque chose à son enseignant ou à un camarade de classe. Vous devez penser ce que Alex dirait dans chaque situation. Après, faire des enregistrements sur l'iPod et les enregistrer sur l'iPod.

Il est obligatoire de parler en anglais. Vous avez 90 secondes (1 minute et demie) pour terminer chaque situation. Si vous ne savez pas ce que Alex dirait dans une situation, vous pouvez simplement indiquer le numéro de la situation et dire que vous ne savez pas et l'enregistrer ensuite. Après cela, attendez le signal des enseignants pour la situation suivante.



1. Alex demande à son camarade de classe de lui prêter une feuille.



2. Alex demande à l'enseignante de traduire un mot (glace) Français en Anglais.



3. Alex demande à l'enseignante de reporter le contrôle à la semaine suivante.



4. Alex demande à son camarade d'informer l'école de son absence ce jour-là.



6. Alex demande à l'enseignante l'autorisation d'aller aux toilettes.



7. Alex demande à son camarade de classe de déplacer sa tête pour lui permettre de voir le tableau.



8. Alex demande à l'enseignante d'expliquer la leçon qu'elle n'a pas compris.



10. Alex demande à son camarade de lui prêter de l'argent.



11. Alex demande à l'enseignante de se déplacer à gauche.



12. Alex demande à sa camarade de classe de lui expliquer l'exercice.

Appendix 7. Cartoon Oral Production (Group B, French version)

Nom: _____

Classe: _____

Nom de l'école _____ Sexe : Garçon / Fille

Nombre de l' iPod: _____

Instructions

Le personnage principal dans tous les scénarios est Alex. Alex est une fille dans la moitié des cas et un garçon dans l'autre moitié. Alex est né en France mais il / elle a déménagé à États-Unis à un jeune âge. Maintenant, il / elle va à l'école aux États-Unis et parle anglais. Il y a douze situations ci-dessous où Alex demande quelque chose à son enseignant ou à un camarade de classe. Vous devez penser ce que Alex dirait dans chaque situation. Après, faire des enregistrements sur l'iPod et les enregistrer sur l'iPod.

Il est obligatoire de parler en anglais. Vous avez 90 secondes (1 minute et demie) pour terminer chaque situation. Si vous ne savez pas ce que Alex dirait dans une situation, vous pouvez simplement indiquer le numéro de la situation et dire que vous ne savez pas et l'enregistrer ensuite. Après cela, attendez le signal des enseignants pour la situation suivante.



1. Alex demande à l'enseignante de répéter sa dernière phrase.



2. Alex demande un mouchoir à sa camarade de classe.



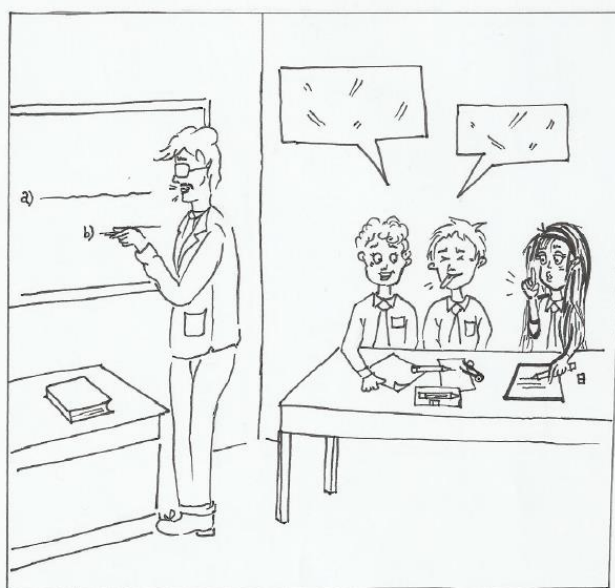
4. Alex demande à l'enseignante l'autorisation d'aller jeter des papiers à la corbeille.



5. Alex demande à son camarade les réponses des questions lors d'un contrôle.



6. Alex demande à l'enseignante l'autorisation d'aller à l'infirmerie.



7. Alex demande à ses camarades de classe de se calmer pendant le cours.



8. Alex demande à sa camarade de classe de lui prêter ses notes d'hier parce qu'elle était absent.



10. Alex demande à l'enseignante d'ouvrir la fenêtre.



11. Alex demande à son camarade de classe de l'accompagner à l'infirmerie.



12. Alex demande à l'enseignante de repasser la vidéo pour l'évaluation.

Appendix 8. Role play Questionnaire (Group A, French version)

Nom: _____

Classe: _____

Nom de l'école _____

Sexe : Garçon / Fille

Instructions

Le personnage principal dans tous les scénarios est Alex. Alex est une fille dans la moitié des cas et un garçon dans l'autre moitié. Alex est né en France mais il / elle a déménagé à États-Unis à un jeune âge. Maintenant, il / elle va à l'école aux États-Unis et parle anglais. Il y a douze situations ci-dessous où Alex demande quelque chose à son enseignant ou à un camarade de classe. Vous devez penser ce que Alex dirait dans chaque situation. Après, faire des enregistrements sur l'iPod et les enregistrer sur l'iPod.

Il est obligatoire de parler en anglais. Vous avez 90 secondes (1 minute et demie) pour terminer chaque situation. Si vous ne savez pas ce que Alex dirait dans une situation, vous pouvez simplement indiquer le numéro de la situation et dire que vous ne savez pas et l'enregistrer ensuite. Après cela, attendez le signal des enseignants pour la situation suivante.



1. Alex demande à l'enseignante de répéter sa dernière phrase.



8. Alex demande à sa camarade de classe de lui prêter ses notes d'hier parce qu'elle était absent.



11. Alex demande à son camarade de classe de l'accompagner à l'infirmerie.



12. Alex demande à l'enseignante de repasser la vidéo pour l'évaluation.

Appendix 9. Role play questionnaire (Group B, French version)

Nom: _____

Classe: _____

Nom de l'école _____ Sexe : Garçon / Fille

Instructions:

Le personnage principal dans tous les scénarios est Alex. Alex est une fille dans la moitié des cas et un garçon dans l'autre moitié. Alex est né en France mais il / elle a déménagé à États-Unis à un jeune âge. Maintenant, il / elle va à l'école aux Etats-Unis et parle anglais. Il y a douze situations ci-dessous où Alex demande quelque chose à son enseignant ou à un camarade de classe. Vous devez penser ce que Alex dirait dans chaque situation. Après, faire des enregistrements sur l'iPod et les enregistrer sur l'iPod.

Il est obligatoire de parler en anglais. Vous avez 90 secondes (1 minute et demie) pour terminer chaque situation. Si vous ne savez pas ce que Alex dirait dans une situation, vous pouvez simplement indiquer le numéro de la situation et dire que vous ne savez pas et l'enregistrer ensuite. Après cela, attendez le signal des enseignants pour la situation suivante.



3. Alex demande à l'enseignante de reporter le contrôle à la semaine suivante.



12. Alex demande à sa camarade de classe de lui expliquer l'exercice.



8. Alex demande à l'enseignante d'expliquer la leçon qu'elle n'a pas compris.



10. Alex demande à son camarade de lui prêter de l'argent.

Appendix 10. Classroom film protocol (Permission letters for teachers, French version)



LETTRE D'INFORMATION AUX ENSEIGNANTS

Cher, chère professeur,

Nous aimerions vous inviter à prendre part à un projet de recherche qui nécessite votre collaboration et votre engagement ainsi que celui des élèves. Le but de cette recherche est d'identifier certaines difficultés dans l'apprentissage de l'anglais et de découvrir comment obtenir de meilleurs résultats. Ce projet fait partie du travail de doctorat d'une étudiante de l'Université de Nice Sophia Antipolis, **Aïsha Siddiqa**. Il est financé par « Erasmus Mundus Mobilité avec l'Asie » (EMMA), et centré sur le déroulement des activités en classe d'anglais et sur les manuels scolaires utilisés par les professeurs. Les objectifs de la recherche sont les suivants :

- Identifier de quelle façon les activités menées en classe contribuent à l'apprentissage de la pragmatique de l'anglais.
- Découvrir si les manuels scolaires et les activités dans classes fournissent un apport suffisant pour favoriser l'acquisition de la composante pragmatique de l'anglais par les élèves.

Enregistrement des données

- Cette recherche sera réalisée à partir de données recueillies auprès d'élèves de trois niveaux – 6ème, 3ème et terminale – et auprès des professeurs de chaque classe.
- D'abord, nous allons recourir à deux tests destinés aux élèves. Le premier est appelé "*cloze test*" (test lacunaire) et le second '*Cartoon Oral Production Task*' (tâche de production orale à partir d'images-support). Pour le second test, la réaction des élèves sera enregistrée (enregistrement audio seulement). Ces deux phases de collecte de données sont d'une durée totale de 45 à 60 minutes.
- Nous allons effectuer l'enregistrement vidéo de 3 cours d'anglais par l'enseignant. Les enseignants sont libres de choisir la leçon qu'ils acceptent de voir enregistrée. Ils

seront invités à choisir les trois classes dont les élèves ont la participation la plus active et la plus productive.

- Nous allons demander le consentement officiel des élèves concernés et de leurs parents (cf. formulaires joints).
- Après la phase de déroulement des entretiens, nous allons demander à six élèves volontaires de participer à des jeux de rôle. Ces jeux de rôle seront effectués après la fin de la classe. Les élèves seront en binôme et les jeux de rôle dureront entre 10 et 15 minutes pour chaque binôme d'élèves.
- Nous estimons à 3-4 heures la durée totale de participation à ce travail de recherche, et la répartition des séances dépendra de la disponibilité de chaque professeur entre février 2015 et juin 2015.

FORMULAIRE D'AUTORISATION

Nom, prénom du participant : _____

Responsables de projet : Aisha Siddiqa (Chercheur)

Shona Whyte (Directrice de recherche)

Jean-Marie Merle (Directeur de recherche)

Veillez signifier votre accord aux points ci-dessous en cochant la case correspondante :

1	Je confirme avoir lu la lettre d'information sur le projet de recherche et je dispose d'un moyen de contacter l'équipe de recherche.	
2	Je confirme ma participation à une journée de formation sur les questionnaires à donner aux élèves.	
3	Je donne mon accord pour filmer trois séances de cours.	
4	Je prends note du fait que ma participation est volontaire et peut être interrompue à tout moment.	
5	Je permets aux élèves de participer aux jeux de rôles après la fin de la classe	

Signature de l'enseignant(e) :

Date :

Signature du responsable de projet :

Date :

Appendix 11. Permission letter for learners for participation in the study (French version)



FORMULAIRE D'AUTORISATION AUX ÉLÈVES

Nous travaillons sur un projet de recherche qui étudie la façon dont les élèves et les étudiants français apprennent la pragmatique de la politesse en anglais à l'école et à l'université. Ce projet vise à identifier les difficultés rencontrées et à découvrir comment les surmonter.

Votre établissement fait partie d'une liste d'établissements (écoles, collèges, lycées et universités) sélectionnés avec l'approbation de leur direction. Votre professeur fait partie d'une dizaine d'enseignants de l'Académie de Nice qui participent au projet.

Nous allons filmer trois séances d'anglais dans votre classe. Nous vous donnerons ensuite des questionnaires à remplir et nous vous demanderons de participer à un jeu de rôle. Il ne s'agit ni d'un contrôle de connaissances, ni d'une évaluation de l'enseignant ; nous voulons simplement avoir votre avis sur la séance. Les élèves peuvent poser des questions au sujet du projet à tout moment et ont également la possibilité de se retirer du projet.

(Entourer une seule réponse)

Je voudrais participer au projet : OUI | NON

Je suis d'accord pour que des séances d'anglais soient enregistrées : OUI | NON

Je suis d'accord pour vous parler après la séance avec d'autres élèves de ma classe et d'accord pour que la rencontre soit enregistrée : OUI | NON

Je comprends que je peux choisir de sortir du projet à tout moment : OUI | NON

Nom de l'élève : _____

Signature de l'élève :

Date :

Signature du chercheur :

Date:

Appendix 12: Permission letter for principles of schools



LETTRE D'INFORMATION AUX CHEFS D'ÉTABLISSEMENT

Monsieur le Principal / Madame la Principale/ Monsieur le Proviseur/ Madame la Proviseur,

Nous aimerions inviter votre institution à prendre part à un projet de recherche qui nécessite la collaboration et l'engagement de vos professeurs d'anglais et des élèves. Le but de cette recherche est d'identifier certaines difficultés dans l'apprentissage de l'anglais et de découvrir comment obtenir de meilleurs résultats. Nous vous prions de bien vouloir lire cette lettre d'information qui vous donnera un aperçu assez complet de ce projet de recherche.

Tire du projet de thèse :

La politesse dans un contexte d'apprentissage, par des francophones, de l'anglais langue étrangère : enjeux pragmatiques, interlangue et acquisition de stratégies.

Définition du projet de recherche

Ce projet fait partie du travail de doctorat d'une étudiante de l'Université de Nice Sophia Antipolis, **Aïsha Siddiqa**. Il est financé par « Erasmus Mundus Mobilité avec l'Asie » (EMMA), et centré sur le déroulement des activités en classe d'anglais et sur les manuels scolaires utilisés par les professeurs. Plus précisément, l'étude porte sur l'apprentissage par les élèves de la pragmatique anglaise – c'est-à-dire de cette composante de la langue qui correspond à la fonction de communication, composante difficile à saisir parce qu'elle est propre à l'activité linguistique de chaque langue, et qu'elle échappe à la traduction. Cette étude s'intéresse plus particulièrement à 3 niveaux, 6ème, 3ème et classe terminale.

Les objectifs de la recherche sont les suivants :

- Identifier de quelle façon les activités menées en classe contribuent à l'apprentissage de la pragmatique de l'anglais, et plus particulièrement de la pragmatique de la politesse.

- Vérifier si les élèves savent tirer parti de l'apprentissage de la pragmatique propre à l'anglais.
- Découvrir si les manuels scolaires fournissent un apport suffisant pour favoriser l'acquisition de la composante pragmatique de l'anglais par les élèves, et pour en faciliter l'utilisation.

Enregistrement des données

- Cette recherche sera réalisée à partir de données recueillies auprès d'élèves de trois niveaux – 6ème, 3ème et terminale – et auprès des professeurs de chaque classe.
- D'abord, nous allons recourir à deux tests destinés aux élèves. Le premier est appelé "*cloze test*" (test lacunaire) et le second '*Cartoon Oral Production Task*' (tâche de production orale à partir d'images-support). Pour le second test, la réaction des élèves sera enregistrée (enregistrement audio seulement). Ces deux phases de collecte de données sont d'une durée totale de 45 à 60 minutes.
- Nous allons effectuer l'enregistrement vidéo de 3 cours d'anglais par l'enseignant. Les enseignants sont libres de choisir la leçon qu'ils acceptent de voir enregistrée. Ils seront invités à choisir les trois classes dont les élèves ont la participation la plus active et la plus productive.
- Nous allons demander le consentement officiel des élèves concernés et de leurs parents (cf. formulaires joints).
- Après la phase de déroulement des entretiens, nous allons demander à six élèves volontaires de participer à des jeux de rôle. Ces jeux de rôle seront effectués après la fin de la classe. Les élèves seront en binôme et les jeux de rôle dureront entre 10 et 15 minutes pour chaque binôme d'élèves.
- Nous estimons à 3-4 heures la durée totale de participation à ce travail de recherche, et la répartition des séances dépendra de la disponibilité des professeurs entre février 2015 et juin 2015.

Votre participation

Votre établissement fait partie d'une liste de collèges et de lycées sélectionnés, dont la direction a donné son accord pour que soit menée cette étude.

Possibilité de retrait

Les participants peuvent à tout moment mettre un terme à leur participation en prenant contact avec nous (cf. coordonnées ci-dessous) ; dans ce cas toutes leurs données seront retirées du projet.

Intérêt de cette étude

- Ce projet permettra d'identifier les difficultés rencontrées par les élèves français dans l'apprentissage de la pragmatique de l'anglais. Les enseignants et les élèves auront connaissance des résultats de la recherche.
- Si vous le souhaitez, à la fin du projet, nous pouvons organiser une présentation des résultats pour tous les enseignants de langue de votre établissement.
- Par le biais des discussions sur les séquences vidéo, les enseignants obtiennent des indications utiles sur l'apprentissage des langues et sur la manière d'enseigner.

Confidentialité et protection de la vie privée

La participation de votre établissement ne comporte aucun risque :

- dans le cadre de publications universitaires, l'identité des participants et celle de votre établissement ne seront pas précisées.
- Lors des séances d'enregistrement, la caméra sera positionnée de manière à visualiser la classe.
- Dans les publications écrites l'identité des participants sera protégée par un pseudonyme ou par une référence codée.

Coordonnées de l'équipe

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 Université de Nice Sophia-Antipolis
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 06 05 50 45 13



FORMULAIRE D'AUTORISATION

Nom, prénom du chef d'établissement :

Responsables de projet : Aisha Siddiqa (Chercheur)

Shona Whyte (Directrice de recherche)

Jean-Marie Merle (Directeur de recherche)

Veuillez signifier votre accord sur les points ci-dessous en cochant la case correspondante :

1	Je confirme avoir lu la lettre d'information sur le projet de recherche et je dispose d'un moyen de contacter l'équipe de recherche.	
2	J'autorise l'accès à l'établissement. J'accepte que les chercheurs mènent leurs observations et leurs enquêtes auprès des enseignants et des apprenants comme il est mentionné dans la lettre d'information et que les séquences soient enregistrées.	
3	Je comprends que la participation de mon établissement scolaire est volontaire et qu'une rétractation est possible à tout moment.	

Signature du chef d'établissement :

Date :

Signature du responsable de projet :

Date :

Appendix 13. Post-project Interview Questions

Please state the following:

Name: _____

School/institute name: _____

Second language (s) you teach: _____

Country: _____

Please circle the relevant responses to the following:

Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐

Education Sector: Lower secondary (*collège*) Upper secondary (*lycée*)

Age (Years): 20-24 25-30 31-34 35-40 41-44 45-50 51+

Number of years teaching 0-5 6-10 11-14 15-20 21-24 25+

- Where did you get your teaching training?

Response:

- Do you have any experience teaching abroad? Yes ☐ No ☐

- If yes, how long did you teach there and which levels did you teach?

Response:

Appendix 14: Semi-structured teacher interviews: video stimulated questions

Section A: Specific questions about classroom observations

- Can you explain why you chose these 3 activities?
- Would you characterize the activities you chose as *speaking activities*?
 - [If yes] Would you say these activities represent your *best speaking activities* in classroom?
- Are these activities a good example of what you usually do in class? Do these activities represent your normal classroom?
- What strategies of second language teaching did you use for these activities?
 - How do you think these activities help the pupils learn English?
 - Do you have a particular method of English language teaching? (e.g. *Approche actionnelle*?)
- Did my presence in the classroom affect you or the pupils in any way? Did this change over time?
- Did you experience any difficulties in planning speaking activities for this research? Do you have any comments or suggestions for future studies?

Section B: Some general questions

- Have you had any specific training in teaching second language pragmatics in the classroom?
- Do you use authentic materials in the classroom activities?
- Do you use textbooks in the classroom? Do you find them useful?

Appendix 15. Summary of activities used by teachers at level 1 during classroom filming

Teacher code	Filming session	Activities	Type	Specific Objectives	General focus
L1_A	1st	1. Warming up	Speaking	Practicing questions, enhancing vocabulary	Grammar, lexis
		2. Correction of exercises on personal pronouns	Writing	Learning personal pronouns	Grammar, lexis
		3. Picture description: Picture of a family dinner talk	Listening, speaking, writing	Learning adjectives, practicing listening and speaking	Lexis
		4. Writing and speaking exercise: writing few sentences about the picture and sharing them with class	Writing, Speaking	Practicing the use of adjectives	Lexis, grammar
	2nd	1. Warming up	Speaking	Practicing questions, enhancing vocabulary	Lexis, grammar
		2. Role play: reading aloud the transcription of dialogues in groups	Speaking	Pronunciation	Grammar, lexis
		3. Exercises on prepositions	Writing, Speaking	Learning prepositions	Grammar
		4. Exercises on facts, events, opinions, feelings	Writing, Speaking	Practicing the use of adjectives	Grammar, lexis
	3rd	1. Warming up	Speaking	Practicing questions, enhancing vocabulary	Lexis, grammar
		2. Fairytales: Pair work for filling in the blanks in a text (a fairytale) using several possible vocabulary choices provided in the textbook.	Writing	Learning adjectives	Lexis, grammar
L1_B	1st	1. Picture description: Picture of Simpsons family	Speaking, writing	Learnings names of colours and pieces of clothing	Lexis

		2. Writing exercise: Writing few sentences about the clothes the pupils themselves are wearing.	Writing	Learning the use of "I have" structure, practicing the names of colours and pieces of clothing	Grammar, lexis
		3. Guessing game: self-descriptions cards (activity 2) are used in this activity to guess who the card belongs to	Speaking	Practicing the names of colours and clothes	Lexis
	2nd	1. Monster drawing with description: teacher gives directions for drawings and the pupils draw the monster	Listening, drawing	Practicing "I have" structure with the names of parts of body and pieces of clothing.	Grammar, lexis
		2. Monster drawing: Pair work. One pupil describes the monster using different monster cards and the other draws	Listening, speaking, drawing	Practicing "I have" structure, names of parts of body and pieces of clothing.	Grammar, lexis
		3. Reading activity: reading a "thank you" letter from the Queen of England for the pupils' Christmas card.	Reading	Learning vocabulary	Lexis, pragmatics
	3rd	1. Asking for directions: Using a map displayed on board, learners are asked to write directions from one location to another	Writing	Learning vocabulary for giving/following directions	Lexis
		2. Giving directions: Pair work. One pupil asks the other in French to give directions for a specific place on map and the other gives directions in English	Speaking	Learning vocabulary for giving/following directions	Lexis
		3. Guess who activity: a picture is displayed on board with several characters who are named after pupils' names. One pupil had to keep one character in mind and the rest of the class had to ask him/her questions and guess the pupil.	Speaking	Practicing using names of colours and pieces of clothing and "I have" structure	Lexis, grammar
	L1_C	1. Picture description: Picture of a house with	Speaking, writing	Learning vocabulary about house and household items	Lexis

		different rooms and items of furniture			
		2. Matching exercises on household vocabulary	Writing	Practicing vocabulary	Lexis
	2nd	1. YouTube video: Use of a tongue twister (In Hartford Hereford Hampshire hurricanes hardly ever happen)	Speaking	Correcting pronunciation of H sound	Pronunciation, vocabulary
		2. Correction of exercise on house-related vocabulary	Writing	Enhancing vocabulary	Lexis
		3. Picture description with the help of an audio document and written transcription: Picture of a group of people with various nationalities and colours is used in the guessing game.	Listening, reading, speaking	Learning vocabulary about physical appearances, colours, clothes	Lexis
		4. Writing exercise: Pupils had to write few sentences about one of the characters in the picture without any help.	Writing	Practicing vocabulary	Lexis
	3rd	1. Question answers about Ireland and Irish myths.	Speaking, writing	Learning about Irish culture and developing vocabulary	Lexis, culture
		2. Picture description: Picture of an elf is used. The pupils described the picture.	Speaking, writing	Practicing the names of colours, clothes, and other appearances	Lexis
	L1_D	1st	1. Warming up activity	Speaking	Practicing question answers
			2. Picture description with audio document: Picture of a family dinner with several characters	Listening, speaking	Learning adjectives for describing a day
			3. Exercise: Matching the audio document with a specific picture in the textbook	Listening	Improving vocabulary and listening skills
			4. Role play: written transcription of a dialogue is used in the activity in which several pupils read the dialogues	Reading	Improving vocabulary, comprehension, and pronunciation

		5. Exercise on pronunciation of different verbs	Writing, speaking	Improving pronunciation and vocabulary	Pronunciation, lexis
		6. Thumbs up or Thumbs down exercise based on an audio document	Listening	Improving listening and comprehension	Lexis
	2nd	1. Correction of a fill in the blanks exercise on past tense	Reading	Learning the use of past tense	Grammar
		2. Another fill in the blanks exercise in class	Reading, writing	Learning the use of past tense	Grammar
		3. Asking questions from classmates using past tense and the given vocabulary.	Speaking	Learning to make questions using past tense	Grammar
		4. Picture description with the help of an audio document	Listening and speaking	Improving vocabulary, and learning about famous places in L2 setting	Lexis, culture
		5. Exercise on making sentences using past tense with the help of given vocabulary clues	Speaking, writing	Practicing past tense and making use of new words	Lexis, grammar
	3rd	1. Writing task: Preparing a dialogue for an imaginary trip to London between two speakers and presenting it in front of class	Writing and speaking	Using past tense and vocabulary for a trip	Lexis, grammar
	L1_E	1. Brainstorming about fairy tails	Speaking, writing	Learning vocabulary about fairy tales	Lexis
		2. Correction of an exercise on past tense about a previous lesson	Reading	Learning the use of past tense	Grammar
		3. Matching pictures of fairy tales with the descriptions of different fairy tales	Reading	Learning about L2 fairy tales	Lexis, fiction
		4. Inventing one's own fairy tales (partly done in class)	Writing	Learning to write a fairy tale	Lexis, grammar, fiction
		1. Correction of a fill in the blanks exercise on past tense	Writing	Learning past tense	Grammar
		2. Picture description: Castle in England, discussion about the picture, teacher asks several questions and gives	Speaking, writing	Learning about famous places in L2 setting	Lexis, culture

		them information about the picture			
		3. Picture description 2: Picture of tower of London is displayed. Question answer session follows. Teacher gives notes on white board.	Speaking, writing	Learning about famous places in L2 setting	Lexis, culture

Appendix 16. Summary of activities used by teachers at level 2 during classroom filming

Teacher codes	Obs ⁴⁷ #	Type of input	Specific objectives	General focus	Skills promoted
L2A	1st obs	1. In the beginning of the lesson, a warming up presentation by a learner is given about a famous English personality. Later, different pupils ask the presenter several questions and then the teacher gives the pupil scores for his speaking and research performance.	Web quest: presentations on famous personalities	Vocabulary, grammar, culture	Speaking, listening, interacting
		2. The teacher shows a film trailer to learners. Later a discussion session follows based on the trailer involving spontaneous learner responses. Then, the teacher gave a handout to pupils containing several questions about the trailer they fill the handout together after discussion in class.	Learning information about segregation	Vocab, grammar, cultural information	speaking, listening
	2nd obs	1. Several learners delivered their presentations about famous people and places in L2 settings in this class. Later, classmates ask the presenter several questions and then the teacher gives pupils marks for their web-quest and speaking performance.	Web-quest: presentations about famous people in L2 setting	Vocab, grammar, culture	speaking, listening, pronunciation
	3rd obs	1. In the beginning of class, learners give presentations about famous people/places in L2 setting, a short discussion follows each presentation.	Web-quest: presentations about famous people in L2 setting	Vocab, grammar, culture	speaking, listening, pronunciation
		2. Later, several exercises (fill in the blanks, answer questions) are done based	Learning information	Vocab, grammar, culture	Speaking, writing, listening

⁴⁷ 'Obs #' stands for 'number of observation/filming session'

		on the information from the movie trailer from the previous class.	about segregation		
L2B	First obs	1. Several groups of learners give presentations about famous places in English countries. Following each presentation, a game called "Who wants to be a millionaire?" is played. Each presenter asks few questions about their presentation to make sure that their classmates have paid attention. The learner who answers the most questions wins.	Web quest: presentations on famous places in L2 setting	Vocabulary, grammar, culture	Speaking, Listening
	2nd obs	1. The teacher plays the beginning scene of a Harry Potter movie. Later, she asks pupils to read again the beginning scene of the corresponding Harry Potter novel. After reading the specified paragraphs, a discussion session followed comparing the movie and the novel. At the end, the teacher gives notes on board and the pupils copy in their notebooks.	Comparison of a movie with the corresponding novel	Vocabulary, grammar	listening, reading, spontaneous interaction
	3rd obs	1. There were two parts of this activity. First, pupils were given 20 minutes to formulate 20 questions: 10 about "identity" and "personality" and 10 about any other topic. After the first 20 minutes, pupils were asked to find a partner and ask questions from this partner for one minute. Then swap the partner after one minute and then ask the questions from another partner and so on. Finally, teacher gave them her notes based on grammar and vocabulary about the questions.	Question formulation	Grammar, vocabulary	Speaking, writing, listening
L2C	1st obs	1. Warming up: A few learners discuss in English what they read in the newspaper in the morning and then some of the details are written on board.	Spontaneous use of language	vocabulary, grammar, general knowledge	Speaking, listening
		2. Different Learners presentations re planned for this class as a speaking activity. Learners have been given a final task of the lesson to do a web-quest and find information about a famous personality in English culture. This information is shared with the class and the rest of the class takes notes on some handouts and these handouts are checked by the teacher and scored for learners' listening abilities.	Web quest: oral presentations	Vocabulary, grammar, culture	Speaking, listening

	2nd obs	1. In the second lesson, the teacher distributes a handout in which there are several songs and other information is given about "segregation in America". First, different pupils read different parts of the songs and other short paragraphs on the handout. Then, the teacher asks them several questions about the documents and the pupils try to answer and then the teacher gives them elaborate information about segregation. Meanwhile few volunteers come to board and write all the difficult vocabulary words from the texts and the teacher explains the meaning of the difficult words.	Exploring the information about segregation in America	Vocabulary, culture	Reading, speaking, listening
		2. In the second activity, the teacher plays two songs on YouTube, the same songs they have discussed earlier in class to elicit discussion in class.	Exploring the information about segregation in America	Vocabulary, culture	Listening, speaking
	3rd obs	1. The main activity in this class consisted of the discussion about the web-quest presentations which were given in a previous class. The teacher read learners filled handouts and figured that learners did not understand well when other learners presented their topics. She used the same handouts in this class, displayed the handout on board via projector. Learners had to fill the handout together in class using the information from the presentations from the previous class (e.g., the name of the famous presented, his/her date of birth, death, place of birth, reason for being famous etc.).	Discussion about famous personalities in L2 culture	Vocabulary, grammar, culture	Speaking /listening

Appendix 17. Summary of activities used by teachers at level 3 during classroom filming

Teacher codes	Obs #	Type of input	Specific objectives	General focus	Skills promoted
L3A	1st obs_1st hour	1. First, several questions based on a text document they read in a previous class were discussed. Questions triggered agreement	Short story	Vocabulary, grammar, implicit metapragmatic input	speaking, listening

		/disagreement between learners.		(agreeing / disagreeing)	
		2. Later the teacher asked pupils to work in groups on several other questions related to the short story they read in previous class.	Short story	Vocabulary, grammar, implicit metapragmatic input (agreeing / disagreeing)	speaking, listening, reading
		3. Some pair work is done next: The teacher distributes another document and asks pupils to read it and tell her what they think about the document and then make a summary of the text in pairs. In the end of the class, the teacher writes notes on board and pupils copy.	Text document	Vocabulary, grammar, implicit metapragmatic input (agreeing / disagreeing)	speaking, listening, reading
	1st obs- 2nd hour	1. Several questions based on a text document are discussed in groups. The pupils are told to agree/disagree about several claims of the document. Later, all groups share their thoughts about the ideas proposed in the document, and the other learners agree or disagree with them.	Text document	Vocabulary, grammar, implicit metapragmatic input (agreeing / disagreeing)	speaking, listening, reading
	2nd obs	1. The main activity in this class consists of a reading of a war story followed by a long answer-question session based on a handout containing several questions about the story.	Learning about war stories by English writers	Vocabulary, culture	reading, speaking, listening
L3B	1st ob	1. First, the exercises on using conditional sentences are done.	Use of conditional sentences	Grammar	writing

		2. An extract from a movie "Selma" is played followed by a discussion between teacher and pupils about the context of the movie: Jim-crow-laws and segregation issues for Black people in America. Later the notes are given to learners and they copy.	Learning American laws for black people in the past	Vocabulary, culture	listening, speaking, Writing
		3. The movie trailer is replayed and a fill-in-the blanks handout is distributed. Learners were divided in three groups who focus on three different people shown in the trailer. Later they write details about any piece of information or any dialogue they remember about the particular person on whom they were asked to focus. Later a discussion session follows between the teacher and learners.	Understanding quick authentic dialogues	Vocabulary, culture	listening, speaking, writing
	2nd obs	1. A vocabulary-based listening test is conducted using a movie song and a fill-in-the-blank handout.	Understanding quick lyrics	Vocabulary, culture	listening, writing
		2. Later, a discussion based on several questions about Jim-crow-laws follows. Later, the teacher writes notes and pupils copy in their notebooks.	Learning American laws for black people in the past	Vocabulary, culture	listening, speaking, writing
	3rd obs	1. Martin Luther King is given to learners who are divided into three groups. Each group has to work on specific sections of the speech. After a group work, a discussion session follows in which each group is asked several questions about the section of the	Learning Martin Luther King's speech	Vocabulary, culture, grammar (question formulation)	speaking, listening, reading, interpreting

		speech they worked on, in which both learners and the teacher participated.			
L3C	first obs	1. In the beginning of the lesson, the teacher played an audio document on advertising. Later, a discussion session follows between the teacher and the pupils (about 20 minutes). Then, the teacher gives notes and learners copy. In the end, the notes are further discussed between the teacher and learners.	Understanding audio documents	Culture, vocabulary	listening, speaking, writing
	2nd obs	1. Various pupils gave their presentations on several TV advertisements, the pupils first showed their ads and then explained all the information they collected on internet about the ads.	Web-quest: oral presentations	Vocabulary, grammar	Listening, speaking
	3rd obs	The remaining pupils from previous class gave their presentations in this class. After each presentation, a brief answer-question session followed between the presenters and the teacher.	Web-quest: oral presentations	Vocabulary, grammar	Listening, speaking
L3D	1st obs	1. The teacher writes a list of root words on board. She asks learners to suggest words which can be made using the root words (on board) adding certain prefixes and suffixes. After a new list of words is produced, learners are introduced with the meaning of the words in detail. Later the teacher writes further explanation about the words	Learning vocabulary about various apparatus and tools	Vocabulary	Speaking, writing

		on board and the pupils copy the notes.			
	2nd obs	1. In the beginning, the vocabulary items learnt in the previous class are repeated and learners are asked to use the words in sentences.	Countable nouns are discussed	Grammar, vocabulary	Speaking
		2. Later, some pupils give presentations based on their web-quest. After each presentation, the teacher asks several questions from learners about the terms/concepts used in the presentations.	Web-quest: oral presentations	Grammar, vocabulary	Speaking
	3rd obs	Several pupils gave presentations in this class that they prepared on several pre-defined topics followed by questions from the teacher.	Web-quest: oral presentations	Grammar, vocabulary	Speaking
L3E	1st obs	1. In the beginning, the adaptation of Sherlock Holms book into a movie is discussed between the the teacher and learners.	Understandin g differences between fiction and its adaption to movies	Vocabulary	Speaking, listening
		2. Later, an extract from the film “Dracula” is played. Learners are divided into different goupes who focus on different aspects of the movie extract: setting, sounds, atmosphere etc. After the extract is played, discussion follows focusing on the given topics. At the end, the teacher gives notes and leaners copy.		Vocabulary	Speaking, listening

	2nd obs	3. An extract from the "Dracula" book is read in class by all learners. Later, many questions based on the extract are discussed in class focusing on the story line, the fears of the character, setting etc. In the end notes are given to learners who copy in their notebooks.	Understanding many facets of fiction	Vocabulary	Reading, speaking, listening
	3rd obs	1. A film extract is watched in a previous class. Several questions related to the extract are discussed in this class by several groups: Storyline, the feelings and thoughts of different characters and the effect of science on the characters' life. In the end, the teacher gives notes and learners copy.	Understanding science fiction	Vocabulary, grammar	Listening, speaking

Tables

Appendix 18: Tables about textbook analysis

Appendix. Table. 1 Frequency of activities in L2 English textbooks at level 1

Level	Textbook	Total lessons / units (n)	Lessons / units analysed (n)	Average length of lessons (pages)	Tasks / activities (n)	Exercises (n)	Other (n)	Total (n)	Average activities per lesson /unit (n)	Approximate number of activities in the book
Level 1	Making friends	9	3	15	37	63	14	114	38.0	342
Level 1	Step in	8	3	16	49	12	6	67	22.3	178
Level 1	New Enjoy	14	6	9	48	19	14	81	13.5	193
Level 1	Connect	8	3	14	49	10	43	102	34	272
Level 1	Welcome	9	3	13	55	13	18	86	29	258

Appendix. Table. 2 Frequency of activities in L2 English textbooks at level 2

Level	Textbook	Total lessons / units (n)	Lessons / units analysed (n)	Average length of lessons (pages)	Tasks / activities (n)	Exercises (n)	Other (n)	Total (n)	Average of activities per lesson /unit (n)	Approximate number of activities in the book
Level 2	New Enjoy	10	5	11	49	23	30	102	20.4	204
Level 2	Join the team	8	3	15	51	33	27	111	37	296
Level 2	Connect	8	3	14	49	10	43	102	34	272
Level 2	Step in	8	3	14	69	15	33	117	39	312
Level 2	Welcome	9	3	13	55	13	18	86	28.6	258

Appendix. Table. 3 Frequency of activities in L2 English textbooks at level 3

Level	Textbook	Total lessons / units (n)	Lessons / units analysed (n)	Average length of lessons (pages)	Tasks / activities (n)	Exercises (n)	Other (n)	Total (n)	Average of activities per lesson /unit (n)	Approximate number of activities in the book
Level 3	Missions	8	2	22	62	37	37	136	68	544
Level 3	Full impact	9	2	18	60	21	24	105	52.5	472
Level 3	Password	9	2	19	54	20	11	85	42.5	382
Level 3	Project	8	2	18	35	22	16	73	36.5	292
Level 3	Meeting point	15	3	16	53	33	11	97	32	480

Appendix 19: L1 French data: Pragmalinguistic analysis

Request perspective

Appendix. Table. 4 Distribution of request perspective in French COPT per request by level

Request Perspective: French COPT										
	HD	%	SD	%	H & S dominant	%	Impersonal	%	Total	%
Level 1	183	75%	50	21%	5	2%	5	2%	243	100%
Level 2	183	80%	37	16%	6	3%	3	1%	229	100%
Level 3	181	76%	49	20%	4	2%	5	2%	239	100%
Total	547	77%	136	19%	15	2%	13	2%	711	100%

Request strategy

Appendix. Table. 5 Frequency of request strategies in French COPT per request by level

L1 French COPT: Request Strategies								
	Direct requests	%	CI requests	%	NCI requests	%	Total	%
Level 1	24	10%	214	88%	5	2%	243	100%
Level 2	13	6%	216	94%	0	0%	229	100%
Level 3	11	4.6%	216	90.4%	12	5%	239	100%
Total	48	7%	646	91%	17	2%	711	100%

Internal modification

Appendix. Table. 6 Distribution of internal modifiers in French COPT data per request by level

	Lexical and Phrasal downgraders	%	Syntactic downgraders	%	Upgraders	%	Total requests
Level 1	153	63%	2	1%	2	1%	243
Level 2	167	73%	1	.4%	11	5%	229
Level 3	180	75%	15	6%	9	4%	239
Total	500	70%	18	3%	22	3%	711

Appendix. Table. 7 Distribution of lexical and phrasal downgraders into subcategories in French COPT per request by level

French COPT: Lexical and phrasal downgrader						
	Politeness markers	%	Understaters	%	Total lexical and phrasal downgraders	%
Level 1	149	97%	4	3%	153	100%
Level 2	166	99%	1	1%	167	100%
Level 3	173	96%	7	4%	180	100%
Total	488	98%	12	2%	500	100%

External modification

Appendix. Table. 8 Frequency of external modifiers in French COPT data per request sequence by level

External modifiers: French COPT					
	Alerters	%	Supportive moves	%	Total requests
Level 1	62	26%	59	24%	241
Level 2	143	63%	136	60%	227
Level 3	157	66%	114	60%	239

Modals

Appendix. Table. 9 Distribution of modals across conventionally indirect requests in French COPT by level

	<i>Pouvoir (Présent)</i>	%	<i>Pouvoir (Conditionnelle)</i>	%	Other structures	%	Total CI requests	%
Level 1	193	90.2%	16	7.5%	5	2.3%	214	100%
Level 3	164	76%	32	15%	20	9%	216	100%
Level 3	112	52%	77	36%	27	12%	216	100%

Appendix 20: L1 French data: Sociopragmatic analysis

Request perspective

Appendix. Table. 10 Distribution of request perspective by dominance in L1 data per request by level

L1 data: Request Perspective by dominance											
	Hearer's status	HD	%	SD	%	H & S dominant	%	Impersonal	%	Total head acts	%
Level 1	Higher	71	58.2%	44	36.1%	4	3.3%	3	2.4%	122	100%
	Equal	112	92%	6	5%	1	1%	2	2%	121	100%
Level 2	Higher	72	63%	36	31%	6	5%	1	1%	115	100%
	Equal	111	97%	1	1%	0	0%	2	2%	114	100%
Level 3	Higher	66	55%	48	40%	4	3%	2	2%	120	100%
	Equal	115	97%	1	1%	0	0%	3	2%	119	100%

Appendix. Table. 11 Distribution of request perspective by imposition in L1 data per request by level

Request Perspective by imposition: L1 data											
	Imposition	HD	%	SD	%	S & H dominant	%	Impersonal	%	Total head acts	%
Level 1	High	87	80%	14	12.8%	3	2.7%	5	4.5%	109	100%
	Low	96	72%	36	27%	2	1%	0	0%	134	100%
Level 2	High	92	87%	9	8%	4	4%	1	1%	106	100%
	Low	91	74%	28	22.8%	2	1.6%	2	1.6%	123	100%
Level 3	High	85	80%	14	13%	2	2%	5	5%	106	100%
	Low	96	72%	35	26%	2	2%	0	0%	133	100%

Request strategy

Appendix. Table. 12 Distribution of request strategies by dominance in L1 data per head act by level

L1 data: Request Strategies by dominance									
	Hearer's status	Direct	%	CI	%	NCI	%	Total head acts	%
Level 1	Higher	7	5.7%	113	92.7%	2	1.6%	122	100%
Level 1	Equal	17	14%	101	83.5%	3	2.5%	121	100%
Level 2	Higher	3	3%	112	97%	0	0%	115	100%
Level 2	Equal	10	9%	104	91%	0	0%	114	100%
Level 3	Higher	2	2%	118	98%	0	0%	120	100%
Level 3	Equal	9	8%	98	82%	12	10%	119	100%

Appendix. Table. 13 Distribution to request strategy by imposition in L1 data per head act by level

Request strategy by imposition: L1 data

	Imposition	Direct	%	CI	%	NCI	%	Total head acts	%
Level 1	Big	16	14.7%	88	80.7%	5	4.6%	109	100%
	Small	8	6%	126	94%	0	0%	134	100%
Level 2	Big	10	9%	96	91%	0	0%	106	100%
	Small	3	2%	120	98%	0	0%	123	100%
Level 3	Big	8	7%	92	87%	6	6%	106	100%
	Small	3	2%	124	93%	6	5%	133	100%

Note: CI refers to conventionally indirect, NCI refers to nonconventionally indirect requests

Internal modification

Appendix. Table. 14 Frequency of internal modification by dominance in L1 data per request by level

L1 data: internal modification by dominance								
	Hearer's status	Syntactic downgraders	%	Lexical and phrasal downgraders	%	Upgraders	%	Total request sequences by dominance
Level 1	Higher	0	0%	82	67%	0	0%	122
	Equal	2	2%	71	60%	2	2%	119
Level 2	Higher	1	1%	95	83%	7	6%	114
	Equal	0	0%	72	64%	4	4%	113
Level 3	Higher	2	2%	98	82%	5	4%	120
	Equal	13	11%	82	69%	4	3%	119

Appendix. Table. 15 Frequency of internal modifiers by imposition in L1 data per request sequence by level

Internal modification by imposition: L1 data								
	Imposition	Syntactic downgraders	%	Lexical and phrasal downgraders	%	Upgraders	%	Total request sequences by imposition
Level 1	Big	0	0%	64	59%	0	0%	108
	Small	2	2%	89	67%	2	2%	133
Level 2	Big	1	1%	80	77%	9	9%	104
	Small	0	0%	87	71%	2	2%	123
Level 3	Big	5	5%	74	70%	6	6%	106
	Small	10	8%	106	80%	3	2%	133

External modification

Appendix. Table. 16 Frequency of external modifiers by dominance per request sequence by level

L1 data: External modifiers by dominance						
	Hearer's status	Alerters	%	Supportive moves	%	Total request sequences by dominance
Level 1	Higher	52	43%	33	27%	122
	Equal	10	8%	26	22%	119
Level 2	Higher	103	90%	60	53%	114
	Equal	40	35%	76	67%	113
Level 3	Higher	125	104%	60	50%	120
	Equal	32	27%	54	45%	119

Appendix. Table. 17 Frequency of external modifiers by imposition per request sequence by level

External modifiers by imposition: L1 data						
	Imposition	Alerters	%	Supportive moves	%	Total request sequences by imposition
Level 1	Big	28	26%	24	22%	108
	Small	34	25.5%	35	26%	133
Level 2	Big	76	73%	80	77%	104
	Small	67	54%	56	45%	123
Level 3	Big	71	67%	62	58%	106
	Small	86	65%	52	39%	133

Modals

Appendix. Table. 18 Distribution of modals in L1 data by dominance per conventionally indirect request by level

L1 data: use of modals by dominance									
	Hearer's status	Présent	%	Conditionelle	%	Other structures	%	Total CI requests	%
Level 1	Higher	102	90%	7	6%	4	4%	113	100%
	Equal	91	90%	9	9%	1	1%	101	100%
Level 2	Higher	91	81%	17	15%	4	4%	112	100%
	Equal	73	70.1%	15	14.4%	16	15.5%	104	100%
Level 3	Higher	69	58.5%	44	37.3%	5	4.2%	118	100%
	Equal	43	44%	33	34%	22	22%	98	100%

Appendix. Table. 19 Distribution of modals in L1 French data by imposition per conventionally indirect request by level

Modals in L1 data by imposition									
	Imposition	Présent	%	Conditionelle	%	Other structures	%	Total CI requests	%
Level 1	Big	81	92%	7	8%	0	0%	88	100%
	Small	112	89%	9	7%	5	4%	126	100%
Level 2	Big	79	82%	15	16%	2	2%	96	100%
	Small	85	71%	17	14%	18	15%	120	100%
Level 3	Big	49	53%	32	35%	11	12%	92	100%
	Small	63	51%	45	36%	16	13%	124	100%

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La politesse dans un contexte d'apprentissage, par des francophones, de l'anglais langue étrangère : enjeux pragmatiques, interlangue et acquisition de stratégies

1. Introduction

La pragmatique est une composante importante de la compétence communicative dans toutes les langues. Chaque langue a son propre ensemble de normes sociolinguistiques qui sont systématiquement pratiquées dans chaque communauté. Ces normes comportementales et linguistiques sont généralement attendues des personnes de cette communauté et leur absence est susceptible de générer des obstacles dans la communication. Il est donc important pour les apprenants de langue seconde d'acquérir ces normes ainsi que d'autres compétences linguistiques. La nécessité d'apprendre les normes pragmatiques appropriées aux langues secondes (L2) s'est accrue avec la multiplication des réseaux multilingues mondiaux au cours des dernières années. Cependant, cette dimension importante de la compétence L2 a reçu une attention relativement moindre dans la recherche, principalement parce que la pragmatique elle-même n'a obtenu qu'assez récemment une reconnaissance en tant qu'élément important de la compétence communicative. Avant les années 1970, « la pragmatique n'a pas été intégrée aux débats antérieurs portant sur la SLA [acquisition de langues secondes] centrés sur l'hypothèse de l'analyse contrastive, la construction créative et ainsi de suite » (Kasper, 1992, p. 204). Plus tard, il a été reconnu que « la compétence pragmatique n'est pas complémentaire ou ornementale » (Kasper, 1997, par. 5), mais qu'il s'agit d'une compétence essentielle en corrélation avec la compétence communicative et organisationnelle globale. La présente étude vise donc à contribuer à l'examen de la pragmatique en langue seconde en analysant l'acquisition de la pragmatique interlangue (PIL) par les jeunes apprenants de la langue anglaise en tant que langue étrangère en France (ALE).

Bien que relativement nouveaux dans le domaine de la linguistique, le concept de la pragmatique apparaît au début des années 1900. Selon Crystal (1997, théorie partagée par Kasper & Rose, 2002; Bardovi-Harlig, 2013) la pragmatique est définie comme :

L'étude de la langue du point de vue des utilisateurs, en particulier des *choix* qu'ils font, des *contraintes* qu'ils rencontrent dans l'utilisation de la langue lors de l'interaction sociale et les effets de leur utilisation de la langue produits sur d'autres participants dans l'acte de communication. (P. 301, nous soulignons).

Les termes « choix » et « contraintes » dans cette définition reflètent une subdivision généralement établie en pragmalinguistique et en sociopragmatique (Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1983). La pragmalinguistique explore la dimension linguistique de la pragmatique et se concentre sur « les ressources particulières à laquelle une langue donnée pourvoit pour la transmission d'illocutions particulières » (Leech, 1983, p. 11). La sociopragmatique, d'autre part, s'intéresse à « l'interface sociologique de la pragmatique » (Leech, 1983, p. 10). Cela fait référence à une meilleure compréhension du comportement social approprié qui sous-tend la mise en application par les interlocuteurs et l'interprétation de l'action communicative. La sociopragmatique médiatise les choix linguistiques des participants lorsqu'ils accomplissent des actes de communication par rapport aux contraintes / normes socio-culturelles (van Compernelle, 2014; Rose, 1999).

1.1 Pourquoi apprendre la Pragmatique Interlangue ?

Parce que ce n'est que récemment que l'étude de la pragmatique interlangue (PIL) a été considérée en tant que domaine indépendant, peu de recherches ont été menées dans ce domaine comparativement à celles portant sur la grammaire interlangue, la phonologie etc. La nécessité d'examiner le développement pragmatique des apprenants L2 s'est manifestée du fait d'un certain

nombre de raisons qui seront abordées dans cette section. Cependant, avant d'établir la nécessité d'examiner le développement PIL des apprenants, il est important de noter la différence entre PIL et pragmatique. Bardovi-Harlig (2013) met en évidence cette différence en expliquant que la pragmatique est « l'étude de la façon de comment-dire-ce que-à qui-quand » (p. 68), alors que la PIL est « l'étude de la façon dont les élèves arrivent à prendre connaissance du comment-dire-ce-que-à qui-quand » (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013, p.68-69, nous soulignons). En d'autres termes, la pragmatique se penche sur l'utilisation de la langue dans un contexte en général tandis que la PIL met l'accent sur la compétence pragmatique et l'acquisition des apprenants de langue seconde.

La nécessité d'examiner le développement PIL des apprenants L2 a été fortement ressentie lorsque Schmidt (1993) a émis l'hypothèse que sa contribution est effective uniquement lorsque les apprenants remarquent les caractéristiques de la langue cible. Selon ce point de vue, les facteurs de la compétence et du contexte d'apprentissage peuvent aider les apprenants à acquérir certains éléments pragmatiques de l'interlangue mais il est possible que ces derniers ne remarquent pas plusieurs autres caractéristiques pragmatiques de l'interlangue, s'ils sont amenés à devoir les repérer par eux-mêmes. Sans l'encadrement adéquat, les apprenants peuvent ne pas se rendre compte que de nombreuses conventions linguistiques de leur culture diffèrent de la culture de L2 (Beebe et al., 1990; Garcia, 1989; Trosborg, 1995; Wierzbicka, 1985, 2003).

Un autre déclencheur en ce qui concerne l'examen du développement de la PIL des apprenants a été la découverte d'un certain nombre d'études en PIL qui indiquent que même les apprenants avancés ont échoué à se rapprocher des normes pragmatiques des natifs (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998 ; Kasper, 1982 ; Blum-Kulka, 1982; Thomas, 1983, Bardovi-Harlig 2001; Kasper & Rose, 2001; Bardovi-Harlig et Mahan-Taylor, 2003; Rose, 2005; Bardovi-Harlig et Griffin, 2005). Certaines études PIL telles que celles de Marquez-Reiter (2000) et de Trosborg

(1995) montrent que les facteurs socio-culturels, y compris le pouvoir social / le statut, la distance entre les interlocuteurs, ainsi que le fait d'imposer des énoncés (Brown et Levinson, 1987) peuvent influencer considérablement sur le choix des stratégies à adopter dans différentes cultures. La méconnaissance des conventions sociales spécifiques peut conduire à des malentendus, ce qui peut faire apparaître le locuteur comme étant brusque voire grossier et antipathique à diverses occasions (Bardovi-Harlig et Mahan-Taylor, 2003). Bardovi-Harlig (2001) soutient que ces manquements occasionnent beaucoup de répercussions négatives sur les relations interpersonnelles parce que les interlocuteurs sont moins susceptibles de faire preuve d'indulgence pour les erreurs pragmatiques, par comparaison avec des erreurs grammaticales ou de vocabulaire. La grammaire et le vocabulaire avancés des apprenants donnent l'impression que les manquements pragmatiques sont commis intentionnellement. Les erreurs pragmatiques sont « souvent interprétées à un niveau social ou personnel plutôt que résultant du processus d'apprentissage des langues » (Bardovi-Harlig et Mahan-Taylor, 2003, p.3). Ainsi, il est important que les apprenants maîtrisent les aspects socioculturels ainsi que les caractéristiques lexico-grammaticales de la L2 donnée. Mais, dans la mesure où ils accomplissent cette démarche avec succès, cette réussite doit être explorée dans la recherche en PIL.

En outre, des études d'intervention ont également constaté que les supports exploités en classe manquent généralement d'informations pragmatiques authentiques (Bardovi-Harlig et al, 2015b; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Cohen et Ishihara, 2013), ce qui révèle l'accès limité des apprenants aux possibilités d'apprentissage PIL. Dans ce contexte, il est important d'analyser comment les apprenants font face à ces difficultés et dans quelle mesure ils réussissent à développer leurs connaissances pragmatiques L2. Pour toutes les raisons mentionnées ci-dessus,

nous pouvons affirmer qu'il existe un besoin évident d'examiner le développement pragmatique des apprenants L2 et de prendre des mesures pour améliorer leurs connaissances PIL.

1.2 Objectifs de l'étude

Considérant la nécessité évidente pour l'apprentissage pragmatique L2, un certain nombre d'études se sont penchées sur le développement de la PIL des apprenants L2 (voir la section 2.7.2 pour une liste d'études sur les requêtes en PIL). Ces études ont donné de précieux résultats sur le développement pragmatique des apprenants L2 mais elles se sont souvent concentrées sur les apprenants adultes L2 et les paramètres de la langue seconde. De même, elles ont souvent exploité les données collectées. Les quelques études longitudinales qui ont utilisé des données naturalistes (Achiba, 2003; Safont-Jordà, 2011, 2013 ; Ellis, 1992) comprenaient un petit nombre de participants, ce qui a en quelque sorte limité la généralisation de leurs conclusions. De la même façon, aucune de ces études acquisitionnelles, à notre connaissance, n'a exploré les possibilités de développement pragmatique L2 dans les manuels scolaires des apprenants et des activités en classe. Cette étude vise à répondre à ces questions en développement la PIL des jeunes apprenants débutants en anglais dans un contexte de langue étrangère : les écoles secondaires françaises. Tout en se concentrant sur les requêtes L2, cette étude fournit une description complète des stratégies de requête des apprenants L2 lors de requêtes d'imposition faibles et élevées adressées aux personnes de statut égal et supérieur, ce qui permet un examen de la pragmalinguistique des apprenants ainsi que la compétence sociopragmatique. Cette étude adopte une approche transversale et examine le développement pragmatique L2 des trois niveaux d'apprenants dans les collèges et lycées en France. Contrairement aux études précédentes, la nôtre exploite des données provenant de différentes sources et croise à la fois les données naturalistes et les données que nous avons collectées pour examiner l'étendue des connaissances

des apprenants en ce qui concerne l'utilisation des stratégies de politesse dans les requêtes L2, aussi bien dans l'énonciation qu'au niveau du discours.

Cette étude compare également les données interlangue avec les données françaises L1 afin de tenir compte des éventuels cas de transferts pragmatiques ou socio-culturels inadaptés des données de l'apprenant. Le transfert pragmatique L1 sera analysé dans la fréquence ainsi que dans le contenu des stratégies de requête. Une enquête plus approfondie sera effectuée ultérieurement pour saisir l'étendue des initiatives à mettre en œuvre dans les classes L2 et les manuels scolaires pour apprendre la pragmatique L2. De même, cette analyse vise à comprendre si les apprenants exploitent ces possibilités ou s'ils en créent d'autres pour apprendre la pragmatique L2.

Le choix de l'acte de langue, la *requête*, dans le cadre de cette étude est motivé par diverses raisons. En premier lieu, l'importante focalisation de la recherche en PIL sur les *requêtes* fournit une structure solide sur laquelle de nouvelles perspectives de recherche peuvent s'appuyer (Achiba, 2003). En second lieu, elle permet une comparaison avec d'autres recherches qui ont déjà mis l'accent sur ce sujet. Troisièmement, les requêtes sont très fréquentes dans les conversations quotidiennes, ce qui les rend importantes à maîtriser afin de maintenir des relations sociales saines (Achiba, 2003). Parce que les requêtes font faire à l'allocutaire quelque chose pour le locuteur (en tant que faveur), cela peut apparaître agressif (*face-threatening*) pour l'allocutaire (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Les locuteurs peuvent donc avoir besoin d'utiliser plusieurs stratégies et modificateurs pour modérer l'imposition des requêtes. Il apparaît alors essentiel pour chaque partie d'être au courant des normes culturelles de chacun pour que la communication soit fructueuse. Les facteurs socioculturels tels que le statut, le pouvoir, la distance, et bien d'autres facteurs exercent une influence sur la réponse d'un individu à différents

types de requêtes. Dans le pire des cas, la méconnaissance de ces facteurs peut entraîner des malentendus et des confusions dans la conversation. Nous supposons qu'une enquête sur des requêtes peut potentiellement fournir des indications sur les capacités pragmatiques des apprenants de langue seconde.

Cette étude est organisée comme suit. Le deuxième chapitre présente un examen des théories de la langue et acte de politesse, et expose également les résultats pertinents de la recherche précédente en PIL. Ultérieurement au cours de notre étude, les résultats de la recherche sur les requêtes en français L1 et en anglais L2 sont comparés afin de mettre en évidence les similitudes et les différences entre les requêtes en anglais et en français. Ce chapitre se termine par une description détaillée des résultats, des participants et des méthodes d'étude portant sur les requêtes L2. Le troisième chapitre décrit l'élaboration de la méthode de recherche utilisée pour recueillir et examiner les données. Le quatrième chapitre porte sur l'analyse et les résultats de la recherche. Enfin, le cinquième chapitre présente la discussion de chaque question de recherche mise en débat et se termine par les conclusions de l'étude.

2. Conclusion

Dans la présente étude nous avons examiné l'utilisation et le développement de la requête en interlangue (L2) par les apprenants de l'anglais langue étrangère (ALE) à trois niveaux de compétence dans les collèges et lycées en France. Alors que plusieurs études interlangues examinaient l'utilisation et/ou le développement des requêtes de L2 dans les requêtes des apprenants adultes et employaient un ou deux types de données recueillies, la présente étude portait sur les jeunes apprenants débutants en utilisant une triangulation de trois types de données : la production orale (COPT), la production libre (jeux de rôle), et des données authentiques qui impliquaient des situations avec différents degrés d'imposition et statut social des interlocuteurs.

En dépit des différences entre les méthodes employées, de nombreuses recherches ont suggéré que les apprenants ont montré des signes de développement dans le comportement de requête avec niveau ; les apprenants plus âgés et plus compétents ont fait des requêtes plus indirectes avec une utilisation plus élevée des modificateurs. En ce qui concerne l'ordre du développement pragmalinguistique, les résultats ont montré que le développement du niveau 1 au niveau 2 était saillant mais le développement du niveau 2 au niveau 3 était plus important, en particulier, dans l'utilisation des modificateurs de requête (internes et externes). Ainsi, il semble que la compétence linguistique L2 (ie, lexico-grammatical) ainsi qu'une plus grande exposition aux ressources en ligne (internet) et multimédias (films, séries, etc.) ont dû contribuer au développement pragmatique des plus âgés.

Cependant, les performances des requêtes des apprenants illustraient également leur familiarité restreinte et/ou leur pratique d'un ensemble de stratégies de requête, modificateurs et modaux, même à des niveaux plus élevés. En conséquence, les apprenants à tous les niveaux ont

montré une dépendance excessive vis-à-vis de certains éléments linguistiques ; par exemple, « *politeness marker* ou *please* » comme modificateur interne, « *supportive moves* » (ie, raisons et explications) comme modificateur externe et « *preparatory strategy* » (ie, *conventionally indirect requests*) comme stratégie de requête. Dans l'ensemble, les résultats ont montré que malgré la fréquence accrue d'éléments pragmalinguistiques spécifiques à des niveaux plus élevés, la variété / étendue du répertoire pragmatique des apprenants restait limitée.

Par rapport au développement pragmalinguistique, le développement socio-pragmatique a été plus limité, car les apprenants à tous les niveaux sont peu familiarisés avec l'impact du statut social (p. ex. perspective des requêtes et stratégies) et le degré de l'imposition des requêtes. Les résultats suggèrent qu'en dépit d'un développement pragmatique, même les apprenants les plus compétents dans l'étude manquaient d'un certain nombre de compétences pragmatiques qui les empêchaient d'utiliser une variété d'éléments linguistiques dans différents contextes. De plus, les apprenants ont également montré des signes de transfert pragmatique L1 (français) négatif susceptible de causer un obstacle dans la communication interlangue.

Afin de trouver des explications au développement pragmatique limité des apprenants, les activités en classe ont été analysées. Les résultats ont montré que les salles de classe L2 étaient principalement axées sur les aspects lexico-grammaticaux et culturels du langage, alors que la pragmatique recevait peu ou pas d'attention. De plus, les supports pédagogiques dans les classes L2 (en particulier aux niveaux supérieurs) ont été sélectionnés en fonction des thèmes (correspondant aux objectifs culturels) plutôt qu'à l'utilisation de la langue. Bien que des supports authentiques aient été fréquemment utilisés dans ces salles de classe, ces matériaux ont été principalement traduits, sous-titrés, expliqués, « déverrouillés » et mémorisés pour une réutilisation ultérieure (Whyte & Siddiqi, 2016). En outre, peu ou pas de données méta-

pragmatiques ont été trouvées dans les manuels de l'interlangue, ce qui a permis de mieux définir les connaissances des apprenants sur l'utilisation contextuelle appropriée des requêtes de L2.

Les implications pédagogiques de la présente étude indiquent qu'il existe un besoin évident d'intervention pédagogique dans les classes de L2, ce qui a également été souligné dans des études antérieures (Félix-Brasdefer, 2002; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). En outre, cette étude suggère qu'une attention particulière devrait être accordée aux apprenants du collège car non seulement ils manquent de compétences grammaticales avec une utilisation limitée des ressources en ligne / multimédia, mais les enseignants des lycées semblent attendre d'eux qu'ils aient déjà acquis les aspects pragmatiques de la langue (par exemple, la politesse) au collège.

En général, l'instruction pragmatique cherche à déclencher le développement de la PIL à travers une contribution riche et en notant des aspects pragmatiques particuliers qui peuvent être accomplis à travers une gamme de structures grammaticales à moins qu'ils ne soient traités comme des règles grammaticales. D'autres stratégies pédagogiques pouvant potentiellement contribuer à l'enseignement pragmatique incluent la rétroaction immédiate aux apprenants, encourageant la participation spontanée des apprenants, mettant l'accent sur l'anglais pendant les cours, se concentrant sur le sens avant la forme et attirant l'attention des apprenants sur le contexte et l'utilisation de la langue (Siddiqi, 2016).

En ce qui concerne le choix de la méthodologie, la triangulation de plusieurs méthodes dans cette étude a révélé plusieurs modèles de développement qui pourraient ne pas avoir été possibles en ne recourant qu'à une seule méthode. Par exemple, l'utilisation de la COPT et des jeux de rôle a montré les connaissances des apprenants (à des degrés divers) sur la réalisation des requêtes L2, mais des données authentiques représentaient la réalisation effective des requêtes. Par rapport aux données obtenues, les apprenants peuvent ou non exposer l'étendue de leurs

connaissances pragmatiques dans des requêtes authentiques en raison de plusieurs contraintes potentielles. Parmi les méthodes d'élicitation utilisées dans cette étude, les jeux de rôle se situaient à mi-chemin entre la COPT et des données authentiques. Les différences majeures entre les jeux de rôle et la COPT concernaient la fréquence de divers éléments pragmalinguistiques tandis que les différences majeures entre les jeux de rôle et les données authentiques constituées du choix de plusieurs éléments pragmalinguistiques. Cette étude suggère l'utilisation de plusieurs méthodes dans la recherche PIL pour éliminer les effets des méthodes de collecte de données sur les résultats et accroître la généralisation des résultats.

Dans l'ensemble, les résultats de cette étude suggèrent que les apprenants en France montrent une mesure de développement pragmatique à mesure qu'ils avancent dans le programme ALE de l'école secondaire. Cependant, en raison des possibilités limitées d'apprentissage des compétences pragmatiques de L2 dans les salles de classe, leur répertoire pragmalinguistique et leur compétence socio-pragmatique sont restés relativement limités. Ce résultat n'est peut-être pas surprenant pour ceux qui ont une familiarité avec ce contexte d'enseignement et d'apprentissage, mais cette étude fournit des preuves claires au-delà des impressions anecdotiques. Ces résultats ne sont pas encourageants, en particulier pour les jeunes qui quittent l'école et qui sont susceptibles d'entrer en contact avec une variété d'anglophones (natifs ou non-natifs) au cours de leur vie personnelle et / ou de leur carrière professionnelle. Étant donné leur maîtrise des aspects lexico-grammaticaux de l'anglais L2, on pourrait s'attendre à ce qu'ils se conforment davantage aux normes comportementales et sociolinguistiques de la langue seconde, car toute violation à cet égard peut entraîner des malentendus et des perturbations dans la communication.

Par conséquent, sur la base des connaissances acquises dans cette étude, nous suggérons que l'enseignement métapragmatique explicite / implicite soit inclus dans la pratique pédagogique avec d'autres éléments linguistiques (par exemple, la grammaire, le lexique). Concernant les moyens d'intégrer l'enseignement pragmatique de L2 dans le programme existant, cette étude a également exploré les manières dont les enseignants peuvent créer des conditions d'apprentissage qui peuvent contribuer à développer les compétences pragmatiques L2 des apprenants dans les environnements de classe. Cette étude a montré que les enseignants de L2 étaient très intéressés par l'enseignement de la pragmatique de l'interlangue, bien qu'ils puissent être empêchés de le mettre en œuvre par le manque de connaissances / formation, de supports didactiques ou de pertinence de la compétence pragmatique dans les examens finaux. En accord avec les recherches précédentes sur les PIL, cette étude suggère donc que la compétence pragmatique L2 devrait avoir plus d'importance dans les programmes d'enseignement et d'évaluation. Nous espérons que, si cette étude a réussi à mettre en évidence l'importance du développement pragmatique de l'interlangue, et le travail qui peut et doit être entrepris dans ce domaine, alors elle puisse s'avérer utile.