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University Students' Communication: Gender and Group
Affiliation Influence**

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Dedication

I dedicate this humble dissertation

To the soul of my beloved mother whose words of encouragement and push for
patience and success still and will always ring in my ears;

To my lovely father who always lightens up my road and guides me to the right
path for me to
be fascinated by learning.

To my supervisor, Professor Adiba BOUSFIHA for her guidance and patience;

To my wife for her unconditional love and patience;

To my lovely son Mohamed Jad;

To my beloved sister and family-in-law for their prayers and support;

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stopped to fulfil this dissertation.

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and guidance in life;

To my colleagues and friends everywhere;

To people who have dreams and believe in themselves to make those dreams
come true.

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مقتضب

تتوخى هذه الدراسة مقارنة المهارات التداولية لمتعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية ومدى تأثير النوع والوسط الثقافي في اختيار استراتيجيات التأدب والملاطفة في مؤسستين للتعليم العالي بالمغرب هما جامعة مولاي إسماعيل بمكناس وجامعة سيدي محمد ابن عبد الله بفاس. وتجدر الإشارة إلى أنه تم تجميع المعطيات الكمية للدراسة بناء على مساهمة أربعمائة من طلاب الكليتين؛ أي مائتا طالب من كل كلية. وفيما يخص المعطيات الكيفية فقد تم تجميعها بناء على ملاحظة ثمان وضعيات لغوية في كلتا الكليتين اعتمادا على تقنية المعاينة المحايدة. هذا وقد تم الاعتماد على تصميم الأساليب المختلطة من أجل جمع وتحليل وتأويل البيانات باستعمال منهجية التثليث المتزامنة كإستراتيجية للدراسة. واستعملت إحصاءات وصفية واستنتاجية لتحليل المعطيات النوعية والكيفية التي تم تجميعها من خلال الاستمارة الموزعة على الطلبة المشاركين في الدراسة، التي خلصت نتائجها إلى أن هناك علاقة جد إيجابية بين اختيار استراتيجيات التأدب وبين النوع والوسط الثقافي للمتحدث، كما انتهت إلى أن المشاركين فيها قد أبانوا عن امتلاك مهارات تداولية يمكن أن تستشف من خلال التنوع في استعمال استراتيجيات التأدب حسب متغيرات الوضعية التي هم فيها، كما خلصت الدراسة إلى أن المشاركين يميلون إلى استعمال مصطلحات وعبارات كثيرة مقتبسة من الحقل الديني الإسلامي، وأن هناك علاقة جد إيجابية بين اختيار استراتيجيات التأدب وطبيعة الخطأ المرتكب في حالة الاعتذار أو نوعية الطلب، بل وأن هذا الأخير من الممكن أن يكون مؤثرا أكثر من النوع و الانتماء الثقافي.

Abstract

This study investigates the pragmatic competence of EFL students and the impact of group affiliation and gender on the choice of politeness strategies within two Moroccan institutions in higher education: Moulay Ismail University and Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University. Data for the current study are collected from 400 respondents who have managed to answer a discourse completion test. In addition to that, 8 situations have been observed using non-participative observation in both universities. A mixed-methods design is used for the collection, the analysis and the interpretation of data with simultaneous triangulation methodology as a research strategy. The quantitative and the qualitative data gathered are described and analysed using descriptive in addition to inferential statistics. The findings indicate that there is a strong significant correlation between group affiliation, gender and the choice of politeness strategies. They also indicate that Moroccan EFL students develop certain pragmatic competence which can be deduced from the variety of politeness strategies used in the DCT. Furthermore, this study concludes that Moroccan EFL students tend to use religious lexicon from the Islamic doctrine which characterizes the Moroccan context in terms of politeness forms. The results indicate that there is also a strong association between the choice of politeness strategies and the weight of the face-threatening act, to the extent that it can be more influential than gender and group affiliation.

Arabic Transliteration Symbols

Letter	Symbol	Letter	Symbol
ا	a	ط	t̄
ب	b	ظ	ðˤ
ت	t	ع	ʔ
ث	θ	غ	ɣ
ج	dʒ, ʒ	ف	f
ح	ħ	ق	q
خ	x	ك	k
د	d	ل	l
ذ	ð	م	m
ر	r	ن	n
ز	z	ه	h
س	s	و	w, u:
ش	ʃ	ي	j, i:
ص	s̄	ء	ʔ
ض	d̄		

- ✓ NB: / ə / is realized as a more open/low vowel that might be close phonetically to /a/

Retrieved from: “https://www.lexilogos.com/arabe_alphabet.htm” with some modifications

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Glossary of Acronyms

CEFR: The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

D : Distance

DCT : Discourse Completion Test

DCQ : Discourse Completion Questionnaire

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

FTA: Face-Threatening Act

H: Hearer

MCQ : Multiple Choice Questionnaire

P : Power

R: Ranking

S: Student

S(n): Sentence

EGA: Ethnic Group Affiliation

SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

MIU: Moulay Ismail University, Faculty of Letters and Humanities

SMBAU: Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University, Faculty of Letters and Humanities

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General Introduction

Pragmatic competence is a multi-disciplinary field that partakes from different branches. It requires the use of background knowledge about language, and how it operates to examine issues related to language in the real world to find some solutions. It deals with ways in which pragmatic meanings reflect specific contextual conditions on language use. Pragmatic competence is coined by Leech (1983) to study and describe aspects of language that relate to everyday social practices. Research in pragmatic competence makes language the center of the mission of getting to the point of linguistic effectiveness that serves to take action to the outside reality.

Above all, the field of pragmatic competence is characterized by using language and its theoretical features for the purpose of either generating other theories or to solve practical problems. It is concerned with the impact of context on the use of language and therefore tries to raise awareness of the importance of context in choosing appropriate formulas of language (Holmes and King, 2017). This makes pragmatic competence a bridge between pragmatics, sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics. Recently, the main focus of pragmatic competence is the use of language and politeness forms with regard to gender and power differences so as to overcome language barriers and misunderstandings between speakers.

Undoubtedly, pragmatic competence has made an increasingly valuable contribution to the understanding of the relationship between language and gender

over the past few decades. This focus on gender can be attributed first to the fact that gender can be an impactful factor in the choice of the appropriate language forms, and second to the hazy boundaries between masculine and feminine linguistic behavior. Therefore, gender and pragmatic competence are the main concerns of this research. Bearing in mind the fact that pragmatic competence perception can be different across societies, group affiliation influence on the choice of politeness strategies is another area of concern of this thesis.

Starting from the conviction that the pragmatic competence is an essential element in overcoming language barriers, The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001) considers pragmatic competence, along with linguistic (grammatical, lexical) and sociolinguistic skills to be the core components of communicative competence. To produce successful speech acts, students need certain linguistic formulas. In other words, students should be provided with suitable linguistic and pragmatic tools to produce appropriate discourse.

Having stressed the importance of pragmatic competence, there are some students; however, that could face some difficulties in producing some speech acts. This, in fact, makes it obligatory for teachers to develop their students' pragmatic competence. According to Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor (2003), developing students' pragmatic competence can be achieved through six distinctive areas of teaching pragmatic competence in the foreign language classroom: (a) conversational implicature, (b) conversational structure, (c)

conversational management, (d) socio-linguistic aspects of language use, (e) discourse organisation and (f) speech acts. In the same realm, CEFR suggests using scenarios and scripts of interactional exchanges to teach pragmatic competence.

Pragmatic competence and politeness strategies could be useful tools to equip students with to overcome any prospected communication breakdown both in intercultural or intracultural exchanges. As a consequence, the importance of pragmatic competence, as has been advocated earlier, in reducing possibilities of communication breakdown and maximizing mutual understanding is one of the main concerns of research in this dissertation.

Pragmatic competence is an important factor for effective and successful communication in any given community. It should be stressed that students must be equipped with this competence to cope with different intercultural and intracultural barriers. To minimize communication breakdown and increase mutual understanding between the speaker and the hearer, developing students' pragmatic competence through the use of situational prompts has become a must as stressed by many researchers. In this regard, bulky research has been conducted on the importance of pragmatic competence, but studies on the impact of gender and group affiliation on pragmatic competence are very few in the Moroccan context.

This study is motivated by the desire to measure the influence of gender and the group affiliation on the choice of politeness strategies within Moroccan

universities. More precisely, gender and group influence can be impactful factors in the selection of adequate strategies to make requests and apologies in the Moroccan contexts along with other variables such as the weight of the FTA, social class and age.

The motivation of this study is the need to investigate the impact of gender and group affiliation on the choice of politeness strategies among students. This study will be useful for assessing the pragmatic competence of students who have gone through pragmatics classes. Therefore, it can be a tool for assessing the methods and techniques used by teachers to teach pragmatics and pragmatic competence at this level.

Starting from the conviction that pragmatic competence is an interdisciplinary field in the sense that it relies on many other fields of study, the researcher is motivated by the fact that pragmatic competence and its impact on learners has not been in focus in higher education in the Moroccan university; therefore, its role and relationship with learning has mostly been theoretical and has not been applied to an academic context like Morocco. Hence, within such a new context where the role of pragmatic competence has not gained enough attention, the contribution of this dissertation is that it will measure the relationship between pragmatic competence (politeness), group affiliation and gender in the choice of politeness strategies to find out whether they impact the selection of adequate politeness strategies in the Moroccan context or not.

The findings of this study can be a plus to the literature in the field of pragmatic competence, precisely the theory of politeness and its applicability to the Moroccan context with regard to gender and group affiliation influence. Politeness is a foster for effective human communication by which people sustain and consolidate their social relationships. This, in fact, would leave a space for this research to measure the impact of gender and group affiliation along with other variables on the choice of politeness forms in the Moroccan context.

The aim of this dissertation is to reflect upon the pragmatic competence of Moroccan university students and to test the impact of gender and the group affiliation variables on the choice of politeness strategies by these students. The research will make it clear whether gender and group affiliation are impactful variables in the choice of politeness formulas. Differently put, the results of the current research may enable readers to get deeper insights into the kind of influence gender and cultural background of students can have on choosing adequate politeness strategies in making two different speech acts namely requesting and apologising.

Bearing in mind all the aspects mentioned above, the main objective is to get clear ideas about the pragmatic competence of Moroccan EFL university students and their ability to respond to different linguistic scenarios. The current research will attempt to accomplish the following aims:

- ✓ To assess the pragmatic competence of Moroccan EFL university students.

- ✓ To find out whether pragmatic competence contributes to minimizing communication breakdown and maximizing mutual understanding between the interlocutors.
- ✓ To measure the impact of gender and group affiliation on the choice of politeness strategies

The present research targets studying the relationship between politeness strategies, gender and group affiliation by testing the following hypotheses:

1. Moroccan EFL university students are equipped with sufficient pragmatic competence that enables them to deal with different linguistic situations.
2. There is a predictive relationship between gender and the choice of politeness strategies by Moroccan EFL university students.
3. There is a predictive link between the choice of politeness strategies by Moroccan EFL university students and group affiliation.

In order to reach the objectives of this dissertation, the following questions will be answered:

- ✓ To what extent are Moroccan EFL university students contextually aware and able to use their pragmatic competence?
- ✓ To what extent does gender affect the choice of linguistic politeness by Moroccan EFL university students?

- ✓ To what extent does group affiliation affect the choice of politeness strategies by Moroccan EFL university students?

To answer the research questions of the study, a mixed-methods approach is adopted in the data collection, analysis and interpretation phase. The qualitative data is represented by the observation of different linguistic scenarios, and the quantitative data is represented by the discourse completion test. Mixing quantitative and qualitative data is carried out in order to strengthen the validity and reliability of the findings of both institutions, Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University and Moulay Ismail University.

The use of mixed-methods has many positive aspects that can strengthen the validity and reliability of the findings of this study; (a) it provides diversity in terms of sources of data collection and tools by which these data can be analysed and interpreted, (b) it offers exposure to naturally occurring data by combining two different data collection tools, and (c) it helps to compensate for the limitations of both quantitative and qualitative methods.

As far as the sample selected for this study is concerned, it is composed of students learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) representing a population in Moroccan Higher Education embodied in Sidi Mohammed Ben Abdellah University, Fes and Moulay Ismail University, Meknes. The selection of this sample is due to the availability of participants enrolled in the English departments of both institutions. Therefore, the selection of the

sample is carried out using a non-probability or convenience sampling strategy. The use of this later allows reaching a large number of participants from the population and increases the representativeness of the sample.

This research is divided into four major chapters. Chapter one is divided into six sections that provide an overview of the literature related to the present study. The first section outlines the general theoretical framework of the study which is human communication as a starting point for constituting pragmatic competence. The second section presents pragmatic competence. The third section sheds light on the speech act theory. For a deep understanding of politeness as a major constituent of pragmatic competence, the fourth section is devoted to a discussion of the work of Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory of politeness along with some reactions and critiques of what might be shortcomings of this theory (see Mills, 2003).

This section also assigns considerable attention to the two major types of politeness, namely positive politeness and negative politeness in relation to culture, so as to question the universality of politeness as a theory. Additionally, the notion of face by Goffman (1967) which is the basis for this theory is investigated in relation to culture. Politeness strategies that are used to soften face-threatening acts are also under investigation along with socio-cultural variables that may affect their choices such as gender and group affiliation. Finally, this section is concluded with a brief discussion on politeness and nonverbal behaviour and politeness and stereotypes.

The fifth section of this chapter addresses issues related to language, gender and politeness. Besides, more focus is on politeness in relation to gender and group affiliation as two major factors affecting the choice of politeness strategies by participants. Moreover, it, more specifically, addresses politeness in the Arab context wherein this study lies.

Chapter two focuses on the methodology adopted to fulfill the objectives of the research. It has dealt with theoretical issues related to research design, research sample, data analysis, techniques and data collection tools. This chapter indicates that the methodology suggested in this study is the mixed method approach combining the strengths of the discourse completion test and the observation of naturally occurring data. The third chapter is devoted to data analysis and interpretation using tabulation and cross-tabulation for quantitative data and thematic analysis for the qualitative data. The last chapter is concerned with the discussion and implications of the findings.

Chapter One: Review of Literature

Introduction

Since the emergence of politeness theory and its contribution to the understanding of the pragmatic competence of the language users, many efforts have been invested to examine it as a phenomenon in language by many scholars whose concern is in pragmatic competence and precisely politeness. This chapter is divided into six sections that provide an overview of the literature related to the present study. It assigns considerable attention to basic aspects related to politeness, gender, culture and language.

1.1. Communication: an overview

It is evident that linguistic communication is a systematic process that distinguishes human beings from other species, and enables them to make meaning through language; be it verbal or non-verbal. Yet, the term communication is so vague in scope and can have different meanings. Researchers have made many attempts to define communication, but constructing a single and unique definition has proved impossible and may not be very fruitful (Littlejohn, 2002). In the Oxford Dictionary of English [the seventh edition], the concept of communication is defined as the system of sharing and exchanging ideas and emotions using a tool that could be a TV set, a phone or a radio. Therefore, it comprises human behavior in interaction with others including verbal behavior

such as words, sounds, and sentences or non-verbal behavior like gestures, proxemics, and kinesics.

In the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics [the third edition (2002)], communication is identified as the sharing of notions and thoughts between a speaker and a hearer or more. Therefore, in any communication operation there is a sender, a receiver, and a message to be coded and decoded. The human communication process is as complicated as the human being is because it is inextricably tied to many other factors like culture, gender, age, social class, psychology, beliefs, and amendments. Henceforth, interlocutors should be communicatively competent in the sense that they should possess and develop certain skills.

The rules to be respected in communication are grammatical, structural, or cultural. That is to say, any communication process is conditioned by specific rules of its language and cultural context. In other words, what is communicatively appropriate in a given context may not be so in another context. Hence, interlocutors should be aware of these contextual differences and abide by them in order to communicate effectively and, consequently, avoid communication breakdown.

Communication breakdown is the outcome of barriers that may hinder human communication and lead to undesirable results. In this regard, Lunenburg (2010) distinguishes between four types of communication barriers that may hinder the process of communication. These barriers are: (a) Process barriers or

those related to elements of any communication, (b) physical barriers and they include any distracter that can occur in communication, (c) semantic barriers and they consist of word choices and finally (d) psychosocial barriers that include lack of socio-cultural competence of one of the interlocutors. Therefore, for any communicative process to be successful, there should not be any of these barriers, and speakers must be effective communicators to overcome any of them.

Effective communicators are those who are: (a) motivated (b) knowledgeable, and who (c) have some communicative competence (Samovar, 2004; Porter, 2004). Clearly, it is demanding from participants to be effective communicators since that communication effectiveness necessitates having many skills and competences. In brief, pragmatic competence is a fundamental skill without which we cannot escape misunderstanding. Currently, the term “pragmatic competence” is widely used in the field of second and foreign language learning and teaching, especially with regard to pragmatic competence as one of the skills involved within the framework of communicative competence (Rueda, 2006).

1.2. Pragmatic Competence

Although competence has been analysed from different perspectives, it can simply be defined as an individual’s ability to communicate correctly and effectively with another speaker in a particular context. Parallel to that, Littlejohn and Foss (2009) state that competence is a basic need for human beings by which they can fulfill their objectives in any given exchange. To elaborate on this,

competence is not by nature teachable or learned but rather developed through a long process of practice. Hence, developing a certain competence requires real exposure to a real-life context.

One of the fundamental competencies that speakers should develop is pragmatic competence. Pragmatic competence is the ability to send out the intended message with all its features in any socio-cultural context and to decode and decipher the intended message of the interlocutor (Fraser, 2010). Henceforth, being pragmatically competent differs from one context to another depending on many socio-cultural variables such as origin, gender, social class, level of education, age and social status, and what might be pragmatically appropriate in one culture may be inappropriate in another.

Pragmatic competence entails a mastery of language functions, purposes, situations, and cultural norms; yet, there is no inclusive and agreed-upon definition of pragmatic competence. In this regard, Chomsky (1980) defines pragmatic competence as the recognition of rules and ways of use of language to attain certain objectives. This means that pragmatic competence necessitates the knowledge of functions of language and rules of language including politeness rules and forms.

Politeness constitutes a fundamental part of pragmatic competence, which has gained huge attention from researchers, especially Brown and Levinson (1987), and due to its importance in daily interactions, many approaches to incorporate it have come into existence. Yet, the dominant approach that is widely

adopted by researchers in teaching politeness is the mixed approach or what Haug and Chang (2015) call the mixture of explicit and implicit approaches. In this approach, mixed approach, many language functions and linguistic forms related to politeness are instructed to learners explicitly, in addition to providing learners with communicative contexts where they have to put these functions and forms into practice enabling them to develop their pragmatic competence.

1.3. Speech Act Theory

Speech act theory is a fundamental theory in the field of pragmatics, which has grabbed the attention of philosophers and linguists alike. Historically speaking, the theory dates back to 1962 with Austin. Speech act theory was the conclusion of a series of William James' lectures entitled "How to Do Things with Words" delivered by Austin at the University of Harvard in 1955.

Speech act is based on the idea that not all statements can be verified as false and/ or true, but some can have a performative force. That is, some sentences can make a change in the state of the world. For example, the sentence "*I hereby declare you husband and wife*", said by the right person in the adequate circumstances may change the whole life of different people. This entails that this sentence has a performative force that is referred to by Austin (1962) as the illocutionary force. Henceforth, according to Austin (1962) sentences can be divided into two categories: constative sentences and performative sentences.

Austin (1962) made a clear-cut division between constative sentences and performative ones claiming that constative sentences are verified as false and true,

but performative sentences are either happy or unhappy depending on whether they meet a group of rules he refers to as the felicity conditions or happiness conditions.

Afterwards, Austin has developed a new perspective towards sentences claiming that all sentences, including constatives and performatives, entail a doing and a saying element. Therefore, he makes a new design for acts made in performative sentences, these acts are called locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary. According to him, Locutionary acts involve phonetic acts (pronunciation of sounds), phatic acts (appropriate phonological and syntactic utterance of words or phrases), and rhetic acts (uttering a phrase with a known reference). Perlocutionary acts are, in turn, acts related to the effect of uttering a sentence, whereas illocutionary acts are circumstantial, conventional and social acts recognized by both the speaker and the hearer.

Illocutionary acts, which are the core element in Austin's (1962) theory, are divided into five forces: verdictives, exercitives, commissives, bihabitives and expositives. These types give an overview about which speech act the speaker targets by his utterance. Therefore, according to Oishi (2006), the speaker may exercise judgment (Verdictive), have an influence or power over a hearer (Exercitive), state intention (Commissive), or express emotions (Bihabitive), and give reason, argument, or opinion (Expositive). In other words, by uttering a sentence a speaker actually uses words to express any of these forces or functions of language.

After the introduction of Speech Act theory in 1962, Searle, who is the student of Austin, decides to develop this theory and complete it. His decision stems from two factors; the first one is the clear declaration of Austin's dissatisfaction with his classification, and the second is the limitedness of Austin's (1962) felicity conditions which cover some speech acts and neglect others. Therefore, the attempt of Searle aims at, first issuing another set of felicity conditions that cover all speech acts, second developing Speech Act theory based on the previous ideas of Austin (1962) through adding a new type of speech acts which is indirect speech act. The new list of felicity conditions issued by Searle (1969) was based on his discussion of the felicitous performance of promising and, later on, was extended to cover all different speech acts.

To further Austin's theory of Speech Act, Searle opts for systemizing the theory more through dividing speech acts into direct and indirect speech acts. A direct speech act is the one in which the form matches the function, for example, an interrogative sentence issues a question or an imperative sentence issues an order.

However, an indirect speech act is a phrase that has the illocutionary indicators for one type of illocutionary act and which may be used to issue an extra illocutionary act. This means that an indirect speech act is two illocutionary force utterances; the first one is literal and direct and the second one is non-literal and indirect. For example; an utterance like "*can you open the window please?*" has two forces, the secondary one is a literal force which is a question force and

of course that's not the intended force because, in this example, the speaker does not question the ability of the hearer to open the window. Whereas, the primary force is a non-literal force which is actually a request for the hearer to open the window and it is in fact the main intention of the speaker by his/her utterance.

In his attempt to develop Speech Act theory, Searle (1975) meticulously rearranges Austin's (1962) classification of illocutionary forces and, thus, issues a new taxonomy for speech acts. Such rearrangement is based on four directions of fit which are mainly concerned with if the words are supposed to fit the reality of the world or whether the world is supposed to fit the words. These directions are (a) word-to-world, (b) world-to-word, (c) the double direction of fit and (d) the null direction of fit. Using the four new directions as criteria enables Searle (1977) to distinguish between five different functions of language under which speech acts are performed.

These five functions of language are equivalent to the five classes of speech act that Searle (1977) issues: (a) representatives in which the speaker is committed to the truth of the proposition expressed such as claiming, affirming and stating, (b) directives through which the speaker targets producing some effect like in requesting and demanding, (c) commissives by which the speaker is committed to some future course of action as it is the case in promising and threatening, (d) expressives that help the speaker to express his attitude towards a state of affairs such as in apologising and condoling, and finally (e) declaratives which actually make a change in the state of the world like declaring and appointing.

1.3.1. Requesting

As previously mentioned, communication is more than saying or hearing things from others, but sometimes it goes beyond that to include getting people to do things or not to do them. It allows people to inform, refuse, greet, deny, agree, disagree, apologise and make requests. These speech acts have to be made in a strict and well-put manner which is agreed upon by society. In brief, making a request is not that simple as it seems since it includes different linguistic and contextual features that both the requestee and the requester should guard while making and responding to requests.

A request then is an imminent foster for social relationships in people's daily life. According to the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary [the seventh edition], a request is the act of asking for something formally and politely. It is a formal way of expressing a need for something or seeking help from someone, hence it can be a face-threatening act for both the speaker and the hearer especially if the request is a direct one that presents an imposition or an obligation for the requestee and because of this it needs special linguistic structures to be redressed (Bousfiha, 2012).

In the same line of arguments, according to Goffman (1967), while making a request, a requester "A" asks a requestee "B" to do an act while taking the politeness principle in mind. This means that it is a relation of inequality in which the requester asks for something which is lacking him/her from a requestee who is superior in such a case, and who can perform the desired action or refuse it. The

existing relationship between the requestee and requester risks the social status they desire for themselves, which is referred to by Goffman (1967) as face. Henceforth, a request is by nature a face-threatening act for the requestee and it turns to be a face-threatening act to the requester himself/herself if the requestee refuses it.

In this connection, Brown and Levinson (1987) developed a general theory of politeness that can be generalized to include all speech acts. According to this theory, the weight of politeness in performing speech acts, including requests, is calculated through the weight of face-threatening act held in speech acts. This weight is generally the outcome of three different variables: (a) social distance between interlocutors (it is quite easy to make a request from a friend or a family member than to make it from a director or stranger); (b) power between interlocutors; for instance, it is a less face-threatening act to ask a favor from a colleague than from a headmaster or a boss; (c) the rate of imposition of the face-threatening act: asking for opening a window is not like asking for money.

Making a request can take different forms in relation to the context, social distance, power and relationship between speaker and the hearer. For instance, it can take the form of an order, such as “*wake up or give me your pen*” or a question, such as “*May I borrow your umbrella please?*” Sometimes, making a request can take the form of a simple sentence, such as “*you did not clear the table*”.

A request can additionally have the structure of a simple sentence which expresses a certain requirement like “*I need a car please*”. Besides, it can take

the form of a simple comment: “*you are late*” which can be a request for the hearer to hurry up. Additionally, a request can be made through the use of mitigated questions which are performed using two expressions: “let’s” and “please”. These two expressions transform a simple sentence like “*I want your car*” into a request as in “*please I want your car*”.

Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) distinguish between two different ways of carrying out requests: “direct and indirect requests”. A direct request is the one in which the social inequality between interlocutors permits one of them to exert his/her power over the other such as in bald requests like *do this or that*. However, indirect requests are more polite requests where the politeness principle is respected to the maximum as in “*I wonder if you could possibly open the window*”. In this example, the requester tries to increase the degree of optionality for the requestee and therefore s/he weakens the force of the illocutionary force of the request.

To save face of both the requestee and the requester in making requests, Wardhaugh (1985) asserts that it is preferable for requesters to make delicate requests which give the requestee more choices to answer with different potential answers instead of “yes” or “no”. Delicate requests are always preceded by an introductory phrase that paves the way for the request in case it is demanding and causes certain obligation to the requestee. So, the requester has to make an extra effort and give a detailed introduction to his/her request, especially if s/he wants to comment on the requestee’s health, appearance or their relationship “*oh ! you*

look so beautiful today, can you possibly do me this". In this context, Wardhaugh (1985) claims that a well-constructed and gently refused request cannot be a menace to the relationship between the speaker and the hearer. However, a bald request and an inappropriate answer would damage the relationship between them.

Therefore, refusing a request in most cases is not as easy as it seems since people consider a sharp 'no' to be an impolite response. That is why Wardhaugh (1985) suggests that requestees should seek a delicate way for turning down requests. For example, they can show their disagreement using neutral expressions like "*maybe*" or "*perhaps*" such as "*Maybe we will see that*". However, if the request takes the form of a question like *can you open the window?*, the refusal can be either "*No*" but it must be softened with an explanation and a justification that show the requestee's cooperation and politeness, or even a direct explanation without "*No*" such as *It is really cold and the baby may get sick*". In addition, refusing a request can be softened by making an apology that is the main concern of the following sub-section.

1.3.2. Apologising

Due to its importance as a foster for human relationships, apologising gained undivided attention from researchers in the field of cross-cultural pragmatics. It is considered one of the essential speech acts that build and maintain harmony and stability in relationships between interlocutors in daily life. In other words, apologising is a speech act by which a wrongdoer confesses his/her responsibility for committing a mistake or harming someone and thus seeks forgiveness from him/her. The apologiser is the person who commits a psychological, social or material harm for a victim who is supposed to accept or refuse the apology.

According to Blum-Kulka and Olshain (1984), there are certain preconditions that should exist for an apology to take place. These preconditions are (a) a speaker did or about to do a harm to a hearer, (b) the harm is considered by the speaker only, by hearer only, by speaker and hearer both or by another third part as a break to the social norm they share all, and (c) the harm is considered by the hearer or the others as offending and affecting him/her in a way or in another. Moreover, for the apology to be successful it should be accepted by the hearer if not the harm would exist.

In Austin's (1962) Speech Act theory, apologies are classified with "bihabitives" speech acts such as condoling and congratulating. This category of speech acts according to this theory is concerned with reactions to behaviors towards others and targets feelings and emotions of others. Henceforth, while

apologising, the apologisee utters the expression “*I apologise*” as a locutionary act that produces an illocutionary act that is that the speaker apologises and this surely will lead to a perlocutionary act, which is that the speaker satisfies the hearer’s face.

While making an apology the speaker’s and the hearer’s faces are brought into play. According to Brown and Levinson’s (1987) theory of politeness, to save the hearer’s face after doing harm, the speaker makes a remedial apology that can placate the hearer. By doing so, s/he threatens his/her self-image, which makes an apology a face-threatening act for the speaker’s face and a face-saving act for the hearer. Yet, if the apology fails to fulfill its function, it may turn to be a new damage. In the same vein, Ogiermann (2009) says that an apology can be a new harm especially if the harm is serious to the extent that the offended does not want to be reminded of even by apologising.

An apology can take different forms and can be issued using many strategies; for instance, an apology may be a simple sentence like “*I am sorry!*” “*Excuse me*”, “*pardon me*”. It can also be a simple confession like “*it is my fault!*” or “*it is my mistake!*” Also, it can take the form of an extensive sentence like “*I really don’t know what to say but I am awfully sorry!*” or even a promise: “*I promise you, this will never happen again*”, and “*this will never be repeated*”. The use of any of these expressions according to Brown and Levinson’s theory of politeness is conditioned by the weight of the three variables that impact the FTA: social distance, social power and rate of imposition. Accordingly, apologising

from a close friend can be a simple *sorry!* However, apologising from a teacher or a boss should be an extensive sentence with a detailed explanation.

For Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984), the need for apologising to save the hearer's face can be conditioned by different factors that push the wrongdoer to take the decision to apologise and to pick up the adequate strategy for doing so; the most influential condition is the seriousness of the offense for the speaker. Additionally, the cultural affiliation of the speaker can be another factor; for example, "burping" while eating with a group of people in some western cultures is a serious offence, while the same behavior can be perceived normal in some eastern cultures like Morocco. In this case, people in western cultures are expected to apologise more than people in eastern ones. Apologising can also be an individualistic behavior, that's why some people are more apologetic than others. In addition, there may be other influential factors for apologising such as age, social status, gender, and level of education.

For apologising, the wrongdoer can use different methods or strategies to express his/her repentance and regret. In this regard, Cohen and Olshtain (1983) develop a classificatory scheme for apologies relying on the notion of indirect speech by Fraser (1981) and Searle (1975). The scheme sets five distinctive apology strategies as follows: (a) an expression of apology: *I apologise*, (b) an acknowledgement of responsibility: *it is my mistake*, (c) an explanation: *I was about to park my car and I crashed yours*, (d) an offer of repair: *I will repair it*, (e) a promise for forbearance: *this will never happen again*. Clearly, the five

strategies can be divided into direct and indirect ones; for example, the first two strategies are direct while the three remaining ones are indirect.

In sum, due to their importance as fosters of human communication, requesting and apologising are the most studied speech acts within the field of cross-cultural pragmatics. Both speech acts converge and diverge in some characteristics. For example, both speech acts aim at redressing face-threatening acts and save the speaker or the hearer's face. Yet, they differ in the sense that a request is a pre-event act, while an apology is an after-event act (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984). An apology indicates that an event has already happened or at least the speaker knows it will happen right after, whereas a request signifies that an event is about to happen in the future. Requests and apologies are also different in the way they are made, the strategies used to produce them and in the degree of politeness speakers use to make each one of them. This latter, politeness is the focus of the next sub-section.

1.4. Politeness Phenomenon

This sub-section tries to shed light on the phenomenon of politeness in language as a foster for social relationships and a softener for making requests and mitigating harms for apologising.

Besides its being a principal element in pragmatic competence, politeness is also a crucial aspect of communication especially in intercultural interactions where communication breakdown is highly expected to occur. To be polite means to respect the norms and rules agreed upon by all people. These norms can be either linguistic, including the choice of words and sentence construction, or socio-cultural such as traditions and values of a society. Due to its importance in affecting our daily communication, politeness has gained attention from several groups of researchers who develop it to be an independent theory within the frame of pragmatics as a linguistic field.

The notion of politeness has helped in understanding human interaction and improving mutual understanding between individuals from different cultures. Politeness theory explains how the smallest details of the speakers' speech are related to features of social relationships and social contexts. According to Littlejohn and Foss (2009), politeness theory helps people decipher the way S and H code and decode messages. In other words, politeness theory functions as a facilitator in the interpretation of the language produced by participants. Additionally, researchers across different domains use the theory to explore

distinctive matters, like inter-cultural misunderstandings, advising in informal relationships, business deals and meetings and teacher/student relationship.

Littlejohn and Foss (2009) go further to mention that the theory of politeness can be exploited in three different ways;(a) it can be a theory of message production and measured anticipations about the impact of social distance, social power and social ranking on the choice of politeness strategies, (b) it can a measurement tool for messages and (c) it can be a model for identifying language patterns in different contexts. In practical words, politeness theory may be used to assess the impact of D, P and R variables on the production and selection of adequate politeness strategies by the speakers, it can assist for judging polite or impolite messages and acts and finally it can be utile for recognizing politeness formulas used in specific contexts.

Brown and Levinson firstly conceived politeness as a theory in 1978. It generated from their study of similar patterns of language in three different languages and cultures (Littlejohn and Foss, 2009). In their analysis of the use of three different languages (English, Tamil, and Mexican speakers of Tzeltal), Brown and Levinson found out that participants can express the same idea or issue the same request in different manners depending on many linguistic features they use. For example, a request for opening a window can be asked in different potential ways such as ‘Can you open the window please’ or ‘I wonder if it is possible for you to open the window’ or rather implicitly say ‘it is so cold in here’.

Brown and Levinson (1987) have formulated their theory of politeness based on four major strategies that speakers use to sound polite: bald on record strategy, off-record strategy, positive politeness strategy, and negative politeness strategy. Bald on record, where an FTA is presented in unmitigated form; positive politeness, which targets the face of the addressee by indicating that in some respects, the speaker wants the hearer's wants; negative politeness, which is avoidance-based strategy entails that the speaker will not intrude with the hearer's freedom of choice and action; and off record, where the speaker does not clearly state the FTA or does so in an implicit way. That is to say, politeness is regarded as a strategic technique used to (a) maintain face, (b) show closeness, (c) keep a certain degree of formality and (d) strengthen the relationship with others.

Based on politeness, Brown and Levinson (1987) generally look at the human communicative behavior as a protective barrier to interactants from face losing and as a cooperative technique, or what Brown and Levinson (1987) refer to it as solidarity in their definition of positive politeness. In the same respect, Brown and Levinson (1987) state that politeness functions as a tool that the speaker and the hearer use to alleviate any potential aggression they hold, and therefore makes communication between potentially aggressive parts possible. This simply means that human nature holds a primitive instinctual aggressive tendency that is disarmed by politeness, which makes communication possible then.

Despite the fact that the theory of Brown and Levinson (1987) is a starting point for all researchers in the area of politeness, it has been criticised by scholars in the field of pragmatic competence at different levels, including the methodology it used to generate its findings and the model of politeness it adopted. In her analysis of Brown and Levinson's model of politeness, Mills (2003) cites different weaknesses. The fact that Brown and Levinson embrace a positive view towards politeness is the first one. In her view, politeness is negative in the sense that it can manipulate talks for the lack of sincerity, but in Brown and Levinson's model, it is assumed that politeness always means sincerity (Mills, 2003). She adds that politeness may function as a technique of escaping responsibility and it may be used as a strategy of hiding one's real intentions.

According to Mills (2003), the focus on individual strategies in Brown and Levinson's model of politeness is another weakness in the theory. This focus by Brown and Levinson on the individual strategies does not permit researchers to analyse the way in which the interlocutors are limited in their behavior because of the expectations they assume operate in the community of practice (Mills, 2003). Therefore, she suggests a new model that focuses on the processing that an individual does in relation to the rules that s/he presupposes exist within the community of practice and on the variability between speakers.

Unlike what Brown and Levinson consider, Watts (1992) argues that in language use participants should distinguish between "politic behaviors" and "polite behaviors". Watts (1992) also argues that verbal acts are measured as

polite only when they go beyond the barriers of what is considered appropriately polite. According to Mills (2003), a polite behavior is socio-cultural which means that the speaker resorts to it so as not to be culturally or socially sanctioned. Moreover, polite behavior stands for using language to make a good picture of oneself in front of others. That is to say, a polite behavior occurs after using a polite behaviour which is the normal one.

Briefly, it can be inferred that politeness has different interpretations and implications for both scholars and speakers and can be pervasively employed as a frame of analysis for the human language. Politeness should be perceived as a practice performed within a social group with all the gender, race, culture and class regulations on linguistic behaviour this entails and emphasises the difference of the measurement of politeness from one group to another and from one person to another. Ostensibly, despite the shortcomings Brown and Levinson's model of politeness entails, no one can deny its utility in understanding the human linguistic behavior in interactions.

1.4.1. Positive Politeness Culture

Based on the dichotomy made between positive and negative politeness, researchers in the field of pragmatic competence divide cultures and languages around the world in two categories: positive politeness languages/ cultures and negative politeness languages/ cultures. In this respect, researchers stress the fact that the differences between the two may cause problems and difficulties for

interlocutors to establish and maintain good relationships; for example, Japanese has been perceived as negative politeness culture. Contrariwise, in English speaking communities, especially in the U.S., distinctive preceding studies have concluded that positive politeness plays imminent role when establishing good interpersonal relationships (Yuka, 2009).

The distinction between positive and negative politeness in Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory is based on the perception of the notion of face in relation to culture. Positive politeness is defined by Brown and Levinson (1987) as politeness directed toward the positive face of the hearer; it is the positive self-image he claims for himself. This simply means that the hearer, in the case of positive politeness, is treated as a member of the same group who might share the same wants and needs of the speaker and who is highly admired by the speaker. Positive politeness is employed as a smooth tool to create and maintain solid relationship with the hearer through moving closer to him/her in the conversation.

It is of paramount importance to note that positive politeness is close to daily intimate linguistic behavior that occurs between friends and family members with some elements of exaggeration. This serves as a marker of the face-redress aspect of positive politeness expression, 'by indicating that even if the speaker cannot directly say 'I aim at your aims, he can at least indicate 'I want your positive face to be satisfied' (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Parallel to that, Yuka (2009) goes deeper claiming that acting politeness positively includes strategies that distinguish it from ordinary daily conversation.

It includes, somehow, exaggerated elements or what Yuka (2009) calls ‘elements of insincerity’ that separate a positive politeness from daily conversation. In this regard, complimenting, joking, responding definitely, and using nicknames are typical examples of positive politeness strategies.

1.4.2. Negative Politeness Culture

In a binary opposition with positive politeness strategy, Brown and Levinson (1987) issued another strategy which is negative politeness strategy. It is regarded as a “redressive act directed to the addressee’s negative face: his want to have his freedom of action unhindered and his attention unimpeded” (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 129).

In Brown and Levinson’s (1987) theory of politeness, there are three major differences between positive and negative politeness: firstly, negative politeness is always addressed to the addressee’s negative face while positive politeness is directed to his/her positive face. Secondly, negative politeness is considered to be the heart of respect behavior, but positive politeness is the essence of familiar and funny behavior. Finally, negative politeness is always focused and specific, whereas positive politeness is general and unfocused.

In negative politeness, addressing the hearer’s negative face can be done in different ways and techniques. For example, many speakers may use an avoidance strategy to respect the hearer’s wants and guarantee him/her more freedom of choice. Hence, negative politeness is distinguished by self-neutralization with

little or no attention to the hearer's self-image or needs (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), redressing face threatening acts in negative politeness is carried out using (a) apologies when transgressing or interfering, (b) hedges in the illocutionary force of the act, (c) linguistic and non-linguistic deference, (d) impersonalizing techniques (such as passive forms) that distance the speaker and the hearer from the act, and (e) other softening mechanisms that give the speaker a face saving line of escape and reassures him/her that his/her reaction is not imposed or forced.

Many cultures and languages around the world are said to be negative politeness cultures and languages due to the widely used negative politeness strategies. In this regard, Yuka (2009) reports that Japan is one of these cultures where speakers of English as a second language are not able to give good impressions to the native speakers of English because of the lack of positive politeness strategies; therefore, they give frozen impression to the native speakers of the language.

In all cultures, there are many particular ways of being polite and certain cultural norms that everyone should abide by. Violating these norms and rules may lead to certain social and cultural sanctions by society. Henceforth, there is a high possibility for misunderstanding in intercultural interactions. In this regard, Brown and Levinson (1987) draw the cultural differences between different cultures. For example, the French may sound rude to Englishmen because their

speech is more ‘aggressive’, and Americans might sound uncultured to Englishmen, while the English may sound cold or passive to Americans. In short, there are countless daily reminders of the socio-cultural relativity of politeness and of norms of acceptable and appropriate interaction.

1.4.3. Notion of Face

The theory of politeness as a whole is based on Goffman’s (1967) notion of face. For him, face can be viewed as the positive social status a person declares for himself/herself. In their turn, Brown and Levinson (1987) broadened its scope considering all speech acts to be a threat either to the speaker’s face or the hearer’s face, these face threatening acts can be redressed using politeness.

The notion of face is also derived from the English folk term, which relates face to notions of being ashamed or disgraced, or “losing face”. It is something emotionally used, improved and protected in daily interactions. Brown and Levinson (1987), therefore, consider that every person has two types of face; “negative face” and “positive face”. The positive face is defined as the want of every speaker that his wants be pleasing to some others. That is to say, the individual always seeks appreciation to his wants in interactions. However, the negative face is defined as the want of every speaker that his actions be unhindered by others. This briefly means that the individual seeks freedom and liberty of action and escapes imposition.

Basically, everyone's face relies on everyone else's maintained, and since people are expected to defend their faces if threatened, they may threaten other's faces. It is in every participant's best concern to preserve other's face (Brown & Levinson, 1987). For maintaining face, speakers always measure the weight of their speech on the basis of three significant scales: the perceived power differences between them (P), the perceived social distance between them (D) and the cultural ranking (R). The outcome of these three scales is used as a solid ground to establish and use the appropriate politeness strategy for that interaction. Brown and Levinson (1987) argue for two distinctions in relation to face threatening acts: (a) kinds of face threatened including acts that threaten negative face and acts that threaten positive face and (b) threats to hearer's face versus threats to speaker's face.

As it is previously mentioned, the notion of face which is the core of Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory of politeness received undivided attention from many researchers, especially the idea of universality of face. In this concern, many researchers insert that face can be perceived and conceptualized differently in different cultures or even in the same culture. In this realm, Nwoye (1992) suggests a difference in the conceptualization of face that is widely different from the one claimed by Brown and Levinson, this conceptualization is held by the Igbo group of Nigeria that looks at face in a more dualistic view and considers it to be a whole group concern not an individual one. Following this new

conceptualization, Nwoye (1992) suggests sub-classifying the face into 'individual face' and 'group face'.

The face is considered to be the most powerful nonverbal communicator (Harrison, 1976), it is a reflection of what is within; therefore, in collectivistic cultures like the Igbo, group face stands for the history, honour, chastity, convictions, prestige and norms of any group that can be an extended family, nuclear family, tribe, clan, town, or village. So, the misbehaviour of any member of the group surely destroys the public image the group desires to show and bring dishonour to it. Ostensibly, face conceptualization varies from one culture to another since cultures' patterns of life differ hugely, however all cultures stress the importance of saving face, be it individual or group face.

1.4.4. Politeness between Universality and Particularities

Brown and Levinson (1987) claim the universality of their theory of politeness basing this claim on the universality of two main major elements of the theory: face and rationality or reasoning. The universality of face in their model takes its power from Goffman (1971) who claims that all people, within all cultures of the world, project a public face. All humans tend to show their interest and competence in interactions and try to be valued and respected. What is culture specific in politeness according to Brown and Levinson (1987) is the content of face and the perception of power, distance and ranking in different societies.

The idea of universality in Brown and Levinson's (1987) model receives criticism by many researchers for the simple reason that Brown and Levinson's assumptions and conclusions are made on the basis of data collected from only three languages: English, Tamil and Tzeltal. Relying on three different languages makes them make many overgeneralizations for some key concepts in the research. In these three different languages, as Brown and Levinson (1987) concluded, politeness is seen as a systematic process to satisfy one's face. However, for Fukushima (2000), this definition is not necessarily valid in other cultures like China where politeness is portrayed as having a measuring function in restricting individual speech acts.

The notion of face in Brown and Levinson theory has received a lot of criticism by many researchers. Vilkki (2006) is one of those who think that Brown and Levinson presume a generalizable individualistic notion of face, which is not valid to all cultures especially those with collectivistic tendencies. In the same line of argument, Vilkki (2006) carries on and says that many researchers from African and Asian cultures, as well as from Islamic cultures, criticize the individualistic interpretation of face and the validity of the notion of negative face in Brown and Levinson's theory.

In the cultural and linguistic contexts where Brown and Levinson (1987) conducted their research (English, Tamil and Tzeltal.), losing face is always individual based, however, for many cultural groups, loss of face signifies primarily problems over the perception of a member's place in the social system

of the group, which is of significance for the operation of the group as a unity, rather than in terms of individuals face loss. Moreover, claiming the universality of the politeness theory by Brown and Levinson while relying on only three languages may be considered ethnocentric since that it starts from English and makes from it an example for all other languages.

1.4.5. Socio-Cultural Variables and Politeness

Brown and Levinson indicated several variables that affect the level of politeness in any interaction. These variables are categorized into three inextricably linked umbrella variables that are ‘universal’ for all cultures and which are mostly used in computing the weightiness of an FTA: Power (P), Distance (D) and Rank of imposition(R). The choice of these three major variables, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), stems from the fact that all actors presuppose a mutual perception and knowledge between them that these variables are of great significance and have some particular values.

Power is an asymmetric socio-cultural measurement of relative power, roughly in Weber’s sense. That is, $P(H, S)$ is the extent to which the hearer can enforce his/her own plans and his/her own self-assessment (Brown & Levinson, 1987). This suggests a high correlation between power and politeness in interactions, so the more power of S increases over H the more the weightiness of the FTA decreases. Brown and Levinson (1987) remark that power in interactions can be attributed to two main sources: (a) material control and it is represented by

having control over economic distribution and physical force, and (b) metaphysical control that includes having power over actions of others by virtue of metaphysical force.

It is because of this variable (power) that Brown and Levinson (1987) categorize cultures according to whether they put emphasis on status differences or not. This means, despite the universality of the notion of power in politeness, the value given to it, undoubtedly, differs from one culture to another, therefore, not only P is measured differently in a specific situation, but also that the array of potential P values varies across cultures (Ogiermann (2009).

Distance (D) is the second socio-cultural variable that affects politeness. It is defined by Brown and Levinson (1987) as a “symmetric social dimension of similarity/difference within which S and H stand for the purposes of this act” (p. 76). Measuring the distance between the interlocutors is attained through gauging the frequency of interaction and the kinds of non-material goods exchanged between the speaker and the hearer. In this concern, Fukushima (2000) says that one of the challenges in measuring social distance is the fact that relationships among speakers are dynamic and open to negotiation.

The influence of this variable on interactions and politeness strategies is clearly remarkable in all cultures, nevertheless this does not deny that the extent to which people make strong relationships vary from one culture to another depending on whether that culture is individualistic or collectivistic. Individualism and collectivism are tendencies and patterns of life developed in

the family, and they are directly related to whether the interactants are brought up in nuclear or extended families. Consequently, interactants from western (individualistic) cultures seek longer social distance in interactions, while others from eastern (collectivistic) cultures seek a close social distance.

The last variable that impacts politeness in Brown and Levinson's (1987) point of view is the rank of imposition. R is culturally and situationally defined as ranking of impositions by the level to which they are expected to interfere with a speaker's desires of independence or of approval (his negative- and positive- face wants) (Brown and Levinson, 1987). Within the R variable, Brown and Levinson (1987) distinguish between different scales or ranks depending on the politeness strategy used. For example, for negative face FTAs there are two different ranks: (a) rank order of imposition requiring services and (b) rank imposition requiring goods; however, the rank for FTAs against positive face involves the amount of pain given to the hearer's face.

Relying on these three variables in measuring politeness is criticized by many researchers who think that Brown and Levinson hold a simplistic and impressionistic view about variables that may affect their model. In this vein, Mills (2003) agrees with Scolon and Scolon (1995) who criticize Brown and Levinson for denying other direct variables like age that can be, according to them, a fundamental variable for people to assess politeness.

1.4.6. Politeness Strategies

Following the distinction made by Durkheim between positive and negative rites, Brown and Levinson (1987), as already mentioned, developed two different on record politeness strategies: positive politeness strategies and negative politeness strategies. In essence, positive politeness strategies are said to demonstrate closeness and affiliation while negative politeness strategies are redressive actions addressed to the addressee's negative face. In practical terms, the strategy of negative politeness is related to virtues of sociability and civility such as neighbourhood, friendship, partnership, etc. The strategy of positive politeness on the other hand is associated with the values of intimacy and solidarity which foster smooth and efficient work; it is employed in interactions related to the domain of employment (Ide et al, 1986).

A positive politeness strategy is mostly known to be used by participants who know each other very well. Yet, it can be also used as a trigger for social intimacy between interlocutors. For the same reason, positive politeness strategies are useful not only for FTAs repair but in general as a kind of social foster (Septyaningsih, 2007). However, it is generally estimated that negative politeness strategy is more polite and appropriate than positive politeness strategy.

The use of a negative politeness strategy is mainly indicated by the risk of face loss of a face-threatening act. For more illustration, two different examples can be drawn: 'Oh my God! You bought a nice shirt. Mm... I remember, I came to borrow some sugar' and 'can you lend me some money?'; the first one functions

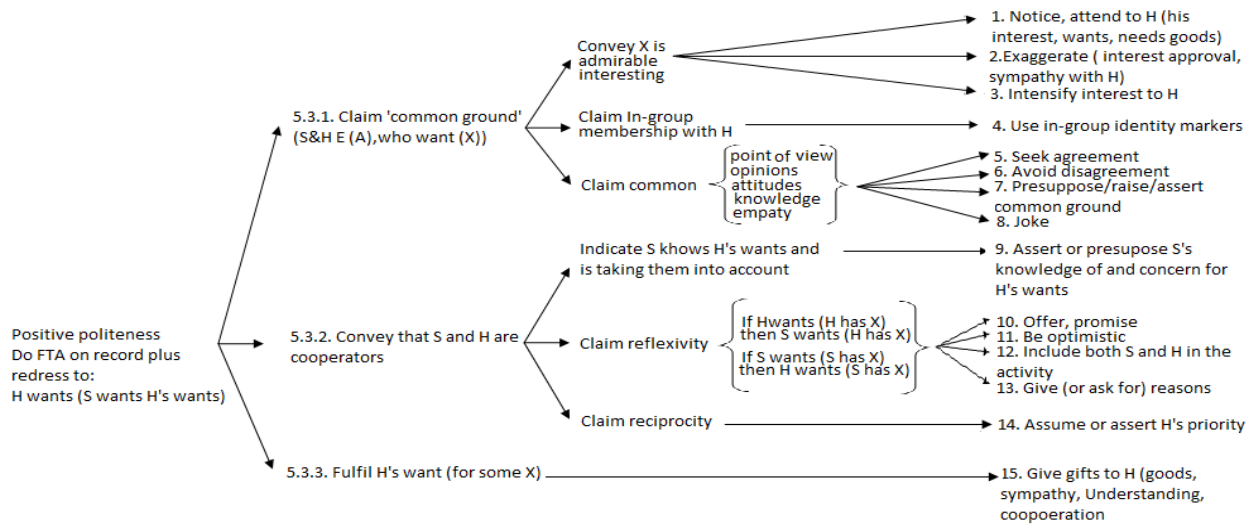
as a positive politeness strategy based on indicating intimacy then making a request, denoting that there is a close relationship between the participants, whilst the second one represents negative politeness expressed using a question which in fact implies a request.

1.4.6.1. Positive Politeness Strategies

In their model of politeness strategies, Brown and Levinson (1987) distinguish between different positive politeness strategies, these strategies are grouped within the frame of three mechanisms: (a) claiming common ground, (b) conveying that S and H are co-operators and (c) fulfilling H's wants for some X. The first mechanism entails conveying that X is admirable and interesting, claiming membership with H and claiming common point of view, opinion, attitude, knowledge and empathy. The second includes indicating that S knows H's wants and is taking them into account, claiming reflexivity and claiming reciprocity. However, the last one encloses giving gifts and presents and showing cooperation. In their turn, these three branches ramify to include fifteen strategies constituting positive politeness strategies which are simply put in the following figure:

Figure 1

Adapted from: (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p.102)



Strategy 1: Notice, Attend to Hearer (his interest, wants, needs and goods)

In fact, this strategy is one of the eight strategies that constitute the first mechanism of positive politeness which is claiming common ground. It indicates that the speaker should bear in mind the hearer’s status and show care of his/her status in case of remarkable changes in the appearance, properties and valuable things for him/her. In this regard, Brown and Levinson’s (1987) draw an explanatory example: ‘What a beautiful vase is this! Where did it come from?’ This sentence suggests that the Speaker notices the beauty of the vase which possibly has a special value for the hearer and that’s why s/he makes it the center of his/her concern. Similarly, this strategy can be used also if the hearer is feeling cold, a positive polite way to show care from the speaker side is to close the window or bring him/her a blanket or a coat. More Examples in English:

- 1) After a very tiring trip, you must be very exhausted; would you like to sleep for a while?
- 2) Your car is fantastic and seems to be very comfortable; it must cost you arm and leg! Right?
- 3) I see that you look handsome as usual; can you help me to dress like you?

In these examples (1, 2 and 3) the speaker tends to show concern for the hearer's condition (being tired, looking so handsome, or owning a nice car) and therefore tries to satisfy his positive face.

Strategy 2: Overstate (concern, endorsement, empathy with hearer)

This strategy can be complementary to the first one in the sense that, the speaker uses different intensifiers and some paralinguistic features like stress, exaggerating intonation and pitch to show his/her care and concern for the hearer's condition especially in case of sorrow and happiness as in the following examples:

- 4) Oh! what a terrible accident, I'm so glad that you are ok
- 5) I know how you must be feeling. It was a hilarious accident
- 6) Oh God! How marvellous is your little daughter she looks like an angel.
Can I carry her for a moment?

In the example 4 and 5, the speaker tries to satisfy the hearer's positive face through showing sympathy and care for the hearer, this is attained firstly via using the exaggerating intensifiers (terrible and hilarious), then through showing his/her

happiness and care for the hearer's safety. Similarly, in example 6, the speaker knows that the hearer loves his daughter, and to satisfy his positive face, he focuses on the daughter's beauty and innocence using exaggerating intonation (Oh God!) and the intensifier (marvelous).

Strategy 3: Intensify concern to the hearer

This strategy represents another way by which the speaker tends to show the sharing of some of the hearer's interests. Brown and Levinson (1987) assert that this strategy is mostly fulfilled by making a story that takes two different forms; the first one is the use of vivid present through including the hearer in the events of this story, and therefore increasing his/her interest in the conversation, it can include a switch in the narration tenses mainly between the past and the present (S7). The second one is the use of directly quoted speech rather than indirect reported speech, along with exaggerating expressions and tag questions (S8).

- 7) Guess what? Yesterday, I went to watch the football match in the stadium and as you know that isn't easy, the street was so crowded and there were many fights but fortunately the police intervened to solve the problem. Believe me; I will not go there again.
- 8) It is raining cats and dogs, you should take your umbrella
- 9) Hold on, I will be back in half a second

In the example above (S7) there is a clear manifestation of the speaker's interest to the hearer and that he tries to save his positive face through including him in the events through using 'You know' and 'Guess what'. Though in (S8) there seems to be a high possibility for an FTA, the FTA is redressed by assuming the speaker's sincere intentions and care for the hearer's safety and health.

Strategy 4: Employ In-group Identity Markers

This strategy is based on claiming a common ground between the speaker and the hearer and demonstrating a sense of cooperation. The common ground is the belonging to the same group either via using the same spoken language, slang dialect, or even a common jargon. It can be done in different ways; like (a) the use of common names and titles (buddy, lad, man, brother, sister, sweetheart, honey, fellow, guys, boys...etc) which softens imperatives via reducing the weight of power and distance like in (S12). It can be also done through (b) the use of in-group language or dialect; this phenomenon takes place in the case of code switching as Brown and Levinson (1987) suggest, especially when the speaker wants to show that s/he belongs to the same class or linguistic group with the hearer like in the case of Black Americans or Hispanics.

- 10) Guys I'm late, the traffic was so crowded
- 11) That seat is taken by my friend dear lad
- 12) Honey this outfit suits you more. Try it

The in-group can be shown via the use of jargon and slang represented by the shared terminology between the speaker and the hearer. By appointing to an object with a slang expression, S may recall all the mutual associations and attitudes that s/he and H both have toward that object and this may be utilized as FTA remedy. The use of contractions and ellipsis is another positive politeness strategy to claim common ground based on the use of contracted nicknames like in English (Tom, Jose, Pepe, Tito, Leo).

Strategy 5: Seek Agreement

Another mechanism for claiming common ground with the hearer is to seek a maximum agreement with him. This strategy can be possibly used in two ways as Brown and Levinson (1987) claim; either through the choice of safe topics or repetition. Choosing a safe topic not only saves the hearer's face but also feeds his/her desire of being right and having a solid opinion, and consequently strengthens his/her rapport with the speaker. A safe topic can be a chat about the weather, the atmosphere, waiting and queuing in lines, social problems and kids' education (S13).

Agreement also can be manifested in repeating some of what the speaker said as a sign of attentiveness (S15), this would certainly keep the conversation run smoothly and may go beyond this to maintain the relationship between the speaker and the hearer in reciprocal appreciation atmosphere.

- 13) Today is the second day in winter but the heat is killing me, I don't know what to wear actually
- 14) Bringing up a kid nowadays is not like before isn't it?
- 15) A: Yesterday I went to the supermarket and I spent almost half of my salary
B: Really, half of your salary!

Strategy 6: Avoid Controversy

There are four techniques to escape disagreement: 'token agreement', 'pseudo-agreement', 'white lies' and 'hedging opinion'. For token agreement, it stems from the fact that the hearer would always agree with the speaker, this pushes him/her sometimes to pretend the agreement and hide his/her disagreement; for example, in (S16) the hearer does not, in fact, agree with the hearer that s/he likes drama films, but to save the speaker's face s/he claims to like them from time to time, this makes the speaker feel that his/her opinion is right and pertinent.

As far as "Pseudo-agreement" (S17 and 18) is concerned, Brown and Levinson (1987) confirm that this strategy is performed in English via the use of 'then' and 'so' pretending a preceding agreement and as a conclusive indicator, and demonstrating that the speaker is drawing a conclusion to a line of reckoning carried out communally with the hearer.

Concerning white lies, they are used when the speaker is obliged to state a favourable fake opinion for the hearer; it is a diplomatic way to avoid damaging the hearer's positive face or refusing a request. In a white lie, both the speaker and hearer may know that this is not true, but the hearer's face is saved by not having his request refused (Brown & Levinson, 1987) like in the S19 where B refused to give his cell phone to A, pretending that the cell phone is out of charge.

16) A: I notice that you like to watch drama films

B: Yeah, from time to time

17) Tomorrow we will finish our last task then?

18) So, you will do your best to help us?

19) A: Your cell phone looks so nice can I see it?

B: Oh! Sorry it is out of charge

The last strategy to avoid disagreement in Brown and Levinson's (1987) model is hedging opinion. As its name suggests, it is based on stating a very vague opinion hiding disagreement with the hearer through using either words that make it part of positive politeness and not negative one such as marvelous, fantastic, incredible, amazing, extraordinary and despicable, or intensifying modifiers like completely and absolutely.

Hedges normally are negative politeness strategies, but some hedges can play this positive-politeness role as well, most notably (in English) for example using sort of, kind of, like, in a way. They help the speaker to hide his standpoint and escape stating a clear communication attitude. For example:

20) I don't know, I kind of side with you

21) Yeah, that's a sort of needed help

Strategy 7: Assume/ Raise/Assert Common Ground

Having common ground with the hearer is the ultimate aim and the effective outlet for the speaker to redress FTAs, this strategy includes three different pathways: 'gossip or small talk', 'point of view operation' and 'presupposition and manipulation'. For gossip or small talk, it consists of time spent by the speaker with the hearer talking some side topics as a symbol of friendship and intimacy, the talk's main purpose is generally paving the ground for making a request. This suggests that gossip or small talk is used as a redress for the FTA of request so as not to show that the speaker is an opportunist who has come just to make request.

At the level of point of view operation, the speaker's intention is to reduce the distance between his/her opinion and the hearer's opinion by means of deixis. Deixis has to do with ways sentences are constructed to specific aspects of their contexts of utterances, involving the role of interlocutors in the speech event and their spatio-temporal and social position (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Reducing distance between opinions can be done in three major ways that are: personal-center switch, time switch and place switch. By personal center switch, Brown and Levinson (1987) mean the speaker to the hearer. This is where the hearer speaks as if s/he were the speaker, or hearer's knowledge is equal to

the speaker's knowledge such as (S22) where the speaker uses a tag question or (S23) where the hearer is trying to show his/her sympathy.

22) I wasted so much time on that task but in vain, did not I?

23) A: Losing one's mother is the hardest issue in life it makes you very old

B: Yes indeed, it is heart breaking

The second strategy by which the speaker can reduce distance and increase interest in his/her talk is the switch from one tense to another (past/present), especially in telling stories. This strategy, which is referred to by Brown and Levinson (1987) as 'Vivid present', is conceived as a positive politeness device in English like in (S24). A switch in place is again another device by which the speaker can reduce distance; it is the use of proximal rather than distal indicators (this rather than that) (Brown & Levinson, 1987). An additional form to reduce distance is the use of verbs of movement (from and to); for instance, go/come and give/take like in (S26)

24) My mother asks do you want to have lunch.

25) (discussing a presentation) This was an informative one.

26) Take this book and give it to Ali.

As to the last pathway for making common ground with the hearer, it is called presupposition manipulations. As the word itself suggests, the speaker assumes sharing certain aspects with the hearer. At this level, the speaker firstly tends to assume and presuppose knowledge of H's wants and attitudes; this entails closed-ended questions that presume a 'yes' answer and which show that the

speaker has previous knowledge about the hearer's wants, attitudes, habits, demands, thoughts and opinions such as in (S27).

Secondly, Presuppose H's values are the same as S's values; the use of measuring expressions such as 'short' presupposes that S and H have the same criteria for categorizing people or things on this scale, bearing in mind the relativity of scales for people. Thirdly, presuppose familiarity in S-H relationship; this was previously illustrated in (Strategy 4). It is the use of softening and familiar words and titles like (honey, sweetie, buddy, man, sister, brother...etc) as a clear redress for FTA to show a close-intimate relationship between the speaker and the hearer.

Finally, presuppose H's knowledge; using any expression presupposing (in some senses) that the referents are common to the addressee (Brown & Levinson, 1987). In essence, this entails that the speaker assumes that the hearer shares the same jargon, code, dialect, or language such as in (S28) where the speaker assumes that the hearer knows who Stephanie is for him which is not true in fact.

27) Don't you want to sleep

28) You know, when I was walking with Stephanie, I tried to call you but
in vain.

Strategy 8: Joke

Jokes are magic tools for making people feel at ease and reassuring them. They are one of the adequate pathways for redressing an FTA when making a request. Jokes are cultural and they are, by nature, built on having a cultural shared

background between the speaker and the hearer; that's why, they are considered to be a basic positive politeness strategy. Yet, they can be also viewed as an off-record strategy in the sense that the speakers can evade committing particular acts by saying 'I was only kidding' (Sifianou, 1997).

Strategy 9: Stress or Presume S's Awareness of and Concern for H's Wants

This strategy relies on assuming and presupposing the hearer's wants and needs, and therefore probably, to force the hearer to collaborate with the speaker. This entails the fact that both the speaker and the hearer are collaborative and share the same goal. This strategy can be achieved through using different expressions like "I know", "I'm sure" and "I see" which express prior knowledge of the hearer's needs such as in (S29 and 30).

29) I know that we are late but, we have to fix this problem before we go
(request)

30) I see that you wasted so much time on this but it needs extra work

Strategy 10: Offer, Promise

Showing cooperation with the hearer to redress an FTA can be also done via the use of offers and Promises, claiming that the speaker cares about the good of the hearer. Offers are considered to be very polite acts that help the addressee to avoid requests bearing in mind the fact that offering is more favorable technique than requesting only if both interlocutors consider offering to be less impressive

than requesting; in other words, if they share the same socio-cultural background (Sifianou, 1997). This suggests that an offer is by nature favoured by all participants, therefore, most of the time it takes a direct and clear form since they are not face-threatening acts like in (S31).

However, Nwoye (1992) asserts that albeit offers are always regarded to be generous acts from the speaker, they may include an imposition and become a face-threatening act. For example, if the speaker is about to leave a festivity, the hostess offers him/her one more drink and if his/her is staying to have it could make him/her miss the bus, s/he might perceive her offer as an burden, because it would (if accepted), constrain him/her to act in a way different from his/her immediate intentions (Nwoye, 1992).

31) Do you need help?

At the same level, a promise also is a favourable act for doing the hearer a favour. Yet, to make a genuine promise the speaker should abide by the four conditions set by John Searle (1976) and stated by Wardhaugh (1985) as the following: Firstly, a promise should be made using the first personal pronouns “I” or “We” and should be in the future (S32). Secondly, the hearer should really like something to be done for him or not to be done otherwise the promise turns to be a threat (S33). Thirdly, it should be about something attainable and logical that’s why the speaker must be as sincere as possible in promising. Finally, there should be an appropriate use of promising expressions such as “I promise” or “We will”.

32) I promise to visit you tomorrow

- 33) I will kill you

Strategy 11: Be optimistic

This strategy is also based on a presupposed cooperation between the speaker and the hearer. That is, the speaker assumes that the hearer wants his/her wants (or even their wants) and therefore is going to help him/her achieve those wants. This presupposition of cooperation pushes the speaker to be more optimistic and presumptuous through using expressions that minimize the weight of the face-threatening act such as in (S34, 35 and 36).

- 34) You will help me pass my exams, hopefully.
- 35) I'm quite sure that you wouldn't mind opening that window
- 36) You will go with me, right?

Strategy 12: Involve both Interlocutors in the Activity

This strategy is based upon the idea of cooperation presupposition between the hearer and the speaker. It is more inclusive in the sense that instead of using the first personal pronoun "I" the speaker tends to use "We" to show that the hearer and s/he are the same. This strategy is pervasively used in the English language through the use of "Let's" for example in (S73) where the speaker tries to soften his/her request.

- 37) Let's stop talking for a while (stop talking)
- 38) Let's have a pause (give me a break)

Strategy 13: Give (or ask for) Reasons

For this strategy, the speaker tries to be inclusive to the hearer via giving him/her reasons justifying his/ her choices. By giving reasons the speaker can lead the hearer to share his/her needs or wants. That is to say, giving reasons is a technique by which the speaker shows his/her cooperation with the hearer. It can be used to specify the type of help or need the hearer wants. Giving or asking for reasons can be direct or indirect; for example, in (S39) the speaker uses an indirect suggestion demanding reasons for not going to the stadium.

This strategy is a conventionalized positive politeness strategy in English as stated in Brown and Levinson (1987). Clearly, this strategy is useful in the case of complaining and criticizing by using the expression ‘why not’ especially in past events such as in (S40) wherein the speaker tries to criticize the hearer for not offering help when needed.

39) Why not go with me to the stadium?

40) Why did not you lend a helping hand

Strategy 14: Presume or Declare Reciprocation

Cooperation between the speaker and the hearer in all previous strategies is claimed or urged implicitly, however in assuming and asserting reciprocity the speaker may show this cooperation clearly to the hearer through denoting rights and duties getting into a win-win relationship. For example; the speaker may say, in effect, ‘I will do this for you if you do that for me’, or ‘I did that for you last

time, so you do this for me this time' or vice versa (Brown & Levinson, 1987). This simply means that the speaker opts for softening and reducing an FTA of some speech acts (like criticism and complaining) by mentioning reciprocal rights and duties. For example:

- 41) I think I buy some drinks for our party and you buy some cakes, right?

Strategy 15: Offer presents to the Hearer (commodities, understanding, empathy, collaboration)

The last strategy in the positive politeness list is giving gifts to the hearer. This strategy directly targets the positive face of the hearer by satisfying his/her wants and needs. Giving gifts may include concrete gifts that show the fact that the speaker knows the hearer's needs (giving goods), and also abstract symbolic gifts such as understanding, sympathy, admiration and love. Giving gifts may help the hearer to obtain and satisfy one of the human desires which is to be liked and appreciated by all others. That's why Brown and Levinson consider this strategy to be one of the classical adequate positive politeness strategies.

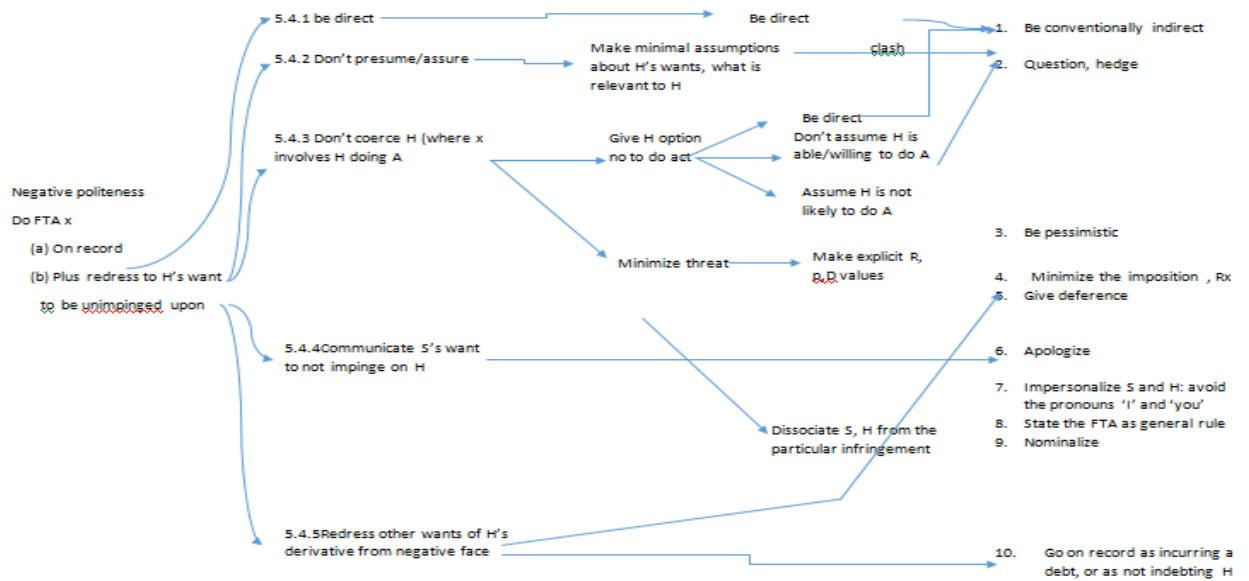
1.4.6.2. Negative Politeness Strategies

Negative politeness remarkably received too much attention from many scholars, due to the fact that it is direct and clearly noticed. This explains the availability of a huge number of references about it in etiquettes and formal politeness books. Negative politeness includes both on-record delivery and redress of an FTTA. That is to say; it includes two paradoxical wants of the speaker: the first one is a desire to be direct choosing doing an FTA on record, and the second one is a desire to be indirect choosing not to coerce the speaker. Yet, a possible compromise can be reached in this regard as Brown and Levinson (1987) assert especially in the first negative politeness strategy which is being conventionally indirect.

In negative politeness, a distinction is made between ten distinctive focused and specific strategies the speaker can use to minimize imposition that the FTA inescapably makes. These strategies are grouped within four major mechanisms that are: be direct, don't presume/assume, don't coerce hearer, communicate S's wants to not impinge on H and finally redress other want of H's wants derivative from the negative face. These strategies are well illustrated in the following figure:

Figure 2

Adapted from: (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p.131)



Strategy 1: Be Conventionally Indirect

In this strategy, the speaker tends to overcome the difficulty of combining directness and indirectness through using what Brown and Levinson (1987) refer to as conventional indirectness. It is the use of utterances and sentences that have contextually indirect idiomatic meanings (by virtue of conventionalization) which are dissimilar to their literal meanings (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

This compromise between directness and indirectness gives birth to the use of indirect speech acts which are the manifestation of conventional indirectness. A speech act, as defined by Searle (1976), has been claimed as the kind of things that can be performed by means of utterances, and that carry in their structure indications of their paradigmatic use or 'illocutionary force'. Henceforth, a simple

question can function as a hidden request like in (S1 and S2) where the speaker asks for getting a pen or an umbrella.

- 1) Can you lend me your car?
- 2) May I use your umbrella for a while?

Indirect conventionalization is considered to be a high polite strategy in communication. In this regard, Van der Wijst (1995) convincingly agrees with leech (1983) saying that indirect illocutions are more polite because: (a) they boost the level of optionality for the hearer (by offering more ways out for him/her), and (b) because the more implicit a locution is, the weaker is the real illocutionary force.

Consequently, this leads Leech (1983) to constitute a politeness principle that tackles politeness in terms of costs and benefits. An utterance is more polite if it increases the hearer's benefits and decreases his costs on the one hand and increases the speaker costs and decreases his benefits on the other hand. A speech act should abide by the felicity conditions set by Searle (1969) and Austin (1962) to be felicitous. For example, for an offer to be felicitous the speaker should have control over the thing offered, and the hearer should want or accept that offer, otherwise, the offer would be infelicitous.

Strategy 2: Question, Hedge

This strategy is mainly built upon keeping a distance from the hearer that is why the speaker does not necessarily assume or presume the hearer's intentions and wants. This simply means, the speaker tends to target the hearer's negative

face through being direct in his/her talk. Achieving this strategy is done via asking questions as it is already discussed in indirect conventionalization, where the question can function as a speech act or through the use of hedge. In the literature, a hedge is considered to be a specific word or sentence that changes the level of association of a predicate or a noun phrase in a set (Brown & Levinson, 1987). It gives more prominence to the speaker's commitment and therefore affects the illocutionary force.

Formulating a hedged sentence is accomplished either through hedges on illocutionary force through using intonation and particles that strengthen the performative force; such as in (S3 and S4), and which are, in turn, divided into strengtheners (exactly, precisely...) and weakeners or softeners, or through prosodic and kinesic hedges that include some nonverbal forms such as shaking shoulder, frowning and raising eyebrow as a clue for indicating a certain attitude towards things being said. Hedging using facial expression is used as reinforcement to hedges on the illocutionary force, that's why in many cultures, the utterance 'I don't know' or 'who knows' are accompanied with a eyebrow raising or shoulder shaking.

3) I *personally* think that you are right

4) I think that he *sincerely* can be of some help for you

Strategy 3: Be Pessimistic

This strategy is characterized by the use of indirect request merged with a high probability or doubt to redress FTA and to target the hearer's negative face. It encodes pessimistic politeness through three main realizations; firstly, through the use of the negative form with tags such as in (S5), secondly through the use of the subjunctive like in (S6) and finally through the use of remote possibility indicators for example in (S7).

- 5) You don't have an extra pen, do you?
- 6) Could you open the window?
- 7) *Maybe* you would offer some help

Strategy 4: Minimize the Imposition, Rx

Talking about imposition leads back to the three imminent factors that may cause it. These factors, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), are social Power, social distance and social ranking. They can be the source of an FTA made because of the use of a certain strategy. Henceforth, minimizing an imposition is done via reducing the seriousness of social ranking; this act reassures the hearer and makes him/her feel that there is no difference between him/her and the speaker such as in (S8 and S9). Apparently, reducing the social ranking is realized by using euphemisms such as 'Just' meaning 'only', the use of expressions such as a small part, a little bit, a bit, a while and a very tiny.

- 8) I just wonder if you can open the window

9) Can I have your car for a while?

Strategy 5: Give Deference

Giving deference is a negative politeness strategy that is based on either glorifying the hearer using honorifics or underestimating oneself, seeking the satisfaction of the hearer using humiliating forms. In essence, this strategy is based on showing the hearer a higher degree of respect than the speaker or that both the speaker and the hearer show a high degree of respect for each other. In other words, giving deference is a technique by which the speaker can soften an FTA indicating that his utterance does not represent any threat to the hearer. As Brown and Levinson (1987) assert, this linguistic phenomenon can be found in almost all languages through the use of humiliating words and expressions such as stupid, mistaken, afraid, idiot and silly, or glorifying the speaker through the use of many forms of honorifics like titles and plurality in speech.

Being polite can be reached through underestimating one's self, one's thoughts, one's wants and one's properties to satisfy the hearer's face and make him/her feel that s/he is socially superior and powerful than the speaker, no matter what social status the speaker might have. For example, in talking to a boss at work, an engineer may behave submissively and show lack of knowledge while receiving directions from the boss who might have a lower diploma in the domain of work, so when responding s/he may use very short sentences with no interruptions to the boss speech, along with certain nonverbal features that show

his/her humbleness. In most languages, this form is associated with women's style in language, in this concern, Brown and Levinson (1987) claim that one of the feature behaviour patterns of females in various communities is their deferent self-belittlement in front of males.

Showing deference is pervasively realized in most languages through glorifying the speaker. Due to their excessive use in language, Brown and Levinson (1987) go far to agree with Fillmore (1975) saying that honorifics are properly a major part of the deictic system of language. A honorific can take many forms; for example, it can be the use of plural forms that are considered a polite way for showing respect, or the use of titles like 'Sir, Madam, Mr, Mrs, Miss, Professor and Doctor' such as in (S10).

Honorifics are divided into three axes as asserted by Comrie (1976): (a) 'the speaker- addressee axis'; this entails honorifics from the speaker to the hearer, (b) 'the speaker-referent axis'; it includes the relation of speaker to things or persons referred to, (c) 'the speaker-bystander axis'; it contains the relation of speaker or hearer to bystanders or overhearers, and later on Brown and Levinson (1987) added a fourth category which is 'the speaker-sitting axis'.

10) I wonder if you can lend me a helping hand professor

Strategy 6: Apologise

Apologising is the ultimate key to cater to a fault. By apologising for committing a mistake, the speaker can show his/her reluctance and regret to impinge on the hearer's negative face and thereby partially remedy that

impingement (Brown & Levinson, 1987). That is to say, it is a humiliating act for the speaker's face that could be a face-threatening act for him/her and at the same time, it is a face-saving act for the hearer.

On a similar note, Goffman (1971) defines apologies as remedial interchanges used by the speaker to reset social harmony and intimacy after a real or a virtual offense. An apology needs certain conditions without which it would be infelicitous such as the apologiser should acknowledge that an offense has taken place, s/he should be responsible for that offense and finally, s/he must offer remedy or reparation for that offense. In brief, these conditions are grouped by Bataineh (2006) into three Rs that the wrongdoer should do: Regret, responsibility and remedy.

Accordingly, Brown and Levinson (1987) presented four ways to communicate regret and reluctance which are, admit the impingement such as in (S11), indicate reluctance like in (S12), give overwhelming reasons in (S13) and finally beg forgiveness for example (S14). In the same line of arguments, Nuredden (2008) adopted Olshain's and Cohen's (1983) five apology strategies that can be an extension to those of Brown and Levinson (1987): an illocutionary force indicating device which is referred to by (IFID) such as (I'm sorry or pardon me), an expression of wrongdoer's responsibility for the offense, an account of cause of violation, an offer of repair and finally a promise of forbearance.

However, an apology can't be complete until the offended accepts or appreciates the apology. To be truly effective, an apology must be accepted, only

then the fault or the mistake can be repaired (Wardhaugh, 1985). This simply means that, if it is not accepted the injury still exists and this makes the wrongdoer lose faces.

- 11) I know it's too much for you, but you have to do your task again
- 12) I hope I'm not bothering you, but I need your help again
- 13) I'm completely sure that nobody can do this so please help me fix my problem
- 14) I'm awfully sorry for making too much noise tonight

Strategy 7: Impersonalize S and H

To avoid impingement on the hearer's face, impersonalizing both speaker and hearer is the widespread strategy in this regard. To avoid reference to interlocutors being involved in the FTA speakers can: Firstly, use performatives realized through the avoidance of 'I' and 'You' pronouns in making speech acts such as 'do me a favour' instead of '*I* want *you* to do me a favour'. Secondly, use imperatives which are considered to be one of the most face-threatening speech acts. This explains the reason most languages tend to delete the 'you' of the subject while commanding for instance such as 'open the window' instead of 'you open the window'.

Thirdly, use impersonal verbs; this strategy is made up through a total omission of the doer of the action which gives more prominence to the verb in the sentence on the one hand, and the use of modals and verbs of desire on the other

hand; for example, 'it's worthy to' or 'it should be'. Fourthly, use passive and circumstantial voices; the use of the passive is the most common form used in all languages to avoid references to people involved in the FTA. It is achieved through making the object of a sentence the main concern for the speaker and the hearer rather than the doer of the action. The passive voice can help in avoiding accusations and blame for doing harm such as in 'The window was broken' instead of saying 'I broke the window'.

Impersonalizing the speaker and hearer can be additionally attained through the substitution of the pronouns 'I' and 'you' by indefinites. That is to say, the subject can be replaced by indefinites such as 'one must be patient' as a polite way for asking someone to be patient instead of 'you must be patient' which seems more imposing. The pluralization of the 'you' and 'I' pronouns is another strategy by which interlocutors can be impersonalized. This strategy can be adequate in two major cases; the first one is when the speaker seeks to blur differences between him/her and the hearer, and the second one is in collectivistic cultures where the individual can be representative of the whole group.

The use of address terms as 'you' avoidance is also used to impersonalize both speaker and hearer, the use of you (singular) can be a rude way to address the hearer like in 'pardon me you' that's why, an address term such as 'Sir, Miss or Madam' can be softening for example: 'Pardon me, Sir'. Moreover, reference terms as 'I' avoidance can be also utile in this regard, for instance, a director can say 'the president is not satisfied with your performance' instead of 'I'm not

satisfied with your performance’, this entails a distinction between two personalities of the director; a personal one and an administrative one.

Finally, impersonalization of the speaker and hearer is fulfilled via the use of point of -view distancing. This strategy relies on a switch in time between present and past, for example; a speaker may say ‘I was thinking if it is possible for you to give me a ride’ instead of ‘I’m thinking if it is possible for you to give me a ride which is less distant than the first one.

Strategy 8: Declare the FTA as a Code of Conduct

Another way for distancing both speaker and hearer from the imposition is to state the FTA as a general rule that everyone should abide by and claim that the imposition comes from the law that should be respected by all people. This strategy is realized firstly using pronoun avoidance such as ‘students are not allowed to use their phones in the classroom’ which implicitly can be directed to one person rather than a direct sentence like ‘you are not allowed to use your phones in the classroom’.

Likewise, the imposition might be stated as a global and general obligation for instance a teacher might say to his/her student ‘We don’t use mobile phones in the classroom’ instead of being direct and saying ‘you cannot use your mobile phone in the classroom’. This implies, the teacher does not want to sound authoritative in the classroom, but rather s/he wants to show his/her students that there is a law that everyone, including himself/herself, should respect.

Strategy 9: Nominalize

This strategy suggests that the degree of formality can be measured in the syntactic form of a sentence. For example; in English, forms of formality in negative politeness always go hand in hand with degrees of nouniness; that is, formality is always related to the noun end of the continuum (Brown & Levinson, 1987). In this regard, they draw the following example:

- “(a) You performed well in the examinations and we were favourably impressed
- (b) You performing well on the examinations impressed us favourably
- (c) Your good performance on the examinations impressed us favourably” (p. 206)

Noticeably, the three sentences tend to convey the same message but with different syntactic forms which affects their degree of formality. For example, sentence (c) seems to be more polite than (b) which is in turn more polite than (a). This would suggest that sentence (c) can be used in written forms of language whereas sentence (a) can be used in spoken language.

Strategy 10: Go on Record as Incurring a Debt, or as not Indebting H

This strategy occurs within a new mechanism in negative politeness which is redressing other wants of the hearer. This mechanism relies on compensating for the FTA through redressing some wants of the hearer. But, unlike positive politeness, the focus is on a very limited amount of hearer's wants.

As its title suggests, this strategy is achieved through incurring debt or indebting hearer. Differently put, the speaker can redress an FTA by clearly confessing his indebtedness to the hearer or by disclaiming any indebtedness of the hearer (Brown & Levinson, 1987). For example; in making a request, the speaker may say ‘I will be so grateful to you if you could lend me some money’ as an indebting expression. However, in making offers the speaker may say ‘it’s nothing, I can help you’ as a disclaiming expression for indebtedness.

1.4.7. Politeness as an Implicature

Apart from the previously stated politeness strategies, politeness can take the form of an implicature. In this concern, many linguists like Brown and Levinson (1987), Haugh (2007), Leech (1983) and Horn (1984) adopt the notion of politeness implicature as a new term. It generally refers to the instances politeness takes place by inferring something else; it is the outcome of mutual collaboration between the speaker and the hearer alike. In other words, a politeness implicature is the indirect meaning generated by the hearer from the speaker’s intentions.

This idea of politeness implicature is dated back to Gricean pragmatics which is a maxim-based pragmatics. Detailing a series of conflicting needs based on quantity, quality and relevance maxims, Horn (1984) claims that our negative politeness is based on relevance implicatures (‘don’t say more than is needed’) while positive politeness is based on quantity and quality implicatures (‘say as

much as required), with a consequent conflict between the two techniques (Brown & Levinson, 1987). This suggests that a politeness implicature can arise like any other implicature by respecting the Gricean maxims (quantity, quality and Relevance) in conversations.

Leech (1983) on the other hand suggests that a politeness implicature can be the outcome of what he refers to as 'Politeness principles' or 'politeness maxims'. The politeness maxims or constraints, as Leech (2005) prefers to call them, involve kindness/ diplomacy, praise/humility, accord, empathy and commitment to which he adds opinion-secrecy and feeling-reticence (Haugh, 2007). Apparently, these maxims together give high consideration to the hearer's wants and lead to politeness implicature. Therefore, a politeness implicature in Leech (1983) is an utterance that regards consistency with politeness maxims or politeness principles and, henceforth, the Gricean principles are not enough to make a politeness implicature.

Another approach to politeness implicature is adopted by Haugh (2007). He claims that a politeness implicature does not arise from the indirect meaning of the speaker's intentions, but instead comes from common cooperative interaction between speakers and hearers. A politeness implicature is, thus, defined in Haugh (2007) as 'something implied in addition to what is literally said'. In this regard, Haugh (2007) distinguishes between politeness as being anticipated and politeness as being inferred.

Relying on Arundale's (1999) Conjoint Co-constituting Model that defines politeness implicature as emanating from active interaction between two or more interlocutors, Haugh (2007) comes to the conclusion that there are five major factors for making a politeness implicature which are intuitive plans for what the speaker aims to achieve, the presupposition that the hearer will be capable to access to those rules that have been triggered, anticipating how the other will draw a politeness implicature from the sentence produced, use of particular linguistic forms, and finally the supposition that the hearer will consider intended politeness implicature to be part of what the hearer attributes to the speaker as the speaker's meaning.

1.4.8. Politeness and Non-linguistic Behaviour

Despite the remarkable attention the theory of politeness has received from many scholars in the field of psycholinguistics, one component of this theory was quietly marginalized. As Brown and Levinson (1987) say, politeness includes what is non-verbal. However, a few studies are conducted on the non-linguistic aspect of politeness.

Clearly, non-linguistic behaviour must be the core of this theory firstly because most of our daily communication is done through the non-verbal, and secondly because the theory as a whole is based on the notion of face and facework by Goffman (1967) which is a visual non-linguistic conceptualization of the speaker or the hearer to preserve or save face. Therefore, any analysis and

interpretation of politeness strategies should take into account many non-linguistic features such as proxemics, kinesics, suprasegmental features, facial expressions and gestures.

The human body is an expressive machine that produces messages. These messages are deciphered by people using their intuitive capacity they acquire at a certain period of life. Generally, judgments are made about the nature and behaviour of people based on their nonlinguistic and visual cues rather than on their verbal communication (Littlejohn & Foss, 2009).

In essence, any nonverbal behaviour is coded and sent with intentional purposes, and decoded according to the recognizable interpretations of a specific speech community. This idea makes it an obligation to question the universality and culture specificity of non-verbal communication. It is evident that nonverbal communication deals mainly with symbols that are arbitrary in many cultures, so kissing elders' hand that is considered a polite way to show obedience in some Arab cultures may be differently interpreted in western cultures. However, there are some non-verbal behaviours that are said to be iconic and which are interpreted in the same way among all cultures.

In their analysis of the relationship between the non-linguistic behaviour and politeness, Ambady, Koo, Lee and Rosenthal (1996) propose a correlational relationship between politeness and non-verbal communication since politeness strategies are transmitted through both verbal and non-verbal communication within a context that dictates the use of these strategies. They also assert that some

aspects of politeness strategies, in relation to non-verbal language, seem to be universal, whereas some seem to be culture-specific. Therefore, any attempt to analyse politeness strategies must bear in mind the impact of differences and similarities between cultures in the coding and perception of non-linguistic cues so that to avoid misunderstanding and overgeneralizations.

Dealing with politeness in nonverbal communication must trespass analysing the body language in relation to politeness to account for other features such as proxemics which is the territorial management of space. The use of space differs from one culture to another following the definition of the self in each culture, for example in some Arab cultures it is acceptable to exchange and ask for some kitchen objects from neighbours or even invade some of their space, while this is considered to be rude in some western cultures.

Haptics is another nonverbal feature that should be taken into account while dealing with politeness. It is the management of touch in communication. A touch can be loaded with different meanings that range from expressing care and intimacy to showing violence to others. Therefore, its interpretation may differ from one culture to another, for instance in Arab cultures, it is highly required to shake hands with people you meet to say hello as a sign of politeness and respect, however, in western cultures it is only enough to say hello without touching.

Another feature of nonverbal communication that must be considered in analysing politeness is chronemics that is the use of time. Several cultures agree on the cruciality of time though there are different noticeable perceptions and uses

of time. For example, in Indian culture, lateness might not be a big mistake as it is in many Western cultures. This difference in terms of time value and importance can lead others to interpret nonverbal behaviours inaccurately especially in intercultural interactions (Littlejohn & Foss, 2009). This essentially means that people from those cultures where punctuality is not that significant may face problems when they deal with people who consider punctuality to be a symbol of politeness.

Paralanguage is an additional nonverbal dimension that can affect politeness in communication. It is the focus on how things are said rather than what is said. It is clear that the way people pronounce the same sentence 'be careful' can affect their level of politeness and change the function of the sentence. Moreover, the use of a certain intonation, pitch and rhythm can affect the degree of politeness of a speaker, for example; a woman talking loudly with a harsh voice can be castigated and perceived as impolite in Arab culture.

In general, the nonverbal cues in communication should be the core of any attempt to analyse politeness strategies in any context. These cues might be interpreted differently in different cultures or even within the same culture. Thus, it can be said that nonverbal communication is the way people unconsciously transmit their own thoughts and feelings through body gestures and expressions, such as the way in which they fold their arms, cross their legs, sit, stand, play with their fingers, walk, use their eyebrows, eyes and even in the tiny way they move their lips (Littlejohn & Foss, 2009). These movements transmit an unlimited

number of messages that are not even conveyed through the verbal, and they, surely, affect the level of politeness of both the speaker and the hearer.

1.4.9. Politeness and Stereotypes

Approaching the issue of politeness is loaded with many stereotypes that are either related to strategies or to interlocutors. A stereotype must be a false overgeneralization of a feature of one element or a limited amount of elements to make it an attributed characteristic of the whole group. That is, it is a true characteristic that might really happen with one element of a certain group, but it cannot be generated to the whole group.

In the area of politeness, most stereotypes are concerned with social class and gender differences. These stereotypes about gender differences are basically the result of the different perception of femininity and masculinity between cultures on the one hand, and the construction of gender in each society on the other hand. Therefore, in most cultures, masculine speech behaviour is expected to be direct, harsh and loaded with certain aggression that possibly reflects the biological trait of men. However, women's speech behaviour is always expected to be indirect and loaded with a lot of softness and tactfulness.

Surprisingly, many stereotypes used by layman about politeness and gender are sometimes confirmed by some academic studies. That's why many linguists claim that stereotypes generated from academic studies are the outcome of biased methodological standpoints of researchers who come up with prior oriented views

about men and women's speech. In this concern, Romaine (2003) draws the example of Labov's (1966) methodological bias manifested in the type of questions oriented to men and women, and the discriminatory situation they were asked to read, wherein girls were compared to dogs.

At the same line of arguments, Romaine (2003) suggests that the methodological bias may be also the outcome of the fact that a vast majority of the early sociolinguistic studies are carried out by men, and many of the inquiries raised reflected a masculine bias. This entails the fact that the outcome of the research is going to be a reinforcement of stereotypes about male and female language.

Most stereotypes about gender and politeness have become a solid reference and an example for many to adopt while behaving so as not to be socially stigmatized. That's indeed what justifies the use of some stereotypic forms of what is called masculine or feminine linguistic behaviour so as not to be socially sanctioned. For example, it is becoming a must for women to use an over-polite speech behaviour to sound womanish and at the same time, it is acceptable for them to have a high talking time rates, whereas; it is acceptable for men to use a dominant and sometimes interruptive language to show their social power over women.

Undoubtedly, stereotypes can have a huge impact on our perception and production of politeness cues. For example, in relation to gender, it may affect the balance of power between man and woman, since they associate woman to

inferior and subordinate positions in society, meanwhile they associate man with responsibility and aggression. Furthermore, they can affect people's choices while talking about or to men and women and make us opt for some lexical terms that undermine woman and value man while describing the same social act from both of them. Clearly, the existence of stereotypes about gender and language, in general, serves the purpose of keeping the hegemonic dominance of men over women and leads to other gender differences.

Moreover, the impact of hypothesised form of stereotypes is equally damaging to both males and females since they consist of presuppositions about people which often conflict with their own perception of themselves (Mills, 2003). Basically, the impact of stereotypes in this regard is inescapable because it is always mediated either consciously or unconsciously through many mechanisms such as the media, school, society and education. So, unfortunately, this can affect the whole life of people, especially when it comes to job opportunities distribution and political participation in society.

The impact of gender-related stereotypes can have broad side effects on the way people communicate. In this concern, different studies have reflected that knowing the gender of an individual can affect judgments on mental and physical capacities, on personality characteristics, accomplishments, sensational expertise, or strength (Thimm, et al, 2003).

Consequently, women in different cultures start to question and object the biased image of gender in language use and demonstrate that this image is mainly

discriminatory and damaging to them (Pauwels, 2003). As a reaction, many linguist feminists try to challenge discriminatory practices and beliefs firstly through conducting deep and more subjective studies in this issue and secondly through developing a new branch within linguistics which is folk linguistics concerned with non-linguists' beliefs about language.

1.5. Gender, Language and Politeness

It is evident that men and women are born with the same, or almost the same, linguistic abilities and competences, but the different ways men and women use language can be noticed clearly. This paradoxical fact reveals the complex relationship between language and gender and how can gender be a fundamental variable in affecting the use of language. This is in fact what makes gender and language a core branch in the area of language and society, and the representation of gender as a central area on which languages across the world can be compared and contrasted. The dualistic relationship between language and gender conditions certain uses of politeness strategies by men and women differently respecting certain socially constructed norms.

1.5.1. Language and Gender

The dualistic relationship between language and gender has received undivided attention in the field of human sciences in general, and linguistics in particular. In linguistics, the term gender stands for the grammatical dichotomies that categorised sex in the formation of human language.

Feminist scholars of the 1960s and 1970s used the expression 'gender' to refer to the formation of 'masculine' and 'feminine' groups in society (Sadiqi, 2003). This denotes that men and women are born with and acquire the same linguistic competence, but they use it differently according to the social and cultural perception of gender in their context. That's why gender is a major element in analysing and deconstructing any linguistic form by its practitioners. The choice of politeness strategies in interactions is one of these linguistic forms that are surely conditioned by the genre of the speaker.

In approaching the relationship between language and gender, many theories came to existence, these theories agree upon the idea that there are gender differences in the use of language, but they disagree in indicating factors behind these differences. For example, essentialists would agree with constructionists viewing gender differences in language as an outcome of the biological differences between sexes, so these differences are innate manifestations of a binary opposition between man and woman.

Consequently, as in Sadiqi (2003), in a reaction to this approach, many theoretic trends appeared such as the deficient theory that views woman's language as a deficient form of man's language resulting from the marginalized position woman holds in a patriarchal society as Lakoff (1975) confirms. Plus, the difference theory which is based on the idea that differences in language between man and woman are the result of differences in subcultures within the same

society. In brief, men and women constitute a specific linguistic subculture resulting from a separatist education they receive in their childhood.

In the same line of argument, Sadiqi (2003) states many theories approaching gender and language such as the dominance theory, the reformist theory, the semiologist theory, the postmodernist theory, the community of practice theory and the radical theory. What is common between all these theories is the claim that differences between genders in language do exist especially in forms of politeness.

Leap (2003) and Hellinger and Bugmann (2003) confirm that gender is socially and culturally constructed, this means that gender differences in language use are culturally constructed too. The construction of gender in society is the outcome of different societal behaviours that conditions male's and female's roles, like in the dichotomy of labor into salaried and unsalaried work, in the sexual discrimination of workplaces and the creation of jobs related to gender, in gaps in salaries and in dividing public spaces (Meclhinny, 2003).

The difference in female and male linguistic performance is probably the outcome of the way men and women are brought up since they are largely brought up and socialized in different single-gender groups where they acquire and develop different language preferences and styles (Mills, 2003). However, some feminist linguists go far to consider that the main cause of differences between men and women in language is not necessarily the difference in gender or sex but rather is the existence of a binary opposition between them in the speaker's mind.

In the same realm, Hellinger and Bubmann (2003) warn against analysing discourse in terms of gender dichotomies, stressing the importance of approaching it in terms of linguistic behavior rather than opposed gendered groups. Parallel to that, many researchers like Bing and Bervall (1996) call for going beyond differences and focusing more on similarities between male and female linguistic speech to overcome that dichotomous distinction between men and women in society.

Still, no one can deny that the difference approach to this issue can have a major role in the reconsideration of stereotypic language related to women as Mills (2003) claims. For this reason, it can be concluded that the attention given to the issue of gender differences in language leads to a consciousness-raising within women outside the academia and made them question language as a reflector of male dominance.

Inevitably, being an element within a specific gender has distinctive effects on the use of language; consequently, this creates a gap between females' language and males' language. Increasingly, various feminist researchers in linguistics and other fields have recognized that they should ask how empirical gaps come to be produced. They have found out that several gaps exist for a reason, i.e. that present patterns thoroughly disregard or obliterate the importance of females' experiences and the organisation of gender (Meclhinny, 2003).

An influential study in this area of research is the work of Lakoff (1975) entitled 'Language and Women's place', which was the starting point of many

other studies. In this work, Lakoff (1975) adopts a social inequality approach to the issue of gender and language; claiming that language is sexist in a reflection of the social inequality between men and women.

Later on, two influential approaches came to existence: firstly, the dominance approach; adopting the idea that differences in language based on gender are a reflection of male dominance over women in a patriarchal society, wherein men use an authoritative, direct, and less polite language to maintain their dominance over women. Secondly, a difference approach that stresses the compulsiveness of differences in language between men and women as a result of certain cultural differences boys and girls are brought up with.

This transition in approaches firstly explains the undivided attention this topic gained by many scholars and secondly deepens the objectives of linguist feminists. So, the objective of feminist scholarship goes beyond adding discussions of women and women's experiences into the discipline of language and gender, to encompass the boarder task of questioning and changing existing conceptual schemes (Mcelhinny, 2003).

Men and women's differences in language can be gauged at different levels. Hellinger and Bubmann (2003) name these levels as categories of gender; which include 'grammatical gender', 'lexical gender', 'referential gender' and 'social gender'. Most of these differences are stereotypic or the outcome of some stereotypic behaviours. Yet, unfortunately, these stereotypes become references

not only for people outside the academia but also for researchers and women themselves, which apparently affects their linguistic behaviour.

Consequently, many studies came to the conclusion that, indeed, there are gender inequalities in language use; for example, Robin Lakoff (1975) important treatise, *Language and Women's place*, presents different characteristics of women's speech, which can be perceived as displays of powerlessness. This powerlessness can be seen in the excessive use of tag questions (isn't it), quantifiers, many adjectives, mitigation, indirectness, hesitation and requests rather than orders or commands. These elements express an inner tendency for women to make and sustain a good connection with each other.

Women also tend to opt for more standard forms of language through the use of more hypercorrections. In this regard, (Romaine, 2003) reports that when requested to state which forms, they employed themselves, Norwich women, for example, attempted to over-report their use and said that they used structures that are more formal.

In mixed-gender talks, females are usually interrupted more often; for example, they have to invest greater effort than males to grab attention for their topics (Kiesling, 2003). However, in same-gender conversations women tend to discuss superficial topics such as family issues, shopping, family relations and things related to housework. Besides, women try to sound prestigious and show their awareness of the cultural norms and etiquettes of a certain group or social

class. All these can explain the linguistic insecurity, subordination and powerlessness of women linguistic behaviour that surely affects their social status.

In contrast, male speech is described as direct, decisive, powerful and confident. Men are expected to speak using features such as direct, unmitigated statements and frequent interruptions. Stereotypically, they are adventurous, competitive, unemotional, self-confident, leaders and independent. These traits make from men's speech a tool used to ensure their autonomy on the one hand and establish and maintain their dominance on the other hand.

Early psychological studies on gender differences by Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) assert that violence is one of the clearest ways in which men and women are distinguished (Goodwin, 2003). As a result, males are tolerated to use more explicit and powerful styles when talking, this makes them sound less polite compared to females. At this point, Tannen's (1991) work seems to maintain males' speech as a speech style that targets establishing honourable state in the hierarchy and getting a glorifying position among others.

In essence, gender differences in language foreground a production of a hegemonic gender and unequal power relation in language and society. For example; the organisation of the exchange displays the power discrepancy between males and females, especially at the level of turn-taking in conversations and distributions of speech (Lakoff, 2003). In the report of Pauwels (2003), male power in language can be an outcome of many factors such as males' status as rule makers, language regulators and language planners. To put it in another way,

men gain their linguistic power from their participation in the dictionary-making process, their contribution in the academia and their power over language institutions.

Clearly, male dominance in the language is a reflection of their power and dominance in society, which gives them the legitimacy to use certain less polite and direct forms. Many scholars presume that because men commonly have more supremacy within a particular community of practice, they can tolerably use interruptions more as a prerogative tool of the powerful. In this scenario, the change in linguistic behaviour is inextricably linked to socio-cultural change (Romaine, 2003).

Ostensibly, man and woman speak differently in many situations; this difference can be first attributed to gender and secondly to other variables. According to Mills (2003), gender can never be studied in isolation but rather, it must be inextricably analysed in relation to three main other variables: power, race or ethnicity and class. This indicates the difficulty of approaching the relationship between gender and politeness as a mere production of man and woman, thus there should be a consideration of other factors that may affect the choice of strategies and which work along with gender such as group affiliation.

1.5.2. Gender and Politeness

Stereotypically, politeness in language is considered a mere women's issue since they are always expected to sound polite, unlike men who are associated with directness, roughness and aggression. Politeness is socially and linguistically considered a civilizing skill that softens the roughness of members and families towards one another, and this civilizing move is often linked to femininity (Mills, 2003). It is what first makes women distinguished from the working class and second be members of middle or even upper class.

Thus, politeness is stereotypically associated with the right behaviour or form of language used by people who belong to the middle class and who might be speaking a second language like English. It is about caring about others and this is what makes some linguists associate women to positive politeness since this latter is associated with displaying friendliness and nicety towards others.

Brown and Levinson (1987) analysed the speech of men and women in relation to politeness and they concluded that in single-sex dyads, women are more positively polite than men. In practical terms, women's talk is exceedingly elaborated for positive politeness, whereas men are, comparatively, balder on record in their talk.

Brown and Levinson (1987) also concluded that in single-sex dyads between women, they tend to use 'emphatic particles' in addition to other positive politeness strategies such as irony, rhetorical questions and exaggerated intonation to express sympathy. However, men also have distinctive strategies

such as the use of sexual jokes, lectures, advising and narrating stories. As far as cross-sex dyads are concerned, Brown and Levinson (1987) claim that females are negatively polite to males however males are relatively bald on record to females except when there is a high distance between them.

This difference between men and women in strategies is the ultimate result of the position women hold in society. Women function as wives or sisters who must be always submissive to men. So, their high negative politeness to men can be derived from power differences in their community. Another possible factor is that men stress their harshness as a sign of tough masculinity, whereas women use their politeness as a reflection of feminine value (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

In this vein, according to Brown (1980, 1993), many factors can be the cause of women's politeness. For example, the first factor is gender inequality in terms of power, which pushes women to be prestigious and polite to gain a respectful social status. Another factor behind women's politeness is the education boys and girls receive in childhood. In most communities, young girls are always encouraged to talk gently like ladies, and they can be sanctioned if they do not, however, boys are allowed to speak roughly.

As a reaction to Brown and Levinson (1987), Brown (1993), Holmes (1995) who stress the fact that women are polite than men, Mills (2003) asserts that women are not necessarily polite than men, but the fact that those researchers based their assumptions on already made stereotypes about gender and language makes them say so.

To start with, she stresses the difficulty of approaching the issue of gender and politeness as a question of production. Instead, she suggests a new correcting way of analysis which is the analysis of gendered stereotypes about politeness rather than analysing gender and politeness. She also questions the universality of polite and impolite behaviour giving the example of swearing that can be polite for men in some countries and impolite in others. Moreover, she thinks that what might be seen by Brown and Levinson as a polite behaviour of women is, in fact, a manifestation of women's tendency to show prestige which allows them to gain some lost power in society.

In most studies conducted on politeness differences between men and women such as Holmes (1995), women are said to compliment and apologise more than men. This finding, according to Mills (2003), can be justified by the fact that apologies are always associated with subordinate people. So, since women have no power in society, it is evident that they should apologise more than men. Furthermore, she claims that these strategies, which are considered to be feminine strategies, can be also used successively by males to achieve certain objectives rather than to claim subordination.

1.6. Group Affiliation, Language and Politeness

1.6.1. Group Affiliation and Language

Brown and Levinson's (1987) model of politeness is criticized by many scholars like Mills (2003) and Scolon (1995) for constraining factors influencing the choice of strategies to three factors namely: Power, distance and social ranking. Therefore, they claim that many other factors that can affect the choice and perception of politeness strategies should be taken into account such as age, race, work, ethnicity, gender and group affiliation. This later gained too much attention from many linguists such as Holmes (1995), Mills (2003), Giles and Johnson (1981, 1987) and Gumperz (1970, 1982).

Group affiliation pertains to the way individuals situate themselves in a particular community and the social and cultural proximity between them and the group they belong to (Tekin, 2019). This way, the way a person speaks a language may be one way of many for identifying his/her belonging. Language is a salient component that makes a group belonging and a group identity and which has an eminent role in defining group members. So, a conversation between two members of the same group can be telling about their cultural background and shape our interpretation to their identities (UKEssays, 2018). This is said, language is a defining variable for social groups to which we belong and behave accordingly. A group can be a social class, school, citizens of a certain nation, a team at work, friends, classmates... etc and each group sets and conditions its politeness rules that must be respected by all members.

Being affiliated to a certain group entails having a sense of pride for belonging to this group, certain connection to the group and a criticality of the group affiliation to the members (Trofimovich and Truseva, 2015). To clarify, when members of the group feel proud of the history and achievements of their group and think that being a member of this group is beneficial for them, their attachment to the group gets stronger and boost their sense of affiliation to the group. This feeling of belonging is in fact exerts some impact on the language these individuals speak or even try to learn (Tekin, 2019). By drawing on this, Gatbonton, Trofimovich, & Magid (2005) and Gatbonton & Trofimovich (2008) studied the impact of ethnic group affiliation (EGA) on accuracy in learning another language finding that speakers with higher EGA score got lower accuracy scores. This entails that, being affiliated to a certain group may influence the speakers' use of language either by helping them or hindering them develop proficiency.

The rules set by each group affect members of the group either consciously or unconsciously in dealing with in-group and out-group people. This simply means the same person can perceive and choose politeness strategies differently depending on whether his/her hearer or speaker is a member of his group or not. This is in fact what makes Mills (2003) agree with Ariel and Giora (1992) in considering group to be more influential than gender itself.

The impact of group affiliation can be clearly measured in intercultural interactions or in mixed conversations wherein people belong to different groups,

with different politeness rules and strategies. That is to say, what can be appropriate for a speaker from group A can be inappropriate for a hearer from group B. For instance, a linguistic behaviour like swearing, which can be perceived impolite in some linguistic groups, may often be tolerated for certain groups of men, particularly in the working class whereas for the middle-class, it may be seen inappropriate (Mills, 2003). This entails that group affiliation can go hand in hand with gender influence, and sometimes its effect can outweigh gender influence.

Overall, a dual connection exists between language and group affiliation. Language is an impactful determiner of the group the speakers belong to, their social ranking in that group, and the social power they possess in the group. The speakers' language is inextricably linked to their identity and it influences their linguistic behaviours including the politeness strategies they choose. In turn, being affiliated to certain group conditions the use of specific language formulas. Therefore, along with other factors, group affiliation plays a major role in determining the speakers' language choices including politeness strategies

1.6.2. Politeness and Group Affiliation: Arabs as an Example

It is evident that Arabs show special politeness strategies that distinguish them from other societies. These strategies are characterized by the use of many religious expressions and words, which does not necessarily express their religiosity, but religious lexicons are always present in their daily communication.

According to Bouchara (2015), the use of Allah Lexicon in Arab politeness is due to the fact that Arabic, for its speakers, is the language of Qur'an, Sunnah and faith. This close relationship between language and faith leads to an inextricable connection between Islam and Arabic. The use of religious lexicon to show politeness is a strategy to counteract oneself and escape losing face. This entails that religion as a politeness strategy plays the role of a protector of the self-image of both interlocutors which enables them to avoid damaging the self-image of each other (Bouchara, 2015). With this in mind, it can be remarked that the use of religious lexicons functions as a tool for preserving social coherence.

For many Arabs, Islam is a sacred code of conduct that can regulate people's behaviour and direct them towards a successful and prosperous life. It tackles all aspects of life including ways of greeting and insists on simplicity, modesty, equality, gratitude and mercifulness as Al-khatib (2012) says. To Al-khatib (2012), these qualities, which are politeness strategies, are clearly stated in the Qur'an using three different approaches: storytelling, addressing directly and exemplifying. For example, modesty, which is an imminent aspect of politeness, is being considered to be part of faith in Islam, and it is one of the characteristics of the prophet Muhammad (PBUH). Moreover, being humble or modest guarantees closeness to Allah. This fact is clearly stated in verses where wise Luqman talks to his son, by way of advising, and asks him not to be arrogant (Al-khatib, 2012).

In the same line of arguments, Murni and Solin (2003) identified six politeness strategies found in the Qur'an which are: (a) tell the truth, (b) talk clearly, (c) speak appropriately, (d) use pleasant words, (e) use uplifting words, and (f) talk genteelly. To stress their importance for Muslims, these strategies have been repeated in many verses of the Qur'an such as in (Q.S. 4 An-Nisa: 63), (Q.S. 17 Al-Isra: 23) and (Q.S. 20 Thaha: 44).

For Arabs in particular and Muslims in general, being polite is a favoured state by Allah for which they are going to be rewarded. Therefore, mothers at home and teachers at school always urge children to be polite first to honour their parents, and second to get Allah's love. This entails that, religion can be considered, to a great extent, to be the source of Arab politeness. This in fact can justify the existence of religious lexicons in Arabs' politeness even in the discourse of unbelievers or those who are not too religious.

In the following table, there are some widely used expressions in the Arab (Moroccan) politeness repertoire. These expressions are mostly used with all speech acts in the Arab communication such as greeting, requesting, advising, apologising, inviting, complimenting... etc.

Table 1: Religious expressions related to making requests and expressing used in Moroccan Arabic with their equivalents in English.

Religious terms in Moroccan Arabic	Their usage	Their equivalents in English
1. <i>assalamuʕaleikum</i>	The three expressions are used by people to greet each other following the Islamic doctrine. Sometimes these expressions are uttered while shaking hands. According to Islam, these expressions are declarations for peace.	‘Peace be upon you.’
2. <i>assalamuʕaleikum-warahmatullahi</i>		‘May the peace, the mercy of Allah be upon you.’
3. <i>assalamuʕaleikumwar-ahmatullahiwabarakatuh</i>		‘May the peace, the mercy and the blessings of Allah be upon you.’
<i>waʕaleikum salam</i>	This expression is said as a response to the first expressions. It is used to greet people back.	‘And upon you is the peace (And this be upon you).’
<i>Lahixalik</i>	This expression is used to make a request. It functions like the English word “please”	‘May Allah Preserve you’
<i>barakallahufik</i>	This expression is used to thank others for favours or compliments. And sometimes it is used to make requests.	‘May the blessings of Allah (be upon you).’
<i>laʕawlawaquwataillabillah</i>	This expression is used in different contexts for example it can be used as a positive reaction to an apology. And sometimes it is used when the speaker is facing troubles or problems.	‘There is no power and no strength save in Allah.’
<i>lahihafdak</i>	This expression is also used to make a request and it can function like the word “please”	‘ May Allah Protect you”

<i>jazakalahuxayran</i>	This expression is denoting the Islamic way of saying “thank you”. It is used to express gratitude and gratefulness.	‘May Allah reward you for the good.’
<i>ʕafallahofamasalaf</i>	This expression is used when the speaker accepts an apology. It shows forgiveness and states that the matter will be forgotten.	‘Allah forgive ‘

Summary

Politeness, which is one of the components of pragmatic competence, is dealt with by many scholars within pragmatic studies. Brown and Levinson’s (1987) theory of politeness is regarded as a major reference for analysing and interpreting human interaction in general and politeness competence in particular. This theory is based on the dichotomy between what Brown and Levinson (1987) refer to as positive and negative politeness relying on Goffman’s (1967) notion of face. That is positive politeness targets the positive face which is the need for praise by others, and negative face which is the escape from imposition.

Although this theory is considered to be the centre for any further study in the field of politeness, it receives too much critique from non-western researchers who tend to question the universality of the notion of face that is the core of the theory. Brown and Levinson’s theory is accused of being reductionist in the sense that it relies on only three cultures to claim its universality.

Furthermore, this theory was a subject to criticism by many feminist-linguists such as Mills (2003) who claim that, in their model of politeness, Brown and Levinson do not include gender as a major factor in the choice of strategies, and she goes further to assert that most of their studies are built upon readymade stereotypes about woman's speech derived from the patriarchal patterns that already exist in society. Therefore, she calls for reconsideration to the factors influencing the choice of strategies to include gender, age, social class...etc.

The production and the interpretation of politeness strategies can be affected by many other factors such as culture. For example, Arab politeness according to Bouchara (2015) and Al-khatib (2012) is marked with the existence of the religious lexicon adopted either from the Quran or the Sunah. This in fact gives the Arabic politeness a deep religious dimension which makes it distinguished from western politeness.

Chapter Two: Methodology of the Research

Introduction

The previous chapter was devoted to the theoretical framework of the study. The next chapter offers a detailed presentation of description of the methodology used in the present study. It targets constructing a methodological ground for the research through presenting data collection instruments employed in the field of pragmatic competence, sampling techniques and data analysis procedures.

2.1. Research Methods

Attaining the objectives of the research is the farfetched goal of the whole thesis; therefore, considerable attention is given to raising the validity and reliability of the research findings. This, in fact, can be reached through combining techniques and methods of data collection for both the qualitative and quantitative methods in a mixed-methods approach. Bearing in mind the fact that no single approach, be it qualitative or quantitative, can be adequate in responding to the complexities of research, mixed-methods is the most effective evaluation approach that can strengthen the finding of any study and lead to solid and generalizable findings.

The notion of combining different methods originated in 1959 when Campbell and Fiske employed different methods to assess the validity of psychological traits (Creswell, 2003). Since then, researchers have been motivated to mix both quantitative methods such as questionnaires and tests with

qualitative methods such as observation and interviews, considering that every method has its limitations, setbacks and strengths. According to Creswell (2003), there are three possible procedures for using the mixed-methods: (a) concurrent procedures, (b) transformative procedures and finally (c) sequential procedures in which the researcher seeks to elaborate the finding of one method using another which is the case of this project; meaning that the researcher can start with quantitative methods and end up with qualitative ones or the vice versa.

Using the mixed-methods approach in research yields too many benefits that can strengthen and validate the findings of the research; For instance, it allows the researcher to combine the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative methods to make up for the limitations in case of being isolated. Moreover, it allows for a variety of techniques and methods. Additionally, the findings of a mixed-methods approach can be generalizable from a sample to a large population with respect to the representativeness of the quantitative method, and simultaneously it helps to measure the impact of some intervening variables with regard to the representativeness of the qualitative method.

Combining methods and techniques of both quantitative and qualitative approaches can be done at many levels. For example, in the beginning, it can be at the hypothesis construction by combining deductive and inductive hypotheses, identifying variables, sample selection via combining large statistical samples and small focused samples, data collection through the use of quantified and qualitative information, data analysis and interpretation using triangulation and

finally at the dissemination of finding through incorporating multiple choices in disseminating the findings of the research.

Data analysis and interpretation are the main steps in which mixing the methods should be done meticulously. At this level, according to Creswell (2012), triangulation is a major tool for mixing techniques by which the researcher can guarantee the validity of data and therefore enrich the interpretation of his/her findings. It is clear that triangulation is the act of comparing and contrasting data gathered by means of different tools (both qualitative and quantitative); for instance, comparing data gathered from a DCT with that one gathered from observing naturally-occurring situations as it is the case in this research, or comparing the findings of a research conducted by another researcher in a different place and time.

The mixed-methods approach tries to give equal prominence to both qualitative and quantitative methods; henceforth, for this research, a convergent parallel quantitative and qualitative analysis will be used. To put it differently, quantitative data are analysed using conventional quantitative methods and, simultaneously and concurrently, qualitative data are analysed by the use of conventional qualitative methods. The results of both methods will be compared with the purpose of identifying differences in the findings of both methods and compensating for their inconsistencies.

For Creswell (2003), though the mixed-methods approach is the adequate approach to get the best of both qualitative and quantitative approaches, it has

some limitations. One of them is that it is time-consuming in the analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data. Furthermore, the mixed-method necessitates skills from the researcher in the choice of techniques and data collection instruments to be incorporated which is, in fact, the main focus of the following sub-section.

2.2. Data Collection Instruments

It is evident that incorporating the adequate data collection instrument is a major step for attaining the objectives of the study. A data collection instrument, in (Creswell 2012) point of view, is used to assess accomplishments, measure the participant's ability, or ask a person. For conducting research on the phenomenon of politeness in language, some instruments are more adequate than others to get authentic and reliable findings.

Observing Naturally occurring data and questionnaires (DCT) are selected for this study. The use of these two different data collection tools (Observing Naturally occurring data and questionnaires) responds to the choice of a mixed-methods approach for this study. Therefore, observing naturally occurring data represents the qualitative aspect of the research whereas the questionnaire represents its quantitative aspect.

In addition to the difference in the affiliation of the two used data instruments (questionnaire and naturally occurring data), each of the instruments allows for a different impact of the researcher on the collected data. For instance,

if the researcher has a reduced impact on data collected from observing naturally occurring data, the reverse would be true for the questionnaires. This indicates that the questionnaire dictates to the researcher to elicit the data in accordance with the targeted objectives of the study and observation of naturally occurring data attempts to determine new information about the social world under observation.

2.2.1. Observing Naturally Occurring Data

Many researchers in the field of pragmatic competence would argue that observing naturally occurring data is one of the most reliable data collection tool to get valid findings. Naturally occurring data stands for the actual use of the language of the specific group of people under investigation. Such a technique is regarded powerful since it deals with natural talks in isolation from the researcher's interference either if s/he is an observer participant or non-participant.

According to Creswell (2012), observation is the procedure of collecting new data by observing participants in real settings. The findings of this technique vary according to the role the researcher occupies in the observation. In this regard, the researcher can hold three different positions in observation; the participant-observer which entails taking part in the activities in the setting observed, non-participant observer that is observing a setting without being engaged in activities and finally changed observation which can be a switch from

participant to nonparticipant or vice versa depending on the relationship with the participants and the setting in general.

Basing on the fact that it is quite difficult to estimate a strict participatory or non-participatory role, and the importance of gathering the advantages of both roles, a changing observation role can be suitable for many researchers. Observation in different studies is performed through the use of a recording fieldnote that contains a description of the setting and some reflective notes. That is to say, it may contain a mixture of descriptive fieldnotes and reflective ones.

Natural occurring talk, according to Farahat (2009), has four noticeable features that make it distinguished from other data collection instruments. In the same respect, these features are wrapped up into four major features: adjacency pairs, preference organisation, turn-taking and repair. By adjacency pairs, he means the use of paired exchanged and relevant utterances wherein the two speakers should stick to the order such as in question-and-answer conversation. Preference organisation is the main goal of the interaction between the speakers. Turn-taking is taking the initiative in conversation, and in most cultures, it is inextricably linked to the social variable of power, meaning that the one who has more social power is likely expected to take the first turn in conversations. The final is the repair feature which rectifies communication troubles resulting from misunderstandings.

However, naturally occurring data can have many limitations that can hinder the targeted reliability. First, the difficulty of controlling variables is one

of these limitations, knowing that in observation it is very challenging, if not impossible, to restrict the influence of internal variables such as age, social class, social skills and cultural awareness which is the case in this study.

The fact that the researcher has to memorize whole conversations with tiny details related to the speech act targeted is another difficulty that may influence the outcomes of the observation (Farahat, 2009). More than that, in relying on the naturally occurring data, the probability of spotting the occurrence of the targeted speech act or the politeness strategy is not guaranteed which makes the research more time-consuming.

In spite of the drawbacks of observing naturally occurring data, it is one of the best qualitative data collection tools. It is useful in many cases especially when participants are not cooperative and cannot answer questionnaires. It is also suitable when the focus of the study is on participants' behaviours, like in our study, and not the perception of individuals. This paves the way to delving into the questionnaire to have a clear image of both tools used in this study.

2.2.2. Questionnaires

Getting information from participants can be achieved through different instruments. One of these tools is questioning them. According to Kothari (2004) Questioning is the process by which the researcher can get both quantitative and qualitative data from respondents according to the type of questions used in the questionnaire. Questionnaires can be carried out and handed to participants by

different means, for instance, face-to-face, using the telephone, or via the internet and in different settings such as educational institutions, hospitals, companies, gas stations and offices.

A questionnaire can be advantageous for researchers in many cases. For example, it is more adequate in complex situations wherein the researcher has the chance to prepare respondents psychologically before asking sensitive questions. It is also preferable to use a questionnaire to supplement and backup data collected from other instruments such as observation. In addition to that, a questionnaire saves time for the researcher by limiting questions to those related to his/her research questions and hypotheses.

A questionnaire is a group of items designed carefully by a scholar to measure the information associated with people, by using the same order and wording of questions as programmed in the research plan. In other words, it is a set of questions that are either open-ended or closed-ended addressed to the participants online or in a paper-based.

Kothari (2004) states that the questionnaire as a method of data collection has many merits. It is first less costing and allows good coverage of a large population in a wider geographical space and, therefore, makes respondents more approachable. It is also bias-free from the researcher's interference since respondents answer using their words. Finally, it gives respondents enough time to think and cogitate before answering.

As far as the general form of a questionnaire is concerned, it can be either structured or unstructured questionnaire. A Structured questionnaire is a definite, concrete and pre-prepared group of questions (Kothari, 2004, p. 101), so the questions can be closed like ‘yes, no’ questions or opened with free responses. However, in unstructured questionnaires more, focus is on ensuring more independence of the respondents to give responses in their own words to the maximum. In the field of pragmatics, discourse completion tests and role-play are used to collect data on speech acts.

2.2.2.1. Discourse Completion Test

A discourse completion test (DCT), which is known as a discourse completion questionnaire (DCQ), is a set of questions in a form of a test with different situations to which respondents have to react. It is a tool for formulated data to extract out a speech act performance by an individual or a particular group. The method of gathering data by education (DCT), to study speech acts, was firstly introduced by Blum-kulka (1982) to investigate the speech act performance of learners of Hebrew as a second language, and then it was adopted in the ‘Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Pattern Project’ (CCARP) in 1984.

According to Varghese and Billmyer (1996) discourse completion test is a cluster of concise situations to which respondents have to react. Discourse completion test is based on the idea that research gives respondents different socio-cultural situations they have to respond to using the appropriate expressions

according to the situation. This provides the researcher with an idea about the pragmatic competence of the respondents, and thus enables him/her to make assumptions about their knowledge.

Discourse completion tests can have many advantages. According to Kanik (2012), it can help in getting reliable data easier than those in naturally occurring talk, in a sense that it makes the process of standardization easier through allowing more control over variables and questions of the research. This suggests that in fact, it does not lead to naturally occurring data. Henceforth, it is a test used to trigger and stimulate the pragmatic competence of the respondents. Considered in this way, DCT cannot prove that a speaker can perform speech acts appropriately in a natural context, but it reveals the competence and the linguistic forms a person has and the ideas about his/her pragmatic competence (Kanik, 2012).

By the time discourse completion test was introduced first by Blum-Kulka (1982), it has become a major technique for data collection in the field of pragmatic competence, especially in the area of politeness (Farahat, 2009). The choice of this technique stems from the fact that it has many advantages. Firstly, it allows collecting data in a short period with less effort compared to natural occurring data. More than that, Varghese and Billmyer (1996), say that data gathered using this instrument are harmonious with naturally occurring data, at least in the main forms and patterns. This reinforces its ability to allow for a good mastery and control over variables and contexts of the situation.

In spite of its wide use in the field of pragmatic competence, a hot debate was raised on the issue of reliability and validity of discourse completion tests, especially when it comes to its structure and formation. In this regard, Varghese and Billmyer (1996) spot differences between data gathered using this instrument and spoken data. For them, it is evident that this instrument lacks details in the situational prompts which prevents a real inclusion of the imaginary interlocutor in the situational prompt and therefore affects his/her response. However, in natural conversations, people have a mixture of interpersonal and situational details that unconsciously affect their choice of words and strategies while responding.

In the same line of arguments, Farahat (2009) draws different cases in which DCT was unable to get the same result as that of natural talk or other instruments. In this concern, he gives the example of Rose (1994) who studied the validity of DCT in western contexts. In that study, Rose (1994) tried to investigate requests in Japanese native speakers' performance using both DCT and multiple-choice questionnaires (MCQ). The outcomes were different in the two tools; so in the DCT, he found out that Japanese like directness, whereas in MCQ, he found out that they prefer indirect strategies.

Attempting to examine the structure of discourse completion test, Varghese and Billmyer (1996) relied on three versions of discourse completion tests designed to elicit requests used by Rose (1992). The three versions of the DCT are handed to fifty-five native speakers of English, who are students at the

University of Pennsylvania. Version one is given to twenty students (ten males and ten females). Version two; which is an elaborated form of the version 1, is handed to nineteen students (ten males and nine females). Version three (timed version of the second version) is administered to sixteen students (eight males and eight females). The study reveals that there are some differences between the elaborated and unelaborated versions of the DCT especially at the length of the entire request, the number of the supportive moves and the frequency of alters.

Consequently, Varghese and Billmyer (1996) come to the conclusion that the researcher can rely on DCT as a written instrument to get reliable data that look like oral face-to-face conversations if and only if s/he includes his situational prompts more detailed situational information. When participants are given more details in the situations, they appear to modify and tailor their discourse in ways closer to natural situation (Varghese and Billmyer, 1996). Henceforth, in our study more situational details are given to participants so that we can get face-to-face like response.

2.2.2.2. Role-playing

Role-playing is a stimulation research instrument used to collect data wherein participants have to react to scenarios in given contexts. According to Tran (2004), there are closed and open role-plays or what Farahat (2006) called them monologic and interactive role-plays. A monologic role-play, according to Tran (2004), is a closed one which is consisted of one turn by the role-play

designer and another one by the respondent. And an interactive role-play is an open turn taking one through which the conversation is led to the targeted outcomes by the researcher. Yet, in both types of role-playing, the major role of the researcher is to get a natural talk like data.

Evidently, the use of role-playing to collect data has many noticeable positive outcomes. Firstly, it allows for getting real-life like data in different ways. In addition to the content of an utterance, it allows for getting extra features such as smile, laughter, intonation, pitch, repetition, reluctance, redundancy, turn-taking and pauses. This is not to forget the ability of participants to negotiate strategies used during role-plays unlike in questionnaires. Secondly, it provides the researcher with more control over the data collected by restricting the situational information in the role-play to those compatible with the research questions.

Nevertheless, role-play has some challenges related to its structure and content as well. In this concern, Farahat (2009) raises the issue of artificiality of situations given to participants to react to, in addition to the presence of the researcher during the role-play which may affect the performance of the participants. Moreover, this data instrument can be time-consuming in the sense that the researcher sometimes has to transcribe the situations especially in interactive (open) role-plays.

Another setback of this data instrument is the structure of the language used in the questionnaire (Farahat, 2009). Sometimes the type of words or the

vocabulary used in the questionnaire can be challenging for respondents. Differently put, because of individual differences, the researcher cannot ensure that all participants grasp items of the questionnaire the same way and that the same questions are applied evenly well to all subjects (Farahat, 2009). This means that it would be difficult to say that differences in reactions to the questions are pertaining to differences between subjects or to differences to their understanding and perception of questions.

2.3. Data Collection Tools in this Study

As far as data collection instruments used in this study are concerned, this study relies on combining qualitative and supplementary quantitative tools so as to get valid and reliable data. Henceforth, there is first qualitative observation of naturally occurring talk in two different settings with different cultural backgrounds of participants.

Employing naturally occurring talk stems from the fact that it is firstly the most reliable technique in the field of pragmatics to get valid data. Secondly, it goes with the objectives of the research which deal with the actual use of language by participants in real contexts without any intervention of the researcher preventing any impact on the findings.

Using naturally occurring talk as a data collection tool would also help spot other features of language (supra-segmental features) that can have an impact on the use of strategies such as intonation, pitch, volume, turn-taking, pace, stress.

Moreover, it would allow the researcher to measure differences and influences of body language and facial expressions such as smiles on the use and choice of politeness strategies.

Bearing in mind the fact that during observation the researcher should take a position that can be participative, non-participative or changed participation, in the present study the researcher opts for using a non-participative position, keeping a maximum level of objectivity in collecting data.

During observation, the researcher makes use of recording fieldnotes that contain different information about the setting, timing and participants during observation along with some reflections of the researcher about speech acts being observed. Additionally, a tape recorder is used to record long exchanges when necessary, to cater for that problem of memorization which is one of the limitations of naturally occurring talks.

As a supplementary quantitative data collection instrument to naturally occurring data, a discourse completion test is used. This instrument proves itself to be one of the most reliable instruments in studying speech acts in the field of pragmatics. In this study, it is used to extract out politeness strategies used by the speakers in detailed situational contexts. Unlike naturally occurring data, using this instrument strongly helps in controlling the following variables of the study: gender, group affiliation, power, distance, social ranking and politeness strategies and helps to identify their impact on each other.

Using discourse completion and naturally occurring data can help compensate for each other's limitations. The DCT, in this study, focuses on nineteen written situational socio-cultural contexts with detailed information directed towards university students so that the researcher can get an idea about their politeness competence in requesting and apologising. These situations will take into account the distinctive variables of power, distance, social ranking, gender and group affiliation. The use of this instrument as a supplement to naturally occurring data would allow the researcher to cover a larger population than in naturally occurring data in a short period.

In order to attain the objective of the research which is to assess the impact of gender and group affiliation on the choice of politeness strategies, the DCT includes situations directed to different genders and different social statuses including parent-children relationship, male-female relationship, teacher-student relationship, colleagues' relationships and foreigners' relationships.

Combining the two previously mentioned data collection instruments is carried out in a convergent parallel design or what is called 'complimentarity mixed-methods'. This means that the data collection of both forms is simultaneous and the results of both instruments are fused to get data that can answer the research questions. In this regard, Creswell (2012) states that a major reason for this design is that on the one hand data collection instrument can provide power to offset the weakness of the other instrument, and on the other hand, it allows a better understanding of a research problem finding. Data

gathered from the two instruments are dealt with equally and valued the same way, and then it is analysed separately and finally compared and described simultaneously in the discussion session.

The benefit of this design is that it combines the strengths of each form of data. That is, quantitative data supply generalizability, while qualitative data present information about the situation or setting in general (Creswell, 2012). Therefore, the use of discourse completion tests allows a possibility for generalizability of findings whereas naturally occurring talk allows more contextual information about the setting and participants in particular. This later is the focus of the following sub-section.

2.4. Research Sample (Participants)

Participants of the study are second and third-year university students in the English department at the faculty of art and humanities of Fes (Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah, Faculty of Art and Humanities Fes-Sais), and faculty of arts and humanities of Meknes (Moulay Ismail University, Faculty of Arts and Humanities).

The two faculties host different students from two different regions of Morocco, though administratively they belong to the same region called Fes-Meknes region according to the new regional reform in Morocco, which divides the kingdom into twelve widespread regions instead of sixteen. The choice of these two universities stems from the fact that they both cover two different large

parts of Morocco with different students from distinctive cultural backgrounds, which can enrich and affect the representativeness of the findings positively.

The Faculty of arts and humanities of Fes- Sais receives students from four delegations of different regions: Fes the centre, Taounanat, Moulay Yakoub, Taza, Sefrou, Karyat Ba Mohamed, Nadour and Boulmane. These regions constitute a mixture of different cultural backgrounds including Amazighs from Nadour region and Sefrou along with Arabs. And the languages or dialects spoken there are Moroccan Arabic and Tamazight which is the mother tongue of many Rifi and Safrou people. However, in the faculty of arts and humanities of Meknes, most of students in the English department come from seven different delegations: Meknes Ismailia, Meknes Almanzah, Ifrane, Elhajeb, Khenifra, Midelt and Errachidia. Students from these regions speak mainly Moroccan Arabic and Tashlhit form of Tamazight which is different from the one spoken in the region of Fes.

Working on a sample from different regions would mainly the research more inclusive. In addition to that, these two regions include two different major constituents of the Moroccan culture which are the Amazigh and Arab people. Moreover, working on this sample would make collecting data and conducting observation easier since the researcher is familiar with both faculties; Moulay Ismail Faculty of arts and humanities as an ex- faculty and Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah as the contemporary university.

Among the population targeted in this study is Moroccan EFL university students represented by second and third-year university students in the department of English, a sample frame is selected to draw conclusions for the whole population. For sampling frames, Kothari (2004) and Creswell (2012) distinguish between two major types of sampling: probability sampling and non-probability sampling.

For probability sampling, all elements of the sample have equal chances and chances to be selected. It is a draw technique in which participants are picked up from the whole population undeliberately. So, it is a matter of chance that the element will be included in the sample or not. In this type of sampling, the sample is expected to have the same qualities and characteristics of the whole population and therefore this sampling design is considered to be the adequate one to achieve representativeness.

Non- probability sampling, on the other hand, is a sampling technique that does not offer any basis for speculating the probability that each item in the population has an opportunity of being involved in the sample (Kothari, 2004). This means that no element of the sample has a known probability of inclusion in the sample and all conditions elements' inclusion is their willingness for participation and availability. So, elements are selected deliberately by the researcher with regard, of course, to his/her research questions and variables and also according to elements' availability.

Thus, in probability samples, each item has a chance of being selected in the sample but the non-probability samples do not permit the researcher to define this probability (Kothari, 2004). According to Creswell (2012), probability samples include ‘simple random sampling’, ‘stratified sampling’ and ‘multistage cluster sampling’. Whereas, non-probability samples include ‘snowball sampling’ and ‘convenience sampling’ or what is referred to, in some cases, as ‘deliberate sampling’.

In the present study, the sample of the population is selected according to the non-probability convenience sampling. In this sampling method, elements are included in the sample according to their availability and easy access. It is also referred to as purposive sampling as Kothari (2004) calls it because it includes intentional selection of representative participants from the population.

In essence, convenience sampling is based on the willingness of elements to be included in the sample which makes the findings of the research not that reliable and valid. Still, Creswell (2012) believes in its ability to provide answers to many questions and hypotheses. In the same line of argument, Kothari (2004) thinks that results obtained from this sampling design can be tolerably reliable if the researcher is experienced and works without bias.

The reason why the researcher chooses convenience sampling in this study is that the data collection procedure coincides with the exams period at the two faculties and reaching participants is so difficult. This sampling technique also saves the researcher more time to be devoted to analysis and interpretation.

Moreover, this sampling technique proves itself to be one of the most feasible and attainable sampling techniques in Morocco along with snowball sampling.

To cater for the weakness of the convenience sampling, it is advisable to include as much as possible of elements in the sample to reduce the potential of errors of difference between the sample and the population in the study. According to Creswell (2012), there is no specified number of elements for representativeness in any sample, but it is always conditioned by the funding of the overall study, the size of the population and variables investigated in the study. For example, in educational researches, Creswell (2012) claims that in survey studies, 350 participants can be representative with regard to other factors.

For this study, more than 400 elements of the sample from the two universities (Moulay Ismail Faculty of humanities and Art and Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah faculty of arts and humanities students) are handed a discourse completion test with nineteen different situational prompts to which they have to respond. The sample includes participants of both genders so that the study covers the impact of gender variable on their use of strategies, in addition to the gender explanatory additional information in the situational prompts.

2.5. Data Analysis Procedure

After collecting data, another step is to be taken in the process of answering the research questions. The next step is one of the most important steps in doing research and which is data analysis. In essence, analysing data, according to Kothari (2004), is a process that includes editing, coding, classification and tabulation so that it can be clear for readers.

By editing, he means examining the collected data so that the researcher can omit errors in questionnaires and field notes when possible. To Kothari (2004) editing can be done in two different ways; the first one is field editing that aims at rectifying and reviewing the answers given by respondents right after, especially in case of translation and use of abbreviations. The second one is central editing which takes place after gathering all forms and reading them by the researcher, in such case the researcher might contact the respondents for more clarity in case of ambiguity.

The second step in analysing data is coding. It refers to the procedure of giving numerals or other icons to answers so that they can be divided into a restricted number of clusters. Assigning numerals to different answers can help reducing answers and avoid redundancy that helps the researcher to get accurate and clear answers for analysis and interpretation.

The third phase in this process is the classification phase. It is the procedure of grouping data and classifying them according to some mutual characteristics. In this concern, data generally are categorized according to two major

characteristics; the first one includes descriptive qualitative characteristics that cannot be measured quantitatively like gender, social class, educational level...etc, and the second one involves class-intervals which are quantitative characteristics such as age, wage, weight...etc. and which are referred to as statistics of variables.

The fourth step in the process of data analysis is tabulation. It is meant by tabulation the arrangement and grouping of data in forms of tables or diagrams using arrows and columns, this process can be carried out by researchers by hand or by use of certain technological and statistic programs especially in case of large inquiries studies.

The use of tabulation in data analysis yields to distinctive anticipated positive outcomes summed up by Kothari (2004) into (a) conserving space and reducing the illustrative and descriptive sentence to a minimum, (b) facilitating the procedure of comparing and contrasting, (c) facilitating the combination of items and the deletion of mistakes and omissions and finally (d) providing a base for different statistical calculations.

Analysing data can be done using different strategies and types of analysis regarding the amount and types of variables a researcher has in his/her study. The analysis may, therefore, be categorized as 'descriptive analysis' or 'inferential analysis' (Inferential analysis is often known as 'statistical analysis'). Descriptive analysis, however, is known to be largely the study of apportionments of one

variable, and it can be also in respect of two or three variables but it is based only on describing them in isolation.

Correlation analysis and causal analysis are also two types of analysis that can be carried out by researchers. Correlation analysis studies the correlation between two or more variables for identifying the amount of interdependency between them. Thus, it aims at measuring the relationship between two or more variables, unlike the description analysis. This type of analysis is relied on by human science researchers since it allows more control and understanding of the relationship between variables. However, causal analysis seeks to measure the impact of one variable on other variables in a study, and that is why it is mostly used in purely scientific and experimental studies.

With the new technological development in statistics, new types of analysis came to existence; one of these analyses is the multivariate analysis. It actually includes four new types of analysis: multiple regression analysis, multiple discriminant analysis, canonical analysis and finally multivariate analysis of variance (Or multi-ANOVA). These new methods allow the researcher to analyse more than one variable at the same time.

2.6. Data Analysis Procedure in this Study

As previously mentioned in this section, the quantitative and the qualitative data in this study are analysed in isolation, and then their outcomes are compared later on in the interpretation section. Thus, our data analysis procedure begins first by analysing quantitative data obtained from the discourse completion test.

For analysing quantitative data many steps are followed; the first step is preparing data for analysis which includes of course assigning numerical symbols to data and imputing the data using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). This program is a professional program that can output data into diagrams and tables which helps to interpret data easily. The choice of SPSS for analysis stems, actually, from the fact that it is affordable and there are many tutorial videos on YouTube on how to use it appropriately, in addition to references available in this concern.

The second step in this process is analysing data; this step begins right after preparing data for analysis. For analysing data in this study, inferential statistics are used since it tackles different variables. These statistics allow the researcher to analyse data from one sample to draw conclusion to the whole population of the research targeting more than one variable unlike in descriptive statistics. In inferential statistics, the main idea is to look at scores from a sample and use the results to draw conclusions or make anticipations about the population. After getting scores, a test for verifying the adequacy of these scores is done.

The final step in this process of data analysis is reporting the results; results obtained from data analysis are presented using both tables. Tables, in essence, sum up information in a small amount of space and help in data interpretation. They also help to show the relationship and differences between variables and between scores through the cross-tabulation of the findings.

After analysing the quantitative data obtained from the DCT, the analysis of qualitative data will be carried out. According to Creswell (2012), analysing qualitative data is done in six sequential steps: organising and preparing data for analysis, exploring and coding the data, using codes to make description and themes, presenting and reporting findings, interpreting findings and finally validating the accuracy of findings.

For this study, the first step in analysing qualitative data is the use of a descriptive fieldnote in which information about the setting and the observed discussion is written. Then the outcome of all fieldnotes is transcribed into texts and imputed in a computer file. Afterward, the data are coded and divided into different parts through the use of the computer program (SPSS). The use of SPSS in such case facilitates storing data, coding it, organising it and searching through the data. Therefore, it makes the analysis more systematic and easier.

The second step in this process is exploring and coding the data; coding refers to the process of fragmenting and classifying texts for description. That is to say, data are narrowed down using an inductive process, wherein the data are divided into different parts and then these parts are coded, after these codes are

examined for overlap and redundancy and finally these codes are categorized into broad themes. Moreover, during this step, data gathered are sifted so that data related to the research questions are regarded and irrelevant data are disregarded.

The third step in analysing qualitative data is the use of scores to build descriptions and themes; this step includes categorizing data into different themes or clusters of ideas. It is the act of answering research questions and trying to understand the major phenomenon under investigation, which is politeness strategies, through a description of the setting and participants of the study while observing them. Themes are other ways that will be used in this study to analyse qualitative data, so data can be analysed according to some themes and interconnections will be made between these themes.

The fourth step in this process is representing and reporting findings; by representing findings we mean displaying the findings in forms of figures or tables that make interpretation easier. However, by reporting finding we mean that data are reported using narrative discussions which can be a summarizing written passage for all findings of the analysis. In our case, there are many dialogues from the observed samples as support; these dialogues are stated in the participants' native language along with a transcription of the dialogue and a translation into English.

The fifth step actually revolves around interpreting findings. It is the act of making sense of the gathered finding through either comparing them with the previous literature about the phenomenon under study or with personal views. In

this study, comparisons firstly are drawn between the findings of our data analysis and Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory of politeness especially politeness strategies in relation to some variables, and secondly with some personal views developed through carrying out this study.

Finally, the last step in the analysis of finding for this study is a validation of the accuracy of the findings; to determine the accuracy of the findings a triangulation is made through observing different individuals in different settings. Moreover, in this section also there is also a kind of comparison between the finding of the observation and the findings of the discourse completion test so that we come up with a general conclusion for the study.

Summary

Generally, the objective of this chapter was to discuss the methodological issues used to carry out this study. The combination of quantitative and qualitative research techniques in conducting such research can, undoubtedly, enrich the finding of the study. For many researchers in the field of politeness and pragmatics in general, the discourse completion test is one of the most adequate quantitative data collection tools to get natural-like findings, which allows the researcher to broaden his/ her sample allowing more coverage in the population targeted in a short period.

For collecting qualitative reliable data in this field, there is no consensus on any data collection tool by researchers. Yet, despite some of the setbacks of naturally occurring talk or what others call it observation, it is the main appropriate data collection tool since that it allows a natural and real exposure to the actual use of the language or pragmatic competence under investigation. Combining the findings of DCT and observation may cater for the limitations of each data collection instrument and yield to solid findings.

Data instruments used in this study are directed towards a sample population selected conveniently. Choosing a convenient sample would help target as much as possible elements of the sample in a very limited period of time. Data gathered through quantitative and qualitative instruments in this study are analysed separately and simultaneously in the interpretation chapter using

triangulation. Analysis of data in this study is carried out using the software program SPSS which allows accurate and valid analysis and results.

Chapter Three: Data Description and Analysis

Introduction

Chapter two was devoted to tackle methodological issues related to the present study including the research questions, sample and objectives. Moreover, it was devoted to discuss the mixed-methods approach to data collection and analysis. The following chapter focuses on tabulating, describing and analysing the gathered data. This chapter assigns considerable attention to the analysis of the data collected from both the discourse completion test and the observation. It sheds light on the statistical analysis tools employed namely, internal reliability test, Chi-squared tests, Cross-tabulations and correlations. This chapter also gives a detailed description of demographic variables of the respondents.

3. 1. Discourse Completion Test Findings

This sub-section deals with presenting the findings of the discourse completion test with regard to apology and request situations given to the respondents.

3.1.1 Apologies

As it is previously mentioned in the methodology, DCTs are used to get spontaneous answers and reactions that are similar to real-life situations. Therefore, the selection of situations takes into consideration two main conditions; the first one is that they have to include a mixture of research variables

such as gender and group affiliation with regard to different power relations, distance relations and social ranking relations. The second one is that they had to be more realistic and applicable to the Moroccan context.

For the apology situations, they are ten situations which are the following:

1. S has borrowed a book from a female friend and s/he lost it.
2. S has missed a meeting with friends because of a relative's accident.
3. S has forgotten his/her ID card which is essential to sit for a job interview.
4. S is late for an important class of a strict teacher.
5. S was asked to prepare a project and hand it in due time to his/her teacher, but s/he did not finish it.
6. S failed to hand back a book of a friend for a second time.
7. S kept a friend on hold for long time.
8. S. phoned a teacher who might be busy.
9. S comes back home late, which irritates his/her parents.
10. S accused a friend who turned to be innocent later.

These ten situations cover a mixture of variables relevant to the analysis. They all include a variety in terms of social power, distance and social ranking; for example, in situations 1, 2, 6, 7 and 10, the distribution of social distance variable is low wherein the relationship between the offender and the offended is friendship relation. Thus, there is an equal power relationship between both interlocutors which may affect the use of politeness strategies to perform the apology. However, in situations 3, 4, 5 and 8, the social distance, power and social

ranking are high and this may push the S to use more polite and formal items in performing the apology. Whereas, in situation 9, the social power, distance and ranking are medium wherein it represents a childhood- parenthood relationship that does not necessarily need a formal way for apologising.

3.1.1.1. Coding Data

A total of 400 questionnaires are selected for analysis, including 200 respondents from SMBAU and 200 respondents from MIU. Answers of respondents from each institution are coded in isolation then compared using cross-tabulation to measure the impact of group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies. Some of the questionnaires are handed to respondents, while others are sent to them via Facebook, WhatsApp and Gmail using Google Docs application form. Approximately, each questionnaire takes about 20 minutes to be filled in carefully by respondents.

The collected data is coded using the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) program. The coding of the data relies primarily on the identification of strategies used by respondents in all situations. Therefore, a tabulation of strategies is carried out to classify apology strategies used by respondents. The tabulation of strategies helps to identify the most used strategies, how often they are used and in which context they are used. Tabulation and cross-tabulation also help to identify the correlation between variables such as gender and group affiliation and the use of strategies.

To determine the impact of gender and group influence on the choice of politeness strategies, a chi-squared test is carried out in this concern. The internal reliability of the questionnaire items is examined by Cronbach’s alpha coefficient test which is proven to be a good gauge that a researcher has to adopt before starting the distribution and the examination of any set of questions. Mallery (2003) provides the following rules of thumb: “ $\alpha > .9$ – Excellent, $\alpha > .8$ – Good, $\alpha > .7$ – Acceptable, $\alpha > .6$ – Questionable, $\alpha > .5$ – Poor and $\alpha < .5$ – Unacceptable” (p.231).

As shown in the table below, the internal reliability of the apology situations used is very high. According to the result of the Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient test of the ten apology items used in the discourse completion test, Alpha coefficient equals .96 which is proven to be excellent reliability.

Table 2: Reliability test of apology strategies

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.96	10

The use of apology strategies in reaction to the situations given manifested in different ways that can be divided into two umbrella strategies: direct strategies and indirect strategies; direct strategies include using expressions of apology like ‘sorry’, an expression of apology plus an intensifier such as ‘I am very sorry’, two expressions of apology plus one intensifier like ‘ I am really sorry, please forgive me’, and an expression of apology plus an explanation such as ‘ I am sorry my relative had an accident and I couldn’t come.

However, indirect strategies include a compensation strategy such as ‘ I will buy you another book’, promise not to repeat offense like in ‘this will never happen again believe me’, no intention to make the harm such as in ‘ I did not mean it’, self-criticism like in ‘It was so idiot from me’, gratefulness like in ‘ I don’t know how to pay you back’, claiming responsibility like in ‘ I know it is my fault again’, calming down the offended like in ‘ please don’t be angry’, refusal of offense such as in ‘ It is none of my business’, blaming circumstances like in ‘ it is out of my control’, explanation like in ‘ the bus came late and that’s why I came late’ and finally checking on consequences like ‘ hope this will not make you mad at me’, in addition to NA to situations.

These strategies are tabulated into two different tables, the first one includes male respondents’ answers, and the other one includes female respondent’s answers. Later on, the findings of both genders are cross-tabulated in order to get the impact of gender on the use of apology strategies.

3.1.1.2. Findings

3.1.1.2.1. Gender and Age of Respondents from Moulay Ismail University

As it is mentioned before, 200 respondents from MIU are selected using availability sampling. As the table (3) below shows, the 200 respondents are 105 males representing 52.5% of the population and 95 females representing 47.5%. The number of male respondents is approximately close to the number of female respondents in this population which makes comparing them more valid.

Table 3: Numbers and percentages of male and female respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid Male	105	52,5	52,5
Valid Female	95	47,5	47,5
Total	200	100,0	100,0

As far as age in this population is concerned, respondents are given six choices to select one, the choices given are 18, 19, 20, 21, 22 years old and more. Giving these six choices stems from the fact that the study focuses on second year and third year university students whose age normally ranges from 18 to 22 years old, taking into account students who might be older than that. At this stage, students are supposed to go through pragmatics class and develop a basic pragmatic competence in the use of English language as a subject of interest.

Table 4: Age of Respondents from MIU

	Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
	18	16	8,0	8,0
	19	30	15,0	15,0
	20	47	23,5	23,5
Valid	21	33	16,5	16,5
	22	28	14,0	14,0
	More	46	23,0	23,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0

As table (4) shows, respondents who are 18 years old are 16 representing 8% of the population, and those who are 19 years old are 30 which represents 15% of the population, whereas those who are 20 years old are 47 which is 23.5% of the population, however those who are 21 years old are 33 making 16.5% of the population, those who are 22 years old are 28 that is, 14% of the population and finally, respondents who are more than 22 years old are 46 respondents which represent 23% of the whole population. This simply means that the dominant ages in the population are 20 years old and more than 22 years old.

3.1.1.2.2. Apology Strategies used by Respondents from Moulay Ismail University

As it is previously mentioned, the ten apology situations that formulate the DCT are differently chosen to cover different contextual variables and offences. Therefore, each situation is dealt with in isolation so as to measure the impact of these contextual variables on the choice of apology strategies.

Situation 1

It is about losing a book borrowed from a female classmate who asks for her book back. As table (5) demonstrates, an important majority of respondents (104 which represents 52 % of them) said that they would buy another book for their classmate choosing a compensation strategy, and 11% of them used one expression of apology with one intensifier such like ‘I am awfully sorry to lose your book’.

Table 5
Apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the first situation

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Compensation	104	52,0	52,0
Promise not to repeat offense	3	1,5	1,5
Showing lack of intent to do harm	4	2,0	2,0
Self-criticism	3	1,5	1,5
Gratefulness	3	1,5	1,5
Claiming responsibility	1	,5	,5
Calming down the offended	2	1,0	1,0
Valid Checking on consequences	5	2,5	2,5
Explanation	14	7,0	7,0
One expression of apology	17	8,5	8,5
NA	2	1,0	1,0
One expression of apology with one intensifier	22	11,0	11,0
One expression of apology plus explanation	20	10,0	10,0
Total	200	100,0	100,0

Situation 2

This situation is about missing a meeting which is scheduled to prepare for exams with friends. Missing the meeting is because of a relative's accident which can be a solid reason for missing many important meetings in the Moroccan culture.

As table (6) illustrates, 32.5% of the respondents (n=65) chose to use one intensifier plus an expression of apology such as 'I am really sorry', 25.5% of them (n=51) used one expression of apology plus explanation or the vice versa like 'I am sorry one of my relatives had an accident and I couldn't come', 13% of them used one expression of apology, for example 'I am sorry', whereas 12% made use of the explanation strategy as an implicit apology like 'my uncle had a serious accident and I couldn't make it'. This means that respondents in this situation make an excessive use of four major apology strategies.

Table 6
Apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the second situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
	Compensation	5	2,5	2,5
	Promise not to repeat offense	5	2,5	2,5
	Showing lack of intent to do harm	9	4,5	4,5
Valid	Calming down the offended	1	,5	,5
	Blaming circumstances	3	1,5	1,5
	Explanation	24	12,0	12,0
	One expression of apology	26	13,0	13,0
	NA	8	4,0	4,0

One expression of apology with one intensifier	65	32,5	32,5
Two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	3	1,5	1,5
One expression of apology plus explanation	51	25,5	25,5
Total	200	100,0	100,0

Situation 3

This scenario is about forgetting an identity card which is mandatory for identifying candidates in a job interview; this situation is a formal situation which is supposed to get a high degree of formality from the respondents.

As table (7) shows, three main apology strategies are widely used to react to this prompt. So, 17% of the respondents (n=34) used a honorific and explanation strategy such as ‘this has never happened to me, I was bit stressed and I forgot my identity card Sir’, 17% of them used one intensifier plus an expression of apology and a honorific like ‘I am deeply sorry Sir/Madam’, however, 14% of the respondents used one expression of apology and explanation for example ‘please forgive me, I was in a rush and I forgot my identity card’.

Table 7
Apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the third situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
	Compensation	9	4,5	4,5
	Promise not to repeat offense	1	,5	,5
Valid	Self-criticism	21	10,5	10,5
	Gratefulness	10	5,0	5,0
	Claiming responsibility	2	1,0	1,0
	Blaming circumstances	2	1,0	1,0

Checking on consequences	13	6,5	6,5
Explanation	34	17,0	17,0
One expression of apology	23	11,5	11,5
NA	15	7,5	7,5
One expression of apology with one intensifier	34	17,0	17,0
Two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	7	3,5	3,5
One expression of apology plus explanation	29	14,5	14,5
Total	200	100,0	100,0

Situation 4

This situation is about being late for an important class of a strict teacher. This means it is about a formal context in which the respondents have to be as polite as possible in the selection of an adequate apology strategy.

As Table (8) demonstrates, four major apology strategies are used widely by the respondents; 14.5% of them used a promise not to repeat the offense plus a honorific, such as ‘this will never happen again Sir/Madam’, 14.5% used one expression of apology plus a honorific like ‘I am sorry Sir/Madam’, 14.5% made use of one expression of apology and an explanation for example ‘I am sorry the bus was late’, whereas a majority of 21% of the respondents used one expression of apology and a honorific plus one intensifier such as ‘I am really sorry Sir/Madam’.

Table8

Apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the fourth situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
	Promise not to repeat offense	29	14,5	14,5
	Self-criticism	5	2,5	2,5
	Gratefulness	2	1,0	1,0
	Claiming responsibility	7	3,5	3,5
	Blaming circumstances	14	7,0	7,0
	Explanation	18	9,0	9,0
	One expression of apology	29	14,5	14,5
Valid	NA	21	10,5	10,5
	One expression of apology with one intensifier	43	21,5	21,5
	Two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	3	1,5	1,5
	One expression of apology plus explanation	29	14,5	14,5
	Total	200	100,0	100,0

Situation 5

This scenario is about being late to hand a project in due time to a teacher because of some unexpected emergencies. This situation entails a teacher-student relationship which is a professional relationship that requires a high degree of politeness while expressing an apology.

Through table (9), it can be noted that 27% of the respondents made use of one expression of apology and honorific plus explanation, such as ‘I am sorry Sir/Madam, I did not finish the homework because my mother was sick and I had to be with her’, 26% of the respondents (n=52) had no reaction to this situation and 15% of them used only one expression of apology to express their regret like ‘I am sorry or please forgive me’.

Table9

Apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the fifth situation

	Techniques	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Promise not to repeat offense	2	1,0	1,0	1,0
	Showing lack of intention to do harm	1	,5	,5	1,5
	Self-criticism	3	1,5	1,5	3,0
	Gratefulness	11	5,5	5,5	8,5
	Claiming responsibility	3	1,5	1,5	10,0
	Checking on consequences	1	,5	,5	10,5
Valid	Explanation	24	12,0	12,0	22,5
	One expression of apology	30	15,0	15,0	37,5
	NA	52	26,0	26,0	63,5
	One expression of apology with one intensifier	19	9,5	9,5	73,0
	One expression of apology plus explanation	54	27,0	27,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

Situation 6

The sixth situation in the DCT is about failing to hand back the homework of a friend for a second time, which may sound to him/her intentionally done by the offender. It is a friendship relationship that does not necessarily require the use of a high politeness strategy to express an apology.

As Table (10) displays, though this situation is about a friendship relationship, 27.5% of the respondents used one expression of apology plus an intensifier to show their regret like ‘I am deeply sorry’, the use of this technique can be explained by the fact that the harm in the act is done for a second time,

24% of them expressed their regret using one expression of apology such as ‘I am sorry’, however, 22% had no reaction to this situation.

Table 10
Apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the Sixth Situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
	Compensation	1	,5	,5
	Promise not to repeat offense	17	8,5	8,5
	Showing lack of intention to do harm	7	3,5	3,5
	Self-criticism	10	5,0	5,0
	Gratefulness	4	2,0	2,0
	Claiming responsibility	1	,5	,5
	Asking the offended not to be angry	1	,5	,5
Valid	Refusing making offense	1	,5	,5
	Explanation	2	1,0	1,0
	One expression of apology	48	24,0	24,0
	NA	44	22,0	22,0
	One expression of apology with one intensifier	55	27,5	27,5
	Two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	2	1,0	1,0
	One expression of apology plus explanation	7	3,5	3,5
	Total	200	100,0	100,0

Situation 7

This scenario is about keeping a classmate on hold for a long time and the classmate is not a close friend, the relationship between the offender and the offended is a professional relationship in which they both might have the same social power. Therefore, the offender is expected to seek a medium politeness strategy to express his/her regret.

As table (11) reveals, a large proportion of respondents 25.5% used one expression of apology such as ‘forgive me please’, 21% used one expression of apology plus one intensifier such as ‘I am really sorry’, 21% used one expression of apology plus explanation like ‘I am sorry, I had an emergent call from my father and I had to answer immediately’ and 19.5% of the respondents had no reaction to the situation.

Table 11:
Apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the Seventh Situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
	Showing lack of intention to do harm	6	3,0	3,0
	Gratefulness	2	1,0	1,0
	Claiming responsibility	1	,5	,5
	Explanation	13	6,5	6,5
	One expression of apology	51	25,5	25,5
	NA	39	19,5	19,5
Valid	One expression of apology with one intensifier	42	21,0	21,0
	Two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	4	2,0	2,0
	One expression of apology plus explanation	42	21,0	21,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0

Situation 8

This situation is about phoning a teacher for a second time which might be bothering to him/her. In this situation, the distance and power variable are different between the offender and the offended.

As table (11) demonstrates, 35% of the respondents (n=70) used one expression of apology plus a honorific, such as ‘I am sorry teacher’, 20% (n=40) of them used one expression of apology and an intensifier plus a honorific, such as ‘I am awfully sorry teacher to bother you again’, 14% of them (n=29) had no reaction to the situation, whereas 11% (n=22) used self-criticism to express their regret such as ‘I know that it is so rude from my part to call you again Sir/Madam’.

Table 12:
Apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the eighth situation

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Promise not to repeat offense	11	5,5	5,5	5,5
Showing lack of intention to do harm	1	,5	,5	6,0
Self-criticism	22	11,0	11,0	17,0
Gratefulness	6	3,0	3,0	20,0
Explanation	2	1,0	1,0	21,0
One expression of apology	70	35,0	35,0	56,0
NA	29	14,5	14,5	70,5
Valid One expression of apology with one intensifier	40	20,0	20,0	90,5
Two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	5	2,5	2,5	93,0
One expression of apology plus explanation	14	7,0	7,0	100,0
Total	200	100,0	100,0	

Situation 9

The scenario of this situation is about coming back home late which irritates parents and makes them angry. It is about parent-children relationship which is a culture-specific relationship.

As table (13) indicates, 25% of the respondents (n=50) used promise not to repeat offense to express their regret along with words that show intimacy such as ‘this will never happen again dear dad and mom’, 24.5% of them (n=49) used the explanation strategy such as, ‘I was revising lessons with my friends and I did not check time’, 16% (n=32) used an expression of apology plus explanation, like ‘I am sorry I went with friends to make a copy of some lessons’.

Table 13:
Apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the ninth situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Promise not to repeat offense	50	25,0	25,0	25,0
	Showing lack of intention to do harm	3	1,5	1,5	26,5
	Self-criticism	2	1,0	1,0	27,5
	Claiming responsibility	1	,5	,5	28,0
	Refusing offense	1	,5	,5	28,5
	Explanation	49	24,5	24,5	53,0
Valid	One expression of apology	22	11,0	11,0	64,0
	NA	29	14,5	14,5	78,5
	One expression of apology with one intensifier	11	5,5	5,5	84,0
	One expression of apology plus explanation	32	16,0	16,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0	

Situation 10

This situation is about accusing a classmate of taking a notebook. In the Moroccan culture, this situation is very offending since accusing someone of robbing is a serious offense that cannot be tolerated.

As table (14) discloses, a large part of the respondents 23% made use of one expression of apology plus an intensifier to express their apology, such as ‘I am awfully sorry about that’, 21.5% used one expression of apology, such as ‘please forgive me’ and 17% of them used two expressions of apology plus an intensifier, such as ‘forgive me please, I am really sorry for accusing you’.

Table 14:
Apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the Tenth Situation

Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Compensation	1	,5	,5	,5
Showing lack of intention to do harm	7	3,5	3,5	4,0
Self-criticism	7	3,5	3,5	7,5
Gratefulness	3	1,5	1,5	9,0
Claiming responsibility	4	2,0	2,0	11,0
Explanation	8	4,0	4,0	15,0
One expression of apology	43	21,5	21,5	36,5
Valid NA	30	15,0	15,0	51,5
One expression of apology with one intensifier	46	23,0	23,0	74,5
Two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	34	17,0	17,0	91,5
One expression of apology plus explanation	17	8,5	8,5	100,0
Total	200	100,0	100,0	

3.1.1.2.3. Gender and the Choice of Apology Strategies by Respondents from Moulay Ismail University

Situation 1

For assessing the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies, a cross-tabulation for each situation is made in isolation. The cross-tabulation allows clear and systematic comparison between the choices of male and female respondents. Therefore, in the first situation as (Table 1 in Appendix C) demonstrates, 42.9% of male respondents made use of the compensation strategy to issue an apology and 19% of them used one expression of apology plus one intensifier, whereas, a majority of 62.1% of female respondents used a compensation strategy and 13.7% of them used the explanation strategy.

Henceforth, it can be deduced that male and female respondents differ not only in percentages of using one strategy but also in the selection of one strategy. This fact is consolidated after conducting a Chi-squared test. The Chi-square test is conducted to test the significant relationship between gender and the choice of politeness strategies.

The Chi-squared test below shows that the p-value is significant because the sig. value ,000, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant. Consequently, there is more convincing relationship between gender and the choice of politeness strategies in the first situation.

Table 15: Chi-square test for Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the first situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	49,223 ^a	12	,000
Likelihood Ratio	58,620	12	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	7,249	1	,007
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 16 cells (61,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,48.

Situation 2

For the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies in the second situation, as (Table 2 in Appendix C) shows, 34.3% of male respondents made use of one expression of apology and an intensifier and 21.9% of them used one expression of apology plus explanation. However, only 30.5% of female respondents used one expression of apology plus intensifier, and unlike male respondents, female respondents (29.5%) used one expression of apology plus explanation.

After conducting the Chi-squared test to assess the influence of gender on the choice of apology strategies in this situation, it can be noticed that the p-value is significant because the sig. value ,0.023, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant. Therefore, in this situation, there is a convincing relationship between the choice of apology strategies and gender.

Table 16: Chi-square test for Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the second situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	20,694 ^a	10	,023
Likelihood Ratio	25,065	10	,005
Linear-by-Linear Association	,007	1	,932
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 14 cells (63,6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,48.

Situation 3

As far as the influence of gender on the choice of apology strategies in the third situation is concerned, (Table 3 in Appendix C) indicates that 22.9% of male respondents chose an explanation strategy, 18.1% of them used self-criticism such as ‘it is irresponsible from me to do that’, however, 22.1% of female respondents used an expression of apology plus an intensifier and 20% of them used one expression of apology plus an explanation. This shows that male and female respondents differ hugely in selecting the appropriate expression for making an apology in this situation.

This conclusion is obviously confirmed by the Chi-squared test conducted to assess the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies in this situation. The Chi-square test reveals that the p-value is significant because the sig. value ,000, is less than 0.5 which is the average value to be significant. This simply means, in this situation, there is a more convincing relationship between gender and the choice of apology strategies in this situation.

Table 17: Chi-square test for Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the third situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	59,222 ^a	12	,000
Likelihood Ratio	71,360	12	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	14,484	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 11 cells (42,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,48.

Situation 4

For the fourth situation, and always in relation to the impact of gender on the use of apology strategies, there was no clear consensus by male respondents on the use of a specific apology strategy; for example, two strategies are used excessively which are the use of one expression of apology plus an explanation that was used by 18.1% of them and one expression of apology plus intensifier which was used by 17.1% of male respondents. However, for female respondents, 26.3% of them used one expression of apology plus explanation, and 24.2% of them made use of promise not to repeat offense strategy which was not used pervasively by male respondents in this context.

It can be understood from what was mentioned before that male and female respondents use different strategies to express their apology. This finding is confirmed by the Chi-square test which is carried out to assess the impact of gender on the choice of strategies in this situation. According to the Chi-squared test, the p-value in this situation is significant because the sig-value,000, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant. So, it can be concluded that

there is a more convincing relationship between the choice of apology strategies and gender in this situation.

Table 18: Chi-square test for Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the fourth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	38,510 ^a	10	,000
Likelihood Ratio	45,410	10	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	3,371	1	,066
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 8 cells (36,4%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,95.

Situation 5

As to the influence of gender on the choice of apology strategies in the fifth situation, as (Table 5 in Appendix C) shows, a vast majority of male respondents did not react to this situation wherein 22.9% of them did not give feedback to this situation, 20% of them used one expression of apology plus explanation and only 17.1% of them used one expression of apology and the same percentage of them used an implicit apology in a form of explanation. Female respondents on the other hand seemed to use the same strategies with a slight difference in percentages. So, 34.7% of them used one expression of apology plus explanation, 29.5% of them had no reaction to this situation and only 12.6% used the explanation strategy.

Apparently, both male and female respondents share the same reaction to this situation, this idea is not approved by the Chi-squared test which is carried out to measure the impact of gender on the use of apology strategies in this

situation. According to the Chi-squared test, the p-value is significant because the sig-value 0.31 is less than 0.05 that is the average value to be significant, which means that there is a convincing relationship between the choice of apology strategies and gender in this situation.

Table 19: Chi-square test for Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by MIU respondents in fifth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	19,807 ^a	10	,031
Likelihood Ratio	22,036	10	,015
Linear-by-Linear Association	6,835	1	,009
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 10 cells (45,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,48.

Situation 6

Concerning the effect of gender on the choice of apology strategies in this situation, 26.7% of male respondents used one expression of apology to make an excuse, 24.8% of them used one expression of apology plus intensifier and 19% of them had no reaction to the situation. Female respondents, on the other hand, used almost the same strategies but with different percentages; for instance, almost 30.5% of female respondents used one expression of apology plus intensifier, 25.3% of them had no feedback to this situation and 21.1% of them used one expression of apology in addition to some other secondary strategies.

Clearly, it can be deduced from the strategies used in this situation by both female and male respondents that there is a visible difference between the two genders not only in percentages of using one strategy but also in the classification

of strategies in this situation. This finding is confirmed by the Chi-square test which is carried out to gauge the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies in this situation. According to the Chi-squared test, the p- value is significant because the sig-value,006, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant. This means, there is a convincing relationship between gender and the choice of apology strategies in this situation.

Table 20: Chi-square test for Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the sixth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	29,126 ^a	13	,006
Likelihood Ratio	35,355	13	,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	3,538	1	,060
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 19 cells (67,9%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,48.

Situation 7

As far as the gender differences in the choice of apology strategies in the seventh situation are concerned, male respondents widely used two different strategies; 28.6% of them used only one expression of apology, 18.1% of them used one expression of apology plus one intensifier and the same percentage of them (18.1%) had no reaction to the situation. Whereas, female respondents used different strategies; for example, 27.4% of them used one expression of apology plus explanation, 24.2% of them used one expression of apology plus one intensifier, 22.1% of them used one expression of apology and 21.1% of them had no reaction to the situation.

Apparently, both males and females used almost the same apology strategies with a slight difference in percentages. This remark is confirmed by the Chi-squared test which is carried out to assess the impact of gender on the choice of adequate politeness strategies in this situation. According to the Chi-squared test, the p-value is significant because the sig-value,0.45, is less than 0.05 that is the average value to be significant. Correspondingly, there is a convincing relationship between gender and the choice of apology strategy in this situation.

Table 21: Chi-square test for Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the seventh situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15,813 ^a	8	,045
Likelihood Ratio	18,378	8	,019
Linear-by-Linear Association	4,953	1	,026
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 8 cells (44,4%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,48.

Situation 8

As to the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies in the eighth situation is concerned, 34.3% of the male respondents used one expression of apology, 21% used self-criticism and 16.2% used one expression of apology plus one intensifier. However, 35.8% of female respondents used one expression of apology, 24.2% of them used one expression of apology plus one intensifier and 16.8% had no reaction to the situation.

It seems from the listed percentages that there are similarities between male and female respondents in the use of major apology strategies, yet there are some differences between them especially in the use of other strategies; for instance, female respondents did not use promise not to repeat offense strategy, showing lack of intent to do harm, self-criticism and explanation, whereas, male respondents used all these mentioned strategies with different percentages.

To measure the impact of gender on the use of apology strategies in this situation, a Chi-squared test was carried out. This latter shows that the p-value is very significant because the sig-value, .000, is less than the average value to be significant, which means that there is a more convincing relationship between gender and the choice of apology strategies in this situation.

Table 22: Chi-square test for Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the eighth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	52,470 ^a	9	,000
Likelihood Ratio	70,787	9	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	29,619	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 8 cells (40,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,48.

Situation 9

For the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies in this situation, 25.7% of male respondents used an implicit apology strategy through giving explanation, 21.9% of them used a promise not to repeat offence strategy and 14.3% used an expression of apology plus an explanation. Concerning female

respondents, 28.4% of them promised not to repeat the offense strategy, 23.2% used implicit explanation and 17.9% used one expression of apology plus explanation.

Clearly, male and female respondents used almost the same apology strategies. This conclusion is confirmed by the Chi-squared test which was carried out to gauge the impact of gender on the use of apology strategies in this situation. According to the Chi-square test, the p-value is not significant because the sig-value, 178, is more than the average value to be significant which is 0.05. This implies that there is not a convincing relationship between gender and the choice of apology strategies in this situation.

Table 23: Chi-square test for Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the ninth situation

	Value	Chi-Square Tests	
		df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12,676 ^a	9	,178
Likelihood Ratio	15,381	9	,081
Linear-by-Linear Association	,253	1	,615
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 8 cells (40,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,48.

Situation 10

As to the influence of gender on the choice of apology strategies in this situation, 20% of male respondents used only one expression of apology, 20% of them had no reaction to the situation, 16.2% used expression of apology plus one intensifier and 15.2% of them used one expression of apology plus two intensifiers. However, 30.5% used one expression of apology plus one intensifier,

23.2% used only one expression of apology and 18.9% used one expression of apology plus two intensifiers.

It is clear from the percentages provided before that both male and female respondents seem to use the same apology strategies in this situation but with different percentages. Still, there are some strategies that are used by male respondents and are not used by female ones, such as the use of explanation which is used by 7.6% of male respondents and 0% of female respondents.

A Chi-squared test is carried out in this context to test the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies. The Chi-squared test demonstrates that the p-value is significant because the sig-value, .039, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant. So, there is a convincing relationship between gender and the choice of apology strategies in this situation.

Table 24: Chi-square test for Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the tenth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	19,116 ^a	10	,039
Likelihood Ratio	22,784	10	,012
Linear-by-Linear Association	4,281	1	,039
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 12 cells (54,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,48.

3.1.1.2.4. Gender and Age of Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University Respondents

The respondents from SMBAU are 200 respondents selected also using availability sampling. As demonstrated in the table below, the 200 respondents are 109 male respondents representing 54.5% of the overall population of Fes-Sais faculty of letters and 91 respondents are female which represents 45.5% of the sample. This means that there is a slight difference in the representation of gender in the sample which can make a comparison between them more acceptable.

Table 25: Gender of SMBAU respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid Male	109	54,5	54,5
Valid Female	91	45,5	45,5
Total	200	100,0	100,0

Concerning age in the sample, respondents are given the same choices as MIU respondents. This means that respondents have to choose between six different choices including 18, 19, 20, 21, 22 years old and more. Following the given choices, as the table (26) reveals, 29.5% of the respondents are more than 22 years old, 18% of them are 22 years old, 18% are 20 years old, 15.5% are 21 years old, 12% are 19 years old and only 7% of the respondents are 18 years old. Percentages show that the dominant ages in the population are more than 22 years old, 22 years old and 20 years old.

Table 26: Age of respondents from SMBAU

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
	18	14	7,0
	19	24	12,0
	20	36	18,0
Valid	21	31	15,5
	22	36	18,0
	More	59	29,5
Total	200	100,0	100,0

3.1.1.2.5. Apology Strategies used by Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University Respondents

The apology situations given to the respondents are the same that are given to MIU respondents. Giving respondents the same situations aims at assessing the impact of the group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies. Thus, ten apology situations are given to Fes-Sais respondents too. While analysing data, each situation is dealt with in isolation since each situation has certain distinguishing contextual features that may affect the choice of strategies.

Situation 1

As table (27) shows, a vast majority of respondents 35% used one expression of apology plus one intensifier, such as ‘I am awfully sorry’, 30% of them used the compensation strategy like in ‘I will buy you another book please’ and 11.5% of the respondents used one expression of apology plus explanation strategy like in ‘I am sorry, I left your book on the table and someone stole it’. In

this situation, respondents used some intimacy words to soften their apologies such as my friend, my dear friend and my comrade.

Table 27: Apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the first situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
	Compensation	60	30,0	30,0
	Showing lack of intention to do harm	1	,5	,5
	Explanation	9	4,5	4,5
	One expression of apology	20	10,0	10,0
	NA	12	6,0	6,0
Valid	One expression of apology with one intensifier	70	35,0	35,0
	Two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	5	2,5	2,5
	One expression of apology plus explanation	23	11,5	11,5
	Total	200	100,0	100,0

Situation 2

Respondents used different apology strategies in this situation. As shown in the table below, a great number of respondents 62% used one expression of apology plus an explanation strategy to make an apology such as ‘forgive me my friends, my brother had an accident and I had to be there with him’, 18.5% of them used one expression of apology plus intensifier, like in ‘I am terribly sorry dear bros’ and only 8.5% of the respondents used implicit apology through giving an explanation like ‘we had guests and I had to help my mother’. In this situation, respondents also used some slang language expressions to mitigate the apology such as my friends, lads, guys and bros.

Table 28: Apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the second situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
	Compensation	11	5,5	5,5
	Explanation	17	8,5	8,5
	One expression of apology	1	,5	,5
	NA	10	5,0	5,0
Valid	One expression of apology with one intensifier	37	18,5	18,5
	One expression of apology plus explanation	124	62,0	62,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0

Situation 3

For the third situation which is a professional relationship situation between interviewee and interviewers, 53% of the overall number of respondents used one expression of apology plus explanation along with a honorific such as ‘I am sorry Sir, I was excited to come here to the extent that I forgot to bring my identity card’. 12.5% of them used explanation plus honorific, like in ‘I was in rush and I forgot to bring my identity card Sir’, whereas 9.5% of them used self-criticism plus honorific, such as ‘I know it is irresponsible from me not to bring my identity card, Sir’.

Table 29: Apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the third situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
	Promise not to repeat offense	14	7,0	7,0
	Self-criticism	19	9,5	9,5
	Gratitude	4	2,0	2,0
Valid	claiming responsibility	1	,5	,5
	Explanation	25	12,5	12,5
	NA	10	5,0	5,0
	One expression of apology with one intensifier	9	4,5	4,5

Two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	12	6,0	6,0
One expression of apology plus explanation	106	53,0	53,0
Total	200	100,0	100,0

Situation 4

This situation is about a teacher-student relationship. In this situation, 42.5% of the respondents used one expression of apology plus explanation and honorific, like ‘I am sorry Professor, I missed the first bus and the second one was late’. 25.5% used one expression of apology plus intensifier and honorific, like in ‘I am terribly sorry Sir for being late’, 8% of them used promise not to repeat offense strategy plus honorific, like ‘This is the last time Sir’ and 7.5% made use of blaming others plus honorific strategy like ‘the bus was late Sir’.

Table 30: Apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the fourth situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
	Promise not to repeat offense	16	8,0	8,0
	Self-criticism	12	6,0	6,0
	Blaming circumstances	15	7,5	7,5
	One expression of apology	6	3,0	3,0
	NA	6	3,0	3,0
Valid	One expression of apology plus one intensifier	51	25,5	25,5
	Two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	9	4,5	4,5
	One expression of apology plus explanation	85	42,5	42,5
	Total	200	100,0	100,0

Situation 5

For this situation which was about failing to hand a project in due time to a teacher, 35% of the respondents used one expression of apology plus intensifier and honorific like in ‘I am awfully sorry Sir for not giving you my project, I need more time’, 34.5% of the respondents used one expression of apology plus explanation and a honorific such as ‘I am sorry teacher I have many exams and I need more time to hand you my project’, however, only 11% of the respondents used a compensation plus honorific strategy as an apology followed by a plea such like ‘I will bring it to you this afternoon Sir please!’.

Table 31: Apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the fifth situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
	Compensation	22	11,0	11,0
	Promise not to repeat offense	12	6,0	6,0
	Self-Criticism	5	2,5	2,5
	Explanation	8	4,0	4,0
Valid	One expression of apology	1	,5	,5
	NA	13	6,5	6,5
	One expression of apology with one intensifier	70	35,0	35,0
	One expression of apology plus explanation	69	34,5	34,5
	Total	200	100,0	100,0

Situation 6

This situation, as it is mentioned before, is about a friend-friend relationship which may not necessitate a high degree of politeness, but since the offense is committed for the second time it may be obligatory for the offender to choose a

formal expression of apology. That’s why, 27.5% of the respondents used one expression of apology plus one intensifier like ‘I am awfully sorry because I lost your copybook again’, 25% of them used one expression of apology plus explanation such as ‘I am sorry I put your copybook on my table and someone took it’ and 16.5% of them used promise not to repeat offense strategy like ‘This will not be repeated again’.

Table 32: Apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the Sixth Situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
	Promise not to repeat offense	33	16,5	16,5
	Showing lack of intent to do harm	21	10,5	10,5
	Self-Criticism	4	2,0	2,0
	One expression of apology	8	4,0	4,0
	NA	8	4,0	4,0
Valid	One expression of apology with one intensifier	55	27,5	27,5
	Two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	21	10,5	10,5
	One expression of apology plus explanation	50	25,0	25,0
	Total	200	100,0	100,0

Situation 7

This scenario is about classmates’ relationship. As a reaction to this situation, a large number of respondents (51.5%) used one expression of apology plus explanation strategy to make the apology like in ‘Sorry my friend to keep you wait, I had to answer that important call’, 31% of them made use of one expression of apology plus one intensifier strategy such as ‘I am totally sorry my

friend to keep you wait for a long time’, whereas 12.5% of them had no reaction to the situation. In most cases, respondents used the expression “my friend” that may show intimacy between the offended and the offender and, thus, mitigate the apology.

Table 33: Apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the Seventh Situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
	Blaming circumstances	10	5,0	5,0
	NA	25	12,5	12,5
Valid	One expression of apology with one intensifier	62	31,0	31,0
	One expression of apology plus explanation	103	51,5	51,5
	Total	200	100,0	100,0

Situation 8

This scenario is about phoning a teacher for a second time which might be irritating for him/her. To react to the situation, a great majority of respondents (44% of them) used one expression of apology plus intensifier and honorific like ‘I am deeply sorry to bother you teacher’, 38.5% of them used one expression of apology plus explanation and honorific strategy such as in ‘I am so sorry to call you again Sir, but I have another question’, 8% of them made use of two expressions of apology plus intensifier and a honorific as in ‘please forgive me teacher, I am sorry to call you for the second time, but I have another question’ and 9% of them had no reaction to the situation.

Table 34: Apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the eighth situation

Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
NA	19	9,5	9,5
One expression of apology plus one intensifier	88	44,0	44,0
Valid Two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	16	8,0	8,0
One expression of apology plus explanation	77	38,5	38,5
Total	200	100,0	100,0

Situation 9

This situation is about kinship relationship. In this situation, 31.5% of the respondents used an implicit apology strategy through giving an explanation like in ‘I was revising with my friends and I did not pay attention to time’, 27 % of the respondents used one expression of apology plus explanation like ‘I am sorry my father, the bus came late’, 25% of them used promise not to repeat offense strategy such as in ‘This will never happen again my dad’. While reacting to this situation respondents used some intimacy expressions like my dad, my sweet mom, dear parents, my lovely mother, and my father. These expressions can be used to reassure parents and soften the offence.

Table 35: Apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the Ninth Situation

Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Promise not to repeat offense	50	25,0	25,0
Denial	1	,5	,5
Valid Explanation	63	31,5	31,5
One expression of apology	5	2,5	2,5
NA	16	8,0	8,0

One expression of apology with one intensifier	10	5,0	5,0
One expression of apology plus explanation	55	27,5	27,5
Total	200	100,0	100,0

Situation 10

This situation is about a serious face-threatening act which is accusing someone of robbing. Respondents in this situation are supposed to be very polite and show a deep regret for making the offense.

Therefore, 26% of them used one expression of apology plus intensifier like in ‘I am really sorry dear friend for accusing you of taking my notebook, I found it with Karim’, 21% of them asked the offended not to be angry like in ‘take it easy my friend, I was angry and I accused you’, 20.5% of the respondents used self-criticism strategy like ‘that was so rude from my part to accuse you my friend’, whereas, 19.5% of them used one expression of apology plus explanation such as ‘please forgive me, friend. I was nervous and I thought you took it, that’s why I accused you’.

Table 36: Apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the tenth situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
	Showing lack of intention to do harm	1	,5	,5
	Self-criticism	41	20,5	20,5
Valid	Calming down the offended	42	21,0	21,0
	Explanation	6	3,0	3,0
	NA	18	9,0	9,0
	One expression of apology with one intensifier	52	26,0	26,0

Two expressions of apology plus intensifier	1	,5	,5
One expression of apology plus explanation	39	19,5	19,5
Total	200	100,0	100,0

3.1.1.2.6. Gender and the Choice of Apology Strategies by Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah Respondents

Situation 1

For this sample of respondents, also a cross-tabulation for each situation is made between male and female respondents. The aim of the cross-tabulation is to test the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies by SMBAU respondents. For the first situation as (Table 11 in Appendix C) reveals, 43.1% of male respondents used one expression of apology plus intensifier, 22% used compensation strategy, and 11% of them used one expression of apology, and the same percentage of them used one expression of apology plus explanation. However, female respondents, a large number of them (39.6%) employed compensation strategy to make the apology, 25.3% used one expression of apology plus intensifier, and 12.1% of them used one expression of apology plus explanation.

It can be remarked from this comparison that male and female respondents differ in the choice of apology strategies; for example, female respondents used compensation as a primary strategy in this situation whereas male respondents used it as a second one after one expression of apology plus intensifier. This

difference in choice of strategies between male and female respondents is confirmed by the Chi-squared test made to assess the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies in this situation.

According to the Chi-squared test, the p-value is significant because the sig. value,000, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant. Consequently, there is a more convincing relationship between gender and the choice of apology strategies in the first situation.

Table 37: Chi-square of the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the first situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	33,568 ^a	7	,000
Likelihood Ratio	41,192	7	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	6,564	1	,010
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 6 cells (37,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,46.

Situation 2

Concerning gender difference in the use of apology strategies in the second situation, as (Table 12 in appendix C) shows, 55% of male respondents used one expression of apology plus explanation, 26.6% of them used one expression of apology plus intensifier, and 15% of them used implicit apology through giving an explanation. On the other hand, 70.3% of female respondents excessively used one expression of apology plus explanation, 11% of them used one compensation strategy, and only 8.8% used one expression of apology plus intensifier.

Apparently, male and female respondents used different strategies with different percentages to make the apology in this situation. This remark is validated by the Chi-squared test meant to assess the effect of gender on the choice of apology strategies. It can be deciphered from the Chi-squared test that the p-value is significant because the sig. value,000, is less than 0.05 which is the estimated value to be significant. Therefore, there is a more convincing correlation between gender and the choice of politeness strategies in the second situation.

Table 38: Chi-square of the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the second situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	42,536 ^a	5	,000
Likelihood Ratio	52,028	5	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,447	1	,229
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 3 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,46.

Situation 3

For the gender differences and apology strategies in the third situation, 41.3% of male respondents made use of one expression of apology plus explanation strategy, 22.9% used the explanation strategy, 17.4% used self-criticism. Whereas 67% of female respondents used one expression of apology plus explanation strategy, 13.2% used two expressions of apology plus one intensifier and 9.9% of them used one expression of apology plus intensifier.

It can be noted from (Table 13 in appendix C) that there are strategies that are used by male respondents and not by female ones like: the promise not to

repeat offense, self-criticism and explanation, and vice versa. This denotes that there are differences between male choice of apology strategies and female one. This conclusion is confirmed by the findings of the Chi-squared test carried out to assess the impact of gender on apology strategies choice by respondents in this situation.

According to the Chi-squared test, the p-value is significant because the sig- value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the accepted value to be significant. To put it simply, in this situation there is a convincing relationship between the choice of apology strategies and gender.

Table 39: Chi-square of the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the third situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	81,858 ^a	8	,000
Likelihood Ratio	112,108	8	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	42,590	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 7 cells (38,9%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,46.

Situation 4

As far as the gender differences in the choice of apology strategies in the fourth situation are concerned, 34.9% of male respondents made use of one expression of apology plus intensifier, 34.9% of them used one expression of apology plus explanation and 13.8% blamed circumstances as an apology. For female respondents, 51.6% used one expression of apology plus explanation, 14.3% of them used one expression of apology plus one intensifier and 12.1%

promise not to repeat offense. Though male and female respondents used two similar apology strategies, they differ in percentages of using these strategies.

Thus, a Chi-squared test is made to assess the extent to which gender affects the choice of apology strategies in this situation. The Chi-squared test demonstrates that the p-value in this situation is significant because the sig-value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant. This simply means that there is a more convincing connection between the choice of apology strategies and gender in this situation.

Table 40: Chi-square of the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the fourth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	58,982 ^a	7	,000
Likelihood Ratio	75,574	7	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	3,353	1	,067
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 6 cells (37,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2,73.

Situation 5

Concerning the effect of gender on the choice of apology strategies in this situation, 47.7% of male respondents made use of one expression of apology plus intensifier, 23.9% of them used one expression of apology plus explanation and 20.2% used compensation apology strategy. 47.3% of female respondents, in turn, used one expression of apology plus explanation, 19.8% of them used one expression of apology plus intensifier and 13.2% promised not to repeat offense.

It can be noticed from the previously mentioned percentages and from (Table 15 in appendix C) that male and female respondents differ hugely in the use of some apology strategies. This finding was confirmed by the Chi-square test which was made to verify the impact of gender on the use of apology strategies in this situation. According to the Chi-square test, the p-value is significant because the sig-value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant, which implies that there is a convincing relationship between the choice of apology strategies and gender in this situation.

Table 41: Chi-square of the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the fifth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	80,737 ^a	7	,000
Likelihood Ratio	104,408	7	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,969	1	,161
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 6 cells (37,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,46.

Situation 6

As to the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies in the sixth situation, 33% of male respondents employed one expression of apology and only 20.9% of female respondents used it, 26.6% of male respondents used promise not to repeat offence, whereas only 4.4% of female respondents used it, 17.4% of male respondents made use of showing lack of intent to do harms, however, only 2.2% of female respondents used it, 15.6% only of male respondents used one

expression of apology plus explanation but more than 36.3% of female respondents used it.

Therefore, it can be inferred that female and male participants differ in the selection of the appropriate strategy to make an apology. This conclusion is reinforced by the finding of the Chi-squared test carried out to measure the impact of gender on the use of apology strategy. According to the Chi-squared test, the p-value is significant because the sig-value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant. In other words, there is a convincing relationship between gender and the choice of apology strategies in this situation.

Table 42: Chi-square of the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the sixth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	69,783 ^a	7	,000
Likelihood Ratio	80,838	7	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	41,012	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 6 cells (37,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,82.

Situation 7

In this situation, both male and female respondents used only three main strategies: blaming circumstances, one expression of apology plus intensifier and one expression of apology plus explanation. For example, 49.5% of male respondents made use of one expression of apology plus explanation strategy, 41.3% of them used one expression of apology plus intensifier, 9.2% of them had no reaction to the situation whereas no one of them used blaming circumstances

strategy. In contrast, 53.8% of female respondents used one expression of apology plus explanation, 18.7% of them used one expression of apology plus intensifier, 16.5% of them had no reaction to the situation and 11% of them blamed circumstances for committing the offense.

Apparently, though male and female respondents almost used the same strategies, they differ in percentages of use of these strategies. This remark is validated by the Chi-squared test done to measure the impact of gender on the use of apology strategies. We can notice from the Chi-square test that the p-value is significant because the sig-value, .000, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant. This entails that there is a convincing relationship between gender and the choice of apology strategy in this situation.

Table 43: Chi-square of the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the seventh situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	22,450 ^a	3	,000
Likelihood Ratio	26,605	3	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	4,724	1	,030
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 1 cells (12,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4,55.

Situation 8

As to the relationship between gender and the choice of apology strategies in the eighth situation, 52.3% of male respondents used one expression of apology plus intensifier apology strategy, 32.1% of them used one expression of apology plus explanation, 8.3% of them used two expressions of apology plus intensifier

and 7.3% had no reaction to the situation. However, 46.2% of female respondents used one expression of apology plus an explanation, 34.1% of them used one expression of apology plus intensifier, 7.7% of them made use of two expressions of apology plus intensifier and 12.1% had no answer for the situation.

Apparently, both male and female respondents used approximately the same apology strategies, but with different percentages. This remark is confirmed by the Chi-squared test made to assess the impact of gender on the use of apology strategies. Through this test, it can be observed that the p-value is not significant because the sig-value, .058, is more than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant, which means that there is not a convincing correlation between gender and the use of apology strategies in this situation.

Table 44: Chi-square of the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the eighth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7,482 ^a	3	,058
Likelihood Ratio	7,539	3	,057
Linear-by-Linear Association	2,235	1	,135
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7,28.

Situation 9

As far as the influence of gender on the choice of apology strategies in this situation is concerned, 57.8% made use of the explanation strategy as an apology, 18.3% of them used promise not to repeat offense, 18.3% also used one expression of apology plus explanation and 5.5% of them had no reaction to the situation,

38.5% of female respondents, on the other hand, used one expression of apology plus explanation, 33% of them promised not to repeat offense, 11% of them used one expression of apology plus intensifier and 5.5% of them used one expression of apology which was not used by male respondents.

It can be inferred from the listed percentages that males and females differ not only in percentages of using one apology strategy but also in using some strategies and not using others such as the use of one expression of apology. This fact is confirmed by the Chi-squared test carried out to gauge the influence of gender on the choice of apology strategies in this situation. It can be seen from the Chi-squared test that the p-value is significant because the sig-value, .000, is less than the average value to be significant which is 0.05. This denotes that there is a more convincing relationship between gender and the choice of apology strategies in this situation.

Table 45: Chi-square of the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the ninth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	85,161 ^a	6	,000
Likelihood Ratio	115,062	6	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	,041	1	,840
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 5 cells (35,7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,46.

Situation 10

For this situation, 37.6% of male respondents used self-criticism, 21.1% used one expression of apology plus intensifier, 15.6% asked the offended not to

be angry, 13.8% used one expression of apology plus intensifier and 5.5% of them made use of explanation strategy. Whereas 31.9% of female respondents used one expression of apology plus intensifier, 27.5% of them used asking the offended not to be angry apology strategy, 26.4% used one expression of apology plus explanation, 1.1% showed no intention to do harm and 13.2% of them had no feedback to the scenario given.

After conducting the Chi-squared test carried out to assess the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies in this situation, it is noted that the p-value is significant because the sig-value, .000, is less than the average value to be significant which is 0.05. This means that there is a more convincing relationship between gender and the choice of apology strategies in this situation.

Table 46: Chi-square of the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the tenth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	54,111 ^a	7	,000
Likelihood Ratio	72,668	7	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	22,905	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 6 cells (37,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,46.

3.1.1.2.7. Cross-tabulation of Respondents from the two Institutions

The group affiliation is a major variable in this study. It is the main concern of one of the research questions which is to what extent does group influence affect the choice of politeness strategies. Therefore, a comparison between respondents from both institutions in terms of apology strategies use can help to identify the influence of the group on the selection of adequate strategies, bearing in mind the fact that each faculty hosts specific students from different cultural backgrounds.

Therefore, a cross-tabulation between MIU respondents and SMBAU respondents is drawn to compare and contrast responses. The comparison is at the level of each apology situation given in the discourse completion test in isolation. Then, a Chi-squared test is made to assess the impact of the group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies in each situation.

Situation 1

Concerning the impact of the group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies in the first situation, it can be seen from (Table 21 in Appendix C) that 52% of MIU respondents used compensation strategy, 11% of them used one expression of apology, 10% used one expression of apology plus explanation and only 8.5 of them used one expression of apology. Whereas 35% of SMBAU respondents used one expression of apology plus intensifier, 30% of them used

compensation strategy, 11.5% used one expression of apology plus explanation and only 10% used one expression of apology.

Respondents from the two faculties differ firstly in percentages of use of specific strategies, and secondly in using some apology strategies and not using others; for example, respondents from MIU used acknowledging responsibility, promise not to repeat offense and self-criticism while respondents from SMBAU used none of them. The difference between respondents in this situation is also confirmed by the Chi-squared test meant to assess the impact of the group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies. According to the Chi-squared test, the p-value is significant because the sig-value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant. This denotes that there is a convincing relationship between the choice of apology strategies and group affiliation in this situation.

Table 47: Chi-square of the impact of group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies used by respondents from both institutions in the first situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	69,331 ^a	13	,000
Likelihood Ratio	80,175	13	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	35,450	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	400		

a. 16 cells (57,1%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,50.

Situation 2

Concerning the effect of group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies in the second situation, from (Table 22 in the Appendix), it can be noticed that 32.5% of MIU respondents used one expression of apology plus

intensifier, 25.5% of them used one expression of apology plus explanation, 13% used only one expression of apology and 12% used an implicit apology through giving explanation. 62% of SMBAU respondents on the other hand used one expression of apology plus explanation, 18.5% of them used one expression of apology plus intensifier, 8.5% used explanation and 11% used compensation strategy.

Apparently, it can be remarked from the table that respondents from both faculties use different apology strategies or even same strategies but with different percentages. This remark is confirmed by the Chi-squared test carried out to measure the impact of group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies. It can be observed from the Chi-squared test below that the p-value is significant because the sig-value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the expected value to be significant. This implies that there is a convincing correlation between the choice of apology strategies and group affiliation in this situation.

Table 48: Chi-square of the impact of group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies used by respondents from both institutions in the second situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	85,953 ^a	10	,000
Likelihood Ratio	100,906	10	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	17,360	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	400		

a. 10 cells (45,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,50.

Situation 3

As to the impact of group affiliation on the choice of apology strategy in the third situation, (Table 23 in Appendix C) shows that 17% of MIU respondents made use of one expression of apology plus intensifier strategy, 14.5% used one expression of apology plus explanation, 11.5% used only one expression of apology and 10.5% used self-criticism. A vast majority of Fes –Sais faculty of letters respondents (53%) on the other hand used one expression of apology plus explanation, 12.5% of them used explanation and only 9.5% of them used self-criticism.

Through the table, it can be noted that there are some apology strategies that are used by respondents from MIU and are not used by respondents from SMBAU such as the use of one expression of apology, compensation and checking on consequences of the offense, in addition to the differences in percentages while using the same strategy.

The difference between participants from the two institutions is validated by the Chi-squared test below. It can be deduced from the Chi-squared test that the p-value is significant since the sig-value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the regular value to be significant. This simply denotes that there is a convincing association between the choice of apology strategies and group affiliation in this situation.

Table 49: Chi-square of the impact of group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies used by respondents from both institutions in the third situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	123,414 ^a	12	,000
Likelihood Ratio	147,583	12	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	13,585	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	400		

a. 6 cells (23,1%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,00.

Situation 4

Regarding the influence of the group affiliation on the choice of apology strategy in the fourth situation, 21.5% of MIU respondents used an expression of apology, 14.5% of them promised not to repeat offense, 14.5% used an expression of apology plus explanation and 14.5% also used one expression of apology. However, 42.5% of Fes-Sais faculty respondents used one expression of apology plus explanation, 25.5% of them used one expression of apology plus intensifier and only 8% of them promised not to repeat offense. In this situation as the chart below shows, respondents from MIU used some apology expressions that were not used by SMBAU respondents like showing gratefulness, showing responsibility and explanation.

In this concern, a Chi-squared test is made to assess the extent to which group affiliation affects the choice of apology strategies. The Chi-square test asserts that the p-value is significant because the sig-value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the approximate value to be significant. This means, there is a convincing

interconnection between the choice of apology strategies and group affiliation in this situation.

Table 50: Chi-square of the impact of group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies used by respondents from both institutions in the fourth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	88,310 ^a	10	,000
Likelihood Ratio	102,079	10	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	17,568	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	400		

a. 4 cells (18,2%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,00.

Situation 5

For the impact of group affiliation of the choice of apology strategies in the fifth situation, 27% of MIU respondents made use of an expression of apology plus explanation strategy, 26% did not react to the situation, 12% gave an explanation as an apology, and 9.5% used one expression of apology plus intensifier in addition to other strategies like self-criticism, gratefulness and claiming responsibility. Diversely, 35% of SMBAU respondents used one expression of apology plus intensifier, 34.5% of them used an expression of apology plus explanation, 11% used compensation, and unlike MIU respondents, they did not use self-criticism, gratefulness and claiming responsibility.

It can be remarked from (Table 25 in Appendix C) that both respondents not only use the same strategies with different percentages but also some of them use specific strategies not used by others. In this regard, a Chi-squared test is made to determine the impact of the group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies

in this situation. The chi-squared test shows that the p-value is significant because the sig-value, .000, is less than 0.05 which is the approximate value to be significant. In other words, there is a strong link between the choice of apology strategies and group affiliation in this situation.

Table 51: Chi-square of the impact of group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies used by respondents from both institutions in the fifth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	135,226 ^a	11	,000
Likelihood Ratio	161,593	11	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,661	1	,198
N of Valid Cases	400		

a. 8 cells (33,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,50.

Situation 6

As to the effect of group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies in the sixth situation, 27.5% of MIU respondents used one expression of apology plus intensifier, 24% of them used explanation strategy, 22% had no reaction to the situation, and 8% of them promised not to repeat the offense in addition to extra apology strategies which were used with less rates such as self-criticism, denying making offense and claiming responsibility. On the other hand, 27.5% of SMBAU respondents made use of an expression of apology plus intensifier, 25% of them used an expression of apology plus explanation, 16.5% of them promised not to repeat offense, 10.5% used two expressions of apology plus intensifier, and the same percentage of them used showing lack of intent to do harm, yet none of

them made use of self-criticism, denying making offense and claiming responsibility apology strategies which were used by MIU respondents.

To assess whether the group affiliation impacts the choice of apology strategies, a Chi-squared test is carried out in this concern. According to the Chi-squared test, the p-value is significant because the sig-value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant. To put it differently, there is a tie-in between the choice of apology strategies and group affiliation in this situation.

Table 52: Chi-square of the impact of group affiliation on the choice of request strategies used by respondents from both institutions in the sixth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	126,320 ^a	13	,000
Likelihood Ratio	143,044	13	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	,012	1	,912
N of Valid Cases	400		

a. 12 cells (42,9%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,50.

Situation 7

In the matter of the impact of the group affiliation on the selection of adequate apology strategies in the seventh situation, as shown (Table 27 in Appendix C), 25.5% of MIU respondents made use of only an expression of apology to express their apology, 21% of them used one expression of apology plus intensifier, 21% also used one expression of apology plus explanation and 19% of them had no feedback for the situation, in addition to other secondarily used strategies used like gratefulness, showing no intention to make offence and two expressions of apology plus intensifier. However, 51.5% of SMBAU

respondents made use of one expression of apology plus explanation apology strategy in this situation, 31% of them used one expression of apology plus intensifier, 12.5% did not react to the situation and 5% of them blamed circumstances as an apology.

In this situation, SMBAU respondents did not use many apology strategies that were used by MIU respondents such as gratefulness, showing no intention to make the offence and two expressions of apology plus intensifier. This entails that both groups of respondents differ in the choice of apology strategies. This remark is affirmed by the Chi-squared test done to gauge the impact of the group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies in this situation. We can notice from the chi-Squared test below that the p-value is significant because the sig-value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant. Simply put, this means that there is a correlation between the choice of apology strategies and group affiliation in this situation.

Table 53: Chi-square of the impact of group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies used by respondents from both institutions in the seventh situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	119,571 ^a	9	,000
Likelihood Ratio	154,044	9	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	45,738	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	400		

a. 8 cells (40,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,50.

Situation 8

As far as the influence of the group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies in the eighth situation is concerned, 35% of MIU respondents used explanation as an apology, 20% made use of an expression of apology plus intensifier, 14.5% had no reaction to the situation and 11% used self-criticism. Whereas, SMBAU respondents used only four apology strategies in this situation: one expression of apology plus explanation used by 38.5% of them, one expression of apology plus intensifier used by 44%, no reaction to the situation 9.5% and two expressions of apology plus intensifier used by 8%.

Apparently, from (Table 28 in Appendix C), respondents from the two groups used different apology strategies. The difference is confirmed by the Chi-squared test carried out to test the impact of the group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies in this situation. The chi-squared test shows that the p-value is significant because the sig-value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the estimated value to be significant. In other words, there is an interconnection between the choice of apology strategies and group affiliation in this situation.

Table 54: Chi-square of the impact of group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies used by respondents from both institutions in the eighth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	181,461 ^a	9	,000
Likelihood Ratio	229,887	9	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	106,854	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	400		

a. 6 cells (30,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,50.

Situation 9

For the impact of the group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies in this situation, 25% of MIU respondents promised not to repeat offense, 24.5% of them used the explanation strategy, 16% used one expression of apology plus explanation, and 14.5% had no feedback to the situation, in addition to other strategies which were not used a lot such as self-criticism, denying making the offense and claiming responsibility. On the other side, 31% of SMBAU respondents used explanation as an apology, 27.5% used one expression of apology plus explanation, 25% of them promised not to repeat offense as an apology and 8% had no reaction to the situation.

To measure the influence of the group affiliation on the choice of apology in this situation, a chi-squared test is made. It can be noted from the Chi-squared test that the p-value is significant because the sig-value, .000, is less than 0.05 which is the medium value to be significant. Differently put, there is a relationship between the choice of apology strategies and group affiliation in this situation.

Table 55: Chi-square of the impact of group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies used by respondents from both institutions in the ninth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	28,337 ^a	9	,001
Likelihood Ratio	31,638	9	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,167	1	,280
N of Valid Cases	400		

a. 8 cells (40,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,50.

Situation 10

Concerning the influence of group affiliation on the choice of apology strategy, 23% of MIU respondents employed one expression of apology plus intensifier, 21.5% of them used one expression of apology, 17% used one expression of apology plus explanation and 15% had no reaction to the situation, in addition to other extra strategies which were used with less percentages like self-criticism, showing lack of intent to do harm, gratefulness and explanation. On the other part, 26% of SMBAU respondents used one expression of apology plus intensifier, 21% of them asked the offended not to be angry, 20.5% of them used self-criticism and 19.5% of them used one expression of apology plus explanation.

Evidently, respondents from the two groups used different apology strategies with different percentages; this remark is also confirmed by the Chi-square test meant to estimate the effect of group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies. According to the chi-squared test below, the p-value is significant because the sig-value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant. Henceforth, there is an association between the choice of apology strategies and group affiliation in this situation.

Table 56: Chi-square of the impact of group affiliation on the choice of apology strategies used by respondents from both institutions in the tenth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	164,994 ^a	11	,000
Likelihood Ratio	212,655	11	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	21,355	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	400		

a. 8 cells (33,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,50.

3.1.2. Requests

The discourse completion test includes nine distinctive situations that carry a variety of contexts and a mixture of different variables. The situations include different relationships of social power, distance, social ranking and gender. For instance, in situations 1, 2, 5, 7 and 8 the relationship between the speaker and the hearer is a friendship relationship in which the power and ranking variables are equal and in situations 3, 4 and 9, the relationship between the interlocutors is a teacher-student relationship which is, in turn, a professional relationship and the distance, power and ranking variables are not equal which necessitates a high degree of formality in making the request. Finally, in situation 6 the relationship between the speaker and the hearer is a kinship relationship that does not necessarily require a high degree of formality.

Request scenarios used in the discourse completion test are the following:

1. S did not attend an important class and s/he needs someone of his/her friends to explain the missed lessons.
2. S is out of cash and s/he wants to borrow the phone of a friend s/he barely knows to make an important call.
3. S wants to ask a teacher to reschedule an exam because s/he already has another one.
4. S needs someone to take a picture for him/her and his/her friend.
5. S wants to borrow the umbrella of a female classmate.
6. S wants to ask his/her little brother or sister to bring him/her a glass of water.

7. S is having dinner at a friend's home, and s/he wants to ask for more food.
8. S wants some friends to give him/her a ride home.
9. S is not satisfied with his/her grade in an exam, and he /she wants the teacher to re-correct his/her paper.

3.1.2.1. Coding Data

As it is previously mentioned in the previous section, the DCT is handed to 400 respondents, and data collected is grouped and tabulated using SPSS. The coding of data relies mainly on grouping responses and making a classification of all used request strategies by respondents. The classification helps for identifying used strategies and allows cross-tabulation so as to assess the impact of gender and group affiliation on the choice of request strategies.

The impact of gender and group affiliation on the choice of request strategies is measured using the Chi-square test which is claimed to be a reliable test. Concerning the reliability of request scenarios given in the DCT, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient test, which is used to assess the extent to which the situations are reliable, is carried out. According to the Cronbach's alpha coefficient test shown in the table below, the Alpha coefficient equals .96 which is proven to be excellent reliability.

Table 57: Reliability test of request strategies

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.96	9

In reaction to request scenarios used in the discourse completion test, respondents used different strategies that can be grouped into eleven major strategies: giving order such as (give me a glass of water), implicit order like in (give me a glass of water please), rewarding like in (If you bring me a glass of water I take you out tomorrow), asking for permission plus explanation such as in (can I have your umbrella for a moment please because I forgot mine?), asking for ability like in (can you give me your umbrella please?), a soft indicator for example (the food is so delicious my aunt; meaning give me more please), a powerful indicator such as in (you are a very good cook my aunt I like your food), a suggestion like in (Why don't you explain this lesson to me please), expressing a wish such as (I really wish you take us a picture Sir), hedged order like in (I want to you explain this lesson to me please) and finally no answer.

These strategies are tabulated into two different tables, the first one presents male respondents' reactions, and the other one includes female respondent's reactions. Afterwards, the findings of both genders are cross-tabulated in order to get the impact of gender on the use of request strategies. Answers of respondents from both institutions (Meknes faculty of letters' respondents and Fes-Sais faculty of letters' respondents) are also cross-tabulated to get the impact of the group affiliation on the choice of request strategies.

3.1.2.2. Findings

3.1.2.2.1. Request Strategies used by Moulay Ismail University

Respondents

As it is previously mentioned, the nine request scenarios that formulate the DCT are carefully selected to cover different situational variables. Henceforth, each scenario is analysed separately in order to measure the influence of these different situational variables on the choice of request strategies.

Situation 1

The first situation is about a speaker who did not attend an important class and s/he needs someone to explain to him/her the missed lesson. It is about colleague's relationship which is an equal power relationship between the requestee and the requested, wherein the requestee may use less formal request strategies.

As the table (58) reveals, 30.5% of the respondents used asking for ability to make the request such as 'I missed the last class, Can you explain to me the lesson please?', 19.5% of them used rewarding strategy to make the request like in 'you explain the previous lesson to me and I explain the other lesson for you', 13% of them used a powerful indicator such as in 'You do me a favour please!, I was absent and I need someone to explain the lesson for me', 12% of the respondents asked for permission and gave explanation as a request strategy like 'can I take some of your time, I was absent last week, can you explain to me the

lesson please?’ and 8.5% of them used expressing a wish request strategy such as ‘I really hope you explain the previous lesson to me’.

Table 58: Request Strategies used by MIU respondents in the first situation

Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Implicit order	10	5,0	5,0
Expressing a wish	17	8,5	13,5
Asking for ability	61	30,5	44,0
Powerful indicator	26	13,0	57,0
Soft indicator	22	11,0	68,0
Rewarding	39	19,5	87,5
NA	1	,5	88,0
Asking for permission plus explanation	24	12,0	100,0
Total	200	100,0	

Situation 2

The second situation is about a speaker who is out of cash and needs to borrow a friend’s phone to make an urgent call. The relationship between the requestee and the requested is not a deep friendship; this means that the speaker should use a high degree of politeness to make the request.

As the table (59) reveals, 36.5% of the respondents used asking for ability as a request strategy such as in ‘I really need to make an urgent call and my phone is out of credit, Can you lend me yours please’, 15% of the respondents made use of expressing a wish request strategy such as in ‘I wish to use your phone for a second, I need to make an urgent call please’, 14% of the respondents made use of asking for permission plus explanation request strategy like in ‘Can I use you phone for a second please, I have to make a call and I have no credit on my

phone?’, 9.5% of them made use of a soft indicator like in ‘My phone is out of charge, I need to make an important call’ and 8.5% of them used an implicit order such as ‘ give me your phone for a second please’.

Table 59: Request Strategies used by MIU respondents in the second situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Implicit order	17	8,5	8,5
	Expressing a wish	30	15,0	23,5
	Suggestion	7	3,5	27,0
	Asking for ability	73	36,5	63,5
	Powerful indicator	14	7,0	70,5
Valid	Soft indicator	19	9,5	80,0
	Rewarding	9	4,5	84,5
	NA	3	1,5	86,0
	Asking for permission plus explanation	28	14,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	

Situation 3

This situation depicts the relationship between a teacher and a student who wants to ask the teacher to reschedule an exam since s/he has another one the same day. It is a formal relationship in which the teacher belongs to high social ranking compared to the student, and has power over the student; which means that the student has to pick up very polite request strategies to make the request.

According to the table (60), 46.5% of the respondents asked the teacher for ability as a request strategy plus a honorific such as ‘Can you Sir postpone the exam because, we have another exam the same day?’ 19% of them used suggestion as a request strategy like in ‘Teacher what about postponing the exam till the next week because we have another exam the same day please!’, 11% of them used a

powerful indicator plus a honorific like in ‘Teacher we have another exam which was scheduled before by the other teacher’, 11.5% of the respondents used asking for permission plus explanation such as in ‘Teacher can we please delay the exam since we have many exams this week’ and 8.5% of the respondents used a soft indicator like in ‘ Sir we have many exams this week’.

Table 60: Request strategies used by MIU respondents in the third situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Expressing a wish	7	3,5	3,5
	Suggestion	38	19,0	22,5
	Asking for ability	93	46,5	69,0
	Powerful indicator	22	11,0	80,0
	Soft indicator	17	8,5	88,5
	Asking for permission plus explanation	23	11,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	

Situation 4

The fourth situation is about a speaker who needs someone to take a picture for him/her in a public place. So, making the request in such a case should be so formal since the relationship between the requestee and the requested is not identified, and they do not know each other.

As a reaction to this situation, 54.5% of the respondents made use of asking for ability request strategy like in ‘Can you possibly take us a picture Sir?’, 17% of them made use of expressing a wish as a request strategy as in ‘We wish you take us a picture Miss’ and 13% of the respondents used asking for permission to make the request such as in ‘Excuse me, can I ask you a question brother, is it

possible for you to take us a picture, please? In addition to the expressions used to make the request, the requestees used different mitigating expressions such as excuse me brother, alerter (Hello), sister, Sir, Miss and Madam.

Table 61: Request strategies used by respondents from MIU in the fourth situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Expressing a wish	34	17,0	17,0
	Suggestion	18	9,0	26,0
	Asking for ability	109	54,5	80,5
Valid	Powerful indicator	13	6,5	87,0
	Asking for permission plus explanation	26	13,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	

Situation 5

This situation is about a speaker who wants to borrow the umbrella of a female classmate. It is about colleagues' relationship which maybe formal or informal depending on the strength of the relationship between the requestee and the requested.

As revealed in the table below, 35% of the participants employed asking for ability plus explanation to make the request as in 'Can you lend me your umbrella for a while please?, I forgot mine at home and it is raining heavily', 32% of them used asking for permission plus explanation like in 'Can I have your umbrella for a moment Miss!, it is raining outside?' and 18% of the respondents made use of a soft indicator to make the request such as in ' Ohh it is raining and I forgot my umbrella at home'. Also, in this situation, respondents used some

mitigating expressions to make the request like Miss, my sister, my friend, Dear friend and the name of the requestee.

Table 62: Request strategies used by respondents from MIU in the fifth situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Implicit order	10	5,0	5,0
	Giving order	3	1,5	6,5
	Expressing a wish	4	2,0	8,5
	Asking for ability	70	35,0	43,5
Valid	Powerful indicator	13	6,5	50,0
	Soft indicator	36	18,0	68,0
	Asking for permission plus explanation	64	32,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	

Situation 6

This scenario is about family member's relationship which is brotherhood relationship between an elder brother or a sister and little brother/sister. In the Moroccan culture, the elder brother/sister has power over the younger brother/sister which allows him to make the request using less formal expressions.

As the table below reveals, 27.5% of the respondents made use of an implicit order to make the request such as in 'bring me a glass of water quickly please my brother!', 27% of them used a hedged order to make the request as in 'I want you to bring me some water my sister', 13% of them used a powerful indicator like in 'Do me a favour, I'm thirsty', 11.5% of them used asking for ability as a request strategy such as in 'Can you bring me a glass of water my honey please?' and 4.5% of them had no reaction to the situation. Along with the

used request strategies, the respondents used other extenuating expressions like my sister, my brother, my honey and my sweet sister.

Table 63: Request strategies used by respondents from MIU in the sixth situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Implicit order	55	27,5	27,5
	Hedged order	54	27,0	54,5
	Giving order	6	3,0	57,5
	Asking for ability	23	11,5	69,0
Valid	Powerful indicator	26	13,0	82,0
	Rewarding	6	3,0	85,0
	NA	9	4,5	89,5
	Asking for permission plus explanation	21	10,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	

Situation 7

This situation is about a requestee who is invited to a friend's house, and who wants to ask for more food. Asking for more food is a real face-threatening act in the Moroccan context that many people would hesitate to do. Yet, since the relationship in the situation is about a friend's family, it can be tolerated to make such a request in an indirect way.

As the table below shows, 44.5% of the respondents made use of an indirect request strategy which is soft indicator to make the request such as in 'Woow the food is very delicious my aunt, I really like it', 22% of the respondents made use of asking for ability request strategy to make the request like in 'your food is very delicious my aunt can you give me more please?' and 16% of the respondents

used asking for permission plus explanation as in ‘Can I get more food please, it is very delicious?’.

Table 64: Request strategies used by respondents from MIU in the seventh situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Implicit order	3	1,5	1,5
	Expressing a wish	6	3,0	4,5
	Suggestion	7	3,5	8,0
	Asking for ability	44	22,0	30,0
	Powerful indicator	10	5,0	35,0
	Soft indicator	89	44,5	79,5
	NA	9	4,5	84,0
	Asking for permission plus explanation	32	16,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	

Situation 8

This situation is about a requestee who wants his/her friends to give him/her a ride back home. It is a friendship relationship that is not a formal relationship. Thus, the requestee does not necessarily have to use formal strategies to make the request.

According to the table below, 37% of the respondents made use of asking for ability plus explanation like in ‘Can you please give me a ride back home, the bus has just left?’, 33.5% of them used asking for permission plus explanation to make the request such as in ‘Can I go with you please?, the bus is very late and I need to go home quickly’ and 12% of the respondents made use of a soft indicator as an indirect strategy to make the request as in ‘Ohh there is no taxi here, I don’t know what to do’.

Table 65: Request strategies used by respondents from MIU in the eighth situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Implicit order	10	5,0	5,0
	Expressing a wish	10	5,0	10,0
	Asking for ability	74	37,0	47,0
	Powerful indicator	11	5,5	52,5
Valid	Soft indicator	24	12,0	64,5
	NA	4	2,0	66,5
	Asking for permission plus explanation	67	33,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	

Situation 9

This situation is a professional situation that depicts the relationship between a student (requestee) who wants his/her teacher to re-correct his paper and a teacher (requested). The requestee in such a case has to choose more formal expressions to make the request.

As a reaction to this situation, 49% of the respondents made use of asking for ability plus honorific like in ‘Sir, can you please have a look at my paper, I worked hard, there might be a mistake’, 23.5% of them made use of a soft indicator as an indirect strategy such as in ‘I don’t know, but I answered all questions correctly teacher’, 9% of them used expressing a wish like in ‘I wish you re-correct my paper because I did well in the exam but I have a bad mark’ and also 9% of them used asking for permission to make the request like in ‘Sir can I take some of your time, I hope you have a look at my paper again please’.

Table 66: Request strategies used by respondents from MIU in the ninth situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Expressing a wish	18	9,0	9,0
	Asking for ability	98	49,0	58,0
	Powerful indicator	8	4,0	62,0
	Soft indicator	47	23,5	85,5
	NA	11	5,5	91,0
	Asking for permission plus explanation	18	9,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	

3.1.2.2.2. Gender and the Choice of Request Strategies by Moulay Ismail University Respondents

As it was previously mentioned in the apology part, for assessing the impact of gender on the choice of request strategies, a cross-tabulation of male and female respondents' answers is made. The cross-tabulation allows a methodical contrast between the two genders and helps to measure the extent to which gender affects the choice of request strategies.

For the first situation as (Table 31 in Appendix C) shows, 24.8% of male respondents used a powerful indicator to make the request, 24.8% also used rewarding, 21.9% used asking for ability and 9.5% used an implicit order request strategy. In contrast, 40% of female respondents made use of asking for ability, 18.9% of the respondents used asking for permission plus explanation, 14.7% of them used a soft indicator and 11.6% of them used expressing a wish. Evidently, male and female respondents, in this situation, differ in the choice of request strategies either in using one strategy and not using another one or in using the same strategy with different percentages such as asking for ability.

According to the Chi-square test made to evaluate the impact of gender on the choice of request strategies in this situation, the p-value is noteworthy because the sig. value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant. For that reason, there is a more convincing rapport between gender and the choice of request strategies in the first situation.

Table 67: Chi-square test for Gender and the choice of request strategies used by MIU respondents in the first situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	53,763 ^a	7	,000
Likelihood Ratio	68,366	7	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	3,398	1	,065
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 3 cells (18,8%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,48.

Situation 2

In relation to gender differences in the choice of request strategies in the second situation, 35.2% of male respondents used asking for ability, 12.4% of them used an implicit order, 12.4% also used a soft indicator, 8.6% used asking for permission plus explanation, 6.7% used expressing a wish, 6.7% used suggestion and the same percentage used powerful indicator. Nevertheless, 37.9% of female respondents reacted to the same situation using asking for ability, 24.2% of them used expressing a wish, 20% of them made use of asking for permission plus explanation and 7.4% of them used a powerful indicator.

Outwardly, male and female respondents use the same request strategies in this situation but with a huge difference in frequencies and percentages. This remark is confirmed by the Chi-square test carried out to appraise the impact of

gender on the use of request strategies in this situation. According to the Chi-squared test, the p-value is of note because the sig. value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the standard value to be significant. Accordingly, there is a more persuasive link between gender and the choice of request strategies in the second situation.

Table 68: Chi-square test for Gender and the choice of request strategies used by MIU respondents in the second situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	38,057 ^a	8	,000
Likelihood Ratio	46,155	8	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	,304	1	,581
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 6 cells (33,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,43.

Situation 3

Pertaining to the gender differences in the third situation, 38.1% of male respondents used asking for ability to make the request, 26.7% of them used suggestion, 20% of them used a powerful indicator, 9.5% used asking for permission plus explanation and 3.8% of them used expressing a wish. Conversely, 55.8% of female respondents made use of asking for ability to make the request, 15.8% of them used a soft indicator, 13.7% of them used asking for permission plus explanation and 10.5% of them used suggestion.

It can be noticed from the listed request strategies used and their percentage of use that male and female respondents differ in frequencies of use of many request strategies. This notice is asserted by the Chi-square test made to evaluate

the impact of gender on the use of request strategies in this situation. It can be observed from the Chi-square test below that the p-value is significant because the sig. value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the regular value to be significant. Consequently, there is a more influential link between gender and the choice of request strategies in the third situation.

Table 69: Chi-square test for Gender and the choice of request strategies used by MIU respondents in the third situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	38,597 ^a	5	,000
Likelihood Ratio	44,351	5	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	3,330	1	,068
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 2 cells (16,7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,33.

Situation 4

Relating to the influence of gender on the choice of request strategies in this situation, 37.1% of male respondents used asking for ability to make the request, 32.4% of them used expressing a wish, 13.3% of them used asking for permission plus explanation, 12.4% of them used powerful indicator and only 4.8% of them used suggestion. On the other side, 73.7% of female respondents used asking for ability to make the request, 13.7% of them used suggestion and 12.6% of them used asking for permission plus explanation, whereas none of them made use of expressing a wish and powerful indicator which were used by male respondents.

Clearly, there are differences in the choice of adequate request strategies by male and female respondents in this situation. These differences are stressed by

the Chi-square test meant to assess the influence of gender on the choice of request strategies in this situation. As manifested in the Chi-square test below, the p-value is significant because the sig. value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the ordinary value to be significant. Thus, there is a more prominent linkage between gender and the choice of request strategies in the fourth situation.

Table 70: Chi-square test for Gender and the choice of request strategies used by MIU respondents in fourth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	59,174 ^a	4	,000
Likelihood Ratio	77,432	4	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,978	1	,160
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6,18.

Situation 5

In relation to the gender differences in the choice of appropriate request strategies in the fifth situation, 34.3% of male respondents used asking for permission plus explanation, 24.8% of them used asking for ability, 20% of them used a soft indicator and 12.4% of them used a powerful indicator. On the other part, 46.3% of female respondents made use of asking for ability, 29.5% of them used asking for permission plus explanation, 15.8% made use of a soft indicator and 6.3% used an implicit order.

Ostensibly, male and female respondents in this situation use different request strategies. In consonance with this remark, the Chi-square test made in this case to measure the impact of gender on the choice of adequate request strategies asserted that the p-value is considerable because the sig. value, 001, is

less than 0.05 which is the common value to be significant. Hence, there is a more significant relationship between gender and the choice of request strategies in the fifth situation.

Table 71: Chi-square test for Gender and the choice of request strategies used by MIU respondents in fifth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	22,585 ^a	6	,001
Likelihood Ratio	28,771	6	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,626	1	,202
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 5 cells (35,7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,43.

Situation 6

As far as the influence of gender on the choice of request strategies in this situation is concerned, 31.4% of male respondents made use of hedged order to make the request, 27.6% used an implicit order, 24.8% used a powerful indicator and 10.5% used asking for permission plus explanation. While 27.4% of female respondents used an implicit order, 24.2% used asking for ability which was not used by male respondents, 22.1% used hedged order, 10.5% used asking for permission plus explanation, 6.3% used giving order which was not used by male respondents and 9.5% of them had no reaction to the situation.

Obviously, there are differences between male and female respondents in using the appropriate request strategies in this situation. The differences are confirmed by the Chi-square test carried out in this regard to assess the impact of gender on the choice of request strategies. According to the Chi-square test, the

p-value is significant because the sig. value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the frequent value to be significant. For this reason, there is a more significant link between gender and the choice of request strategies in the sixth situation.

Table 72: Chi-square test for Gender and the choice of request strategies used by MIU respondents in the sixth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	72,559 ^a	7	,000
Likelihood Ratio	99,441	7	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	,099	1	,753
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 6 cells (37,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2,85.

Situation 7

As to gender differences in the choice of request strategies in the seventh situation, 51.4% of male respondents made use of a soft indicator to make the request, 22.9% of them used asking for ability, 11.4% of them used asking for permission plus explanation, 5.7% of them used expressing a wish and only 4.8% of them used a powerful indicator. On the other side, 36.8% of female respondents made use of a soft indicator, 21.1% of them used asking for permission plus explanation, 21.1% also used asking for ability and 7.4% of them used suggestion.

It can be deduced from (Table 37 in appendix C) that there are some request strategies used by female respondents and not used by male respondents or vice versa like suggestion, implicit order and expressing a wish. This difference is asserted by the Chi-square test made to gauge the impact of gender on the choice of request strategies. It can be deciphered from this test that the p-value is significant because the sig. value, 002, is less than 0.05 which is the frequent value

to be significant. As a result, there is a more significant association between gender and the choice of request strategies in the seventh situation.

Table 73: Chi-square test for Gender and the choice of request strategies used by MIU respondents in the seventh situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	22,086 ^a	7	,002
Likelihood Ratio	28,265	7	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	,226	1	,634
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 9 cells (56,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,43.

Situation 8

As far as the gender differences in the choice of request strategies in the eighth situation are concerned, 41.9% of male respondents used asking for ability request strategy, 25.7% of them used asking for permission plus explanation, 21% of them used a soft indicator and 4.8% used an implicit order. As to female respondents, 42.1% of them made use of asking for permission plus explanation, 31.6% of them used asking for ability, 8.4% used expressing a wish and 5.3% used an implicit order.

To measure the impact of gender on the use of adequate request strategies, a Chi-square test is made. According to the Chi-square test, the p-value is significant because the sig. value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the frequent value to be significant. Therefore, there is a more significant connection between gender and the choice of request strategies in the eighth situation.

Table 74: Chi-square test for Gender and the choice of request strategies used by MIU respondents in the eighth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	29,101 ^a	6	,000
Likelihood Ratio	33,697	6	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,414	1	,234
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 4 cells (28,6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,90.

Situation 9

With respect to the effect of gender on the use of request strategies in the last situation, 44.8% of male respondents used asking for ability to make the request, 27.6% used a soft indicator, 7.6% of them used a powerful indicator, 6.7% used asking for permission plus explanation and expressing a wish and the same percentage of respondents had no reaction to the situation. Differently, 53.7% of female respondents made use of asking for ability to make the request, 18.9% of them used a soft indicator, 11.6% of them used expressing a wish, also 11.6% of them used asking for permission plus explanation and 4.2% of them did not react to the situation.

It can be observed from (Table 39 in appendix C) that none of the female respondents made use of a powerful indicator which was used by male respondents. The difference between male and female respondents in the choice of request strategies in this situation is confirmed by the Chi-square test. As indicated in the chi-square test below, the p-value is noteworthy because the sig. value, 025, is less than 0.05 which is the regular value to be significant. For this

reason, there is a more significant relationship between gender and the choice of request strategies in the ninth situation.

Table 75: Chi-square test for Gender and the choice of request strategies used by MIU respondents in the ninth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12,866 ^a	5	,025
Likelihood Ratio	15,973	5	,007
Linear-by-Linear Association	,575	1	,448
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 2 cells (16,7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,80.

3.1.2.2.3. Request Strategies used by Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University

Respondents

Request scenarios given to respondents are the same as those given to Meknes faculty of letters' respondents. Providing respondents with the same request scenarios aims at testing the influence of the group affiliation on the choice of request strategies. While analysing data, each situation is treated separately since each situation has certain distinguishing contextual features that may affect the choice of strategies.

Situation 1

As the table below reveals, 46.5% of the respondents used asking for ability plus explanation strategy to make the request like 'Last week, I had an emergency and I couldn't come to class, Can you please explain to me the missed the lesson?', 21% of them expressed their wish as a request strategy such as 'I really wish you could explain the last session's lesson' and 14.5% of the respondents used a soft

indicator to make the request like in ‘The last time I was absent, and I don’t understand that lesson, I don’t know what to do!’,

Table 76: Request strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the first situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Implicit order	2	1,0	1,0
	Expressing a wish	42	21,0	22,0
	Asking for ability	93	46,5	68,5
	Powerful indicator	4	2,0	70,5
Valid	Soft indicator	29	14,5	85,0
	Rewarding	19	9,5	94,5
	Asking for permission plus explanation	11	5,5	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	

Situation 2

For this situation, as the table (76) shows, 44.5% of the respondents made use of explanation plus asking for ability request strategy like in ‘my phone is out of charge, can you lend me your phone to make an important call please?’, 29.5% of them expressed their wish as a request strategy as in ‘I really hope you don’t mind lending me your phone to make an urgent call’ and 11% of the respondents used a soft indicator as a request strategy such as ‘Ohh! my phone is out of charge, I have to make an important call’. In this situation, respondents also made use of some softening words to make their requests; like ‘please my friend, my sister and my brother’.

Table 77: Request strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the second situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Implicit order	5	2,5	2,5
	Expressing a wish	59	29,5	32,0
	Asking for ability	89	44,5	76,5
	Powerful indicator	7	3,5	80,0
Valid	Soft indicator	22	11,0	91,0
	NA	14	7,0	98,0
	Asking for permission plus explanation	4	2,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	

Situation 3

For the third situation, which was a formal situation between a student and his/her teacher, 57% of the overall number of respondents made use of explanation plus asking for ability request strategy like in ‘Sir, we have another exam the same morning, can you please make it for next week?’, 17% of them expressed their wish as a request strategy such as ‘We really wish you change the timing of the exam teacher’ and 5% of them made use of explanation plus asking for permission request strategy like in ‘teacher!, Can we please delay the exam, we have another exam the same day?’. Along with the used strategies, respondents made use of some softening words to make the request like ‘Sir, teacher, Mr., Mrs., Madam, dear teacher and my teacher’.

Table 78: Request strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the third situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Implicit order	2	1,0	1,0
	Expressing a wish	34	17,0	18,0
	Suggestion	8	4,0	22,0
Valid	Asking for ability	114	57,0	79,0
	Powerful indicator	9	4,5	83,5
	Soft indicator	10	5,0	88,5

NA	13	6,5	95,0
Asking for permission plus explanation	10	5,0	100,0
Total	200	100,0	

Situation 4

For the use of request strategies in the fourth scenario, which is about a speaker who needs someone to take a picture for him/her and his/her friend, as table (79) demonstrates, 57.5% of the respondents used explanation plus asking for ability request strategy such as ‘we need to take a picture and we know nobody here, can you please take us a picture?’, 16.5% of them expressed their wish as a request strategy like in ‘We really wish if you could take us a picture’ and 8% of them asked for permission as a request strategy like ‘can we take a moment from your time, please take us a picture?’.

Table 79: Request strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the fourth situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Implicit order	8	4,0	4,0
	Hedged order	1	,5	4,5
	Expressing a wish	33	16,5	21,0
	Asking for ability	115	57,5	78,5
Valid	Powerful indicator	10	5,0	83,5
	NA	17	8,5	92,0
	Asking for permission plus explanation	16	8,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	

Situation 5

For the use of request strategies in the fifth situation which was about borrowing the umbrella of a female friend, as the table (80) shows, 38% of the respondents used explanation plus asking for permission as a strategy to make the request like in ‘it is raining heavily, can I have your umbrella for 5 minutes?’, 38.5% of them made use of explanation plus asking for ability as in ‘can you lend me your umbrella for seconds because I forgot mine at home?’ and only 9.5% of them used a soft indicator as a request strategy like in ‘Ohh!, it is raining and I forgot my umbrella at home’.

In addition to the strategies used in this situation, respondents used some softening expressions to make the request such as ‘my friend, brother, my sister, please sister, please honey’ and sometimes the respondent mentions the name of the requested.

Table 80: Request strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the fifth situation

Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Implicit order	6	3,0	3,0
Expressing a wish	11	5,5	8,5
Asking for ability	77	38,5	47,0
Valid Soft indicator	19	9,5	56,5
NA	11	5,5	62,0
Asking for permission plus explanation	76	38,0	100,0
Total	200	100,0	

Situation 6

This situation is about family relationship which is an informal relationship. It revolves around a speaker who requests his/her little brother or sister to bring him/her a glass of water. As indicated in table (81), 31% of the participants made use of a hedged order like in ‘I want you to bring me a glass of water brother’, 28.5% of them used explanation plus asking for ability as in ‘I am very thirsty my lovely sister, can you give me some water please?’ and 23% of the respondents employed an alerter plus implicit order such as ‘hey brother, I want you to bring me some water’. In this situation, speakers also utilised some words to mitigate their requests for instance my brother, my dear brother, my sweet sister, my darling and sometimes they use names of the requested.

Table 81: Request strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the sixth situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Implicit order	46	23,0	23,0
	Hedged order	62	31,0	54,0
	Giving order	3	1,5	55,5
	Expressing a wish	1	,5	56,0
	Asking for ability	57	28,5	84,5
Valid	Powerful indicator	15	7,5	92,0
	Rewarding	1	,5	92,5
	NA	7	3,5	96,0
	Asking for permission plus explanation	8	4,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	

Situation 7

This situation is about a speaker who is having dinner at a friend’s house and who wants to ask for more food. As the table below reveals, a vast majority

of the respondents (48.5%) made use of a soft indicator as a request strategy like in ‘ohh! you are a good cook, my aunt, the food is very delicious’, 25.5% of them made use of explanation plus asking for ability like in ‘your food is very delicious my aunt, can you give me more please?’, 11% of them used explanation plus asking for permission as in ‘ the food is so delicious, can I have more please my aunt?’ and 2% expressed their wish as in ‘ I wish to get more food please, it is delicious’, while 4.5 % of the respondents had no reaction to the situation.

Table 82: Request strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the seventh situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Expressing a wish	4	2,0	2,0
	Asking for ability	51	25,5	27,5
	Powerful indicator	17	8,5	36,0
	Soft indicator	97	48,5	84,5
Valid	NA	9	4,5	89,0
	Asking for permission plus explanation	22	11,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	

Situation 8

This situation is about a speaker asking his/her friends to give him/her a ride back home. It is about a friendship relationship which is an equal power relationship that does not necessitate a high degree of politeness. As the table below reveals, 30% of the respondents made use of explanation plus asking for ability like in ‘can you give me a ride home please, there is no taxi here now’, 21% of them made use of an implicit order such as ‘hey my friend, you take me home please, 20% of them expressed their wish as a request strategy like in ‘ I

really wish you give me a ride home if you are going now please’ and 11% of the respondents used a powerful indicator as request strategy like in ‘are you going home now please?’. In addition to the used strategies, respondents used some softening expressions to mitigate their requests like my friends, guys, mates, my comrades and dear friends.

Table 83: Request strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the eighth situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Implicit order	42	21,0	21,0
	Expressing a wish	40	20,0	41,0
	Asking for ability	60	30,0	71,0
	Powerful indicator	22	11,0	82,0
Valid	Soft indicator	14	7,0	89,0
	NA	16	8,0	97,0
	Asking for permission plus explanation	6	3,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	

Situation 9

This situation is about a student who is not satisfied with his/her grade and s/he asks her/his teacher to re-correct his/her paper. It is a professional relationship between a teacher and a student. As the table (84) shows, a big majority of respondents that reaches 63.5% of respondents made use of explanation plus asking for ability request strategy like in ‘ teacher, I worked very well during the exam, can you correct my paper again please, there must be a mistake?’ 18.5% of them expressed their wish like in ‘ I really wish you have a look again at my paper Sir, there must be a problem, I worked well’ and 11% of the respondents made use of a soft indicator as in ‘ Teacher, I know that I worked hard and I can get

more than this'. In this situation, respondents also used some expressions to soften their requests such as my teacher, Sir, Professor and Madam.

Table 84: Request strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the ninth situation

	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Expressing a wish	37	18,5	18,5
	Asking for ability	127	63,5	82,0
Valid	Soft indicator	22	11,0	93,0
	NA	14	7,0	100,0
	Total	200	100,0	

3.1.2.2.4. Gender and the Choice of Request Strategies by Sidi Mohamed Ben

Abdellah Respondents

Situation 1

To assess the impact of gender on the choice of request strategies for this sample of respondents, a cross-tabulation for both male and female respondents' answers is made for each situation in isolation. Concerning the first situation as the (Table 40 in Appendix C) shows, 34.9% of male respondents made use of explanation plus asking for ability request strategy, 27.5% of them used expressing a wish request strategy, 17.4% promised to reward the requested and 11.9% made use of a soft indicator. However, 60.4% of female respondents made use of explanation plus asking for ability, 17.6% of them used a soft indicator, 13.2% of them expressed their wish as a request strategy and none of them promised to reward the requested.

It can be noted from the listed percentages that male and female respondents differ in the choice of request strategies; for instance, an important percentage of male respondents used rewarding strategy while none of the female respondents

used this strategy. The difference between male and female respondents in the choice of request strategies is confirmed by the Chi-square test carried out to measure the impact of gender on the choice of request strategies in this situation.

According to the Chi-square test below, the p-value is significant because the sig. value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant. That is to say, there is a more convincing relationship between gender and the choice of request strategies in the first situation.

Table 85: Chi-square of the impact of gender on the choice of request strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the first situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	30,853 ^a	6	,000
Likelihood Ratio	38,987	6	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	,069	1	,793
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 4 cells (28,6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,91.

Situation 2

For the gender differences in the choice of request strategies in the second situation, 45% of male respondents expressed a wish as a request strategy, 27.5% of them made use of explanation plus asking for ability, 14.7% of them used a soft indicator to make the request and 9.2% had no reaction to the situation. On the other part, 64.8% of female respondents made use of explanation plus asking for ability, 11% of them expressed a wish, 5.5% of them used an alerter plus an implicit order, and 6.6% also used a soft indicator, whereas 4.4% of them asked for permission plus explanation.

Apparently, male and female participants used different request strategies with different percentages; for instance, none of the male respondents used asking for permission which is used by some female respondents. This remark is consolidated by the Chi-square test made to investigate the impact of gender on the choice of request strategies in the second situation. According to the Chi-square test, the p-value is significant because the sig. value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the estimated value to be significant. Henceforth, there is a more convincing connection between gender and the choice of request strategies in the second situation.

Table 86: Chi-square of the impact of gender on the choice of request strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the second situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	50,276 ^a	6	,000
Likelihood Ratio	56,087	6	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	,909	1	,340
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 6 cells (42,9%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,82.

Situation 3

As to the impact of gender on the choice of request strategies in the third situation, 45.9% of male respondents made use of explanation plus asking for ability, 22% of them expressed their wish, 9.2% used explanation plus asking for permission, 8.3% of them used a powerful indicator, 7.3% of them used suggestion as a request strategy and 4.6% of the respondents had no reaction to the situation. However, 70.3% of female respondents used explanation plus asking

for ability, 11% of them used expressing a wish, 9.9% of them used a soft indicator and 8.8% of them had no reaction to the situation.

To assess the impact of gender on the choice of request strategies, a Chi-square test is made. It can be observed from the Chi-square below that the p-value is significant because the sig. value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant. In other words, there is a more convincing interconnection between gender and the choice of request strategies in the third situation.

Table 87: Chi-square of the impact of gender on the choice of request strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the third situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	42,299 ^a	7	,000
Likelihood Ratio	54,304	7	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	,527	1	,468
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 8 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,91.

Situation 4

For the influence of gender on the choice of request strategies in the fourth situation, 43.1% of male respondents made use of explanation and asking for ability, 23.9% of them used expressing a wish, 10.1% of them used explanation plus asking for ability, 7.3% of them used an alerter plus an implicit order and 9.2% of them had no reaction to the situation. Whereas 74.7% of female respondents made use of explanation plus asking about ability, 7.7% of them used expressing a wish as a request strategy, yet none of them used an alerter plus implicit order and a hedged order which are used by male respondents.

It could be deciphered from the presented percentages that male and female respondents use different request strategies. This remark is confirmed by the Chi-square test carried out to assess the influence of gender on the choice of request strategies in this situation. It can be noted from the Chi-square test that the p-value is significant because the sig. value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the estimated value to be significant. This means that there is a more convincing tie-in tie between gender and the choice of request strategies in the fourth situation.

Table 88: Chi-square of the impact of gender on the choice of request strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the fourth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	25,540 ^a	6	,000
Likelihood Ratio	29,594	6	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,764	1	,184
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 5 cells (35,7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,46.

Situation 5

As far as the effect of gender on the choice of request strategies in the fifth situation is concerned, 38.5% of male respondents used asking for permission plus explanation as a request strategy, 30.3% of them used explanation plus asking for ability, 14.7% of them used a soft indicator and 9.2% of the male respondents used expressing a wish to make their request. On the other side, 48.4% of female respondents made use of explanation plus asking for ability to make their request, 37.4% of them asked for permission plus explanation, 2.2% of them made use of

an implicit order as a request strategy and 3.3% used a soft indicator to make the request.

As (Table 44 in appendix C) shows, both male and female respondents used almost the same request strategies, but with different percentages and priorities. This difference is confirmed by the Chi-square test carried out to measure the impact of gender on the choice of request strategies in this situation. It can be concluded on the basis of the Chi-square test that the p-value is significant because the sig. value, .002, is less than 0.05 which is the estimated value to be significant. To put it differently, there is a more convincing correlation between gender and the choice of request strategies in the fifth situation.

Table 89: Chi-square of the impact of gender on the choice of request strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the fifth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	18,688 ^a	5	,002
Likelihood Ratio	20,619	5	,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	,079	1	,778
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 2 cells (16,7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2,73.

Situation 6

As to the influence of gender on the use of request strategies in the sixth situation, 44% of male respondents made use of hedged order to make the request, 23.9% of them used an implicit order, 18.3% of the male respondents used explanation plus asking for ability to make the request and 4.6% of them used a powerful indicator. On the other part, 40.7% of the female respondents made use

of explanation plus asking for ability, 15.4% of them used a hedged order to make the request, 22% of them used an implicit order to make the request, 11% used powerful indicator, 1.1% used expressing a wish and the same percentages of female respondents used rewarding to make the request.

It can be seen from the chart below that male and female respondents differ in their use of the appropriate strategies to make the request. This remark is asserted by the Chi-square test made to assess the influence of gender on the choice of request strategies in this situation. According to this test, the p-value is significant because the sig. value, 001, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant. This implies that there is a more convincing correlation between gender and the choice of request strategies in the sixth situation.

Table 90: Chi-square of the impact of gender on the choice of request strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the sixth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	27,241 ^a	8	,001
Likelihood Ratio	28,980	8	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	10,730	1	,001
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 10 cells (55,6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,46.

Situation 7

Regarding the impact of gender on the use of request strategies in situation 7, 45.9% of male respondents made use of a soft indicator to make the request, 19.3% of them used explanation plus asking for ability, 15.6% used a powerful indicator, 14.7% of them made use of asking for permission plus explanation and

3.7% expressed a wish. However, 51.6% of female respondents made use of a soft indicator to make the request, 33% of them used giving explanation plus asking for ability, 8.8% of them did not react to the situation, whereas none of the female respondents made use of ‘a powerful indicator’ and ‘expressing a wish’ strategies.

Thus, we can deduce that male and female respondents used different strategies to make the request in this situation. This conclusion is confirmed by the Chi-square test which was carried out to gauge the impact of gender on the choice of the adequate request strategies. According to the Chi-square test, the p-value is significant because the sig. value, .000, is less than 0.05 which is the adequate value to be significant. This denotes that there is a more convincing relationship between gender and the choice of request strategies in the seventh situation.

Table 91: Chi-square of the impact of gender on the choice of request strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the seventh situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	31,304 ^a	5	,000
Likelihood Ratio	40,094	5	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	,062	1	,803
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 4 cells (33,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,82.

Situation 8

As to gender differences in the selection of adequate request strategies in the eighth situation, 26.6% of male respondents used giving explanation plus asking for ability as a request strategy, 25.7% of them expressed a wish, 22.9%

used an implicit order, 12.8% used a soft indicator and 11.9% of them had no reaction to the situation. On the other hand, 34.1% of female respondents made use of explanation and asking for ability, 24.2% of them used a powerful indicator, 18.7% of them used an implicit order, 13.2% of them expressed a wish, 6.6% of them used explanation plus asking for permission to make the request, which was not used by male respondents, and 3.3% of them had no reaction to the situation, whereas none of them made use of a soft indicator which was, in turn, used by male respondents.

Therefore, it can be noticed that male and female respondents differ clearly in the use of appropriate request strategies. The remark is also stressed by the Chi-square test made in this situation to assess the influence of gender on the choice of request strategies. It can be deciphered from the chi-square test that the p-value is significant because the sig. value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the estimated value to be significant. This means that there is a more influential link between gender and the choice of request strategies in the eighth situation.

Table 92 : Chi-square of the impact of gender on the choice of request strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the eighth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	55,067 ^a	6	,000
Likelihood Ratio	71,523	6	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,161	1	,281
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 2 cells (14,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2,73.

Situation 9

Concerning gender differences in the use of appropriate request strategies in the ninth situation, 60.6% of male respondents made use of explanation plus asking for ability request strategy, 39.9% of them expressed a wish and 5.5% of them had no reaction to the situation. 67% of female respondents on the other side made use of explanation plus asking for ability, 24.2% of them used a soft indicator and 8.8% of them had no reaction to the situation. In this scenario, none of the female respondents used expressing a wish as a request strategy, whereas 39.9% of male respondents used it and none of the male respondents used a soft indicator which is used by 24.2% of female respondents.

This difference between male and female respondents in using request strategies is confirmed by the Chi-square test carried out to measure the impact of gender on the choice of request strategies. From the Chi-square test below, it can be concluded that the p-value is significant because the sig. value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the predictable value to be significant. Alternatively stated, there is a more persuasive association between gender and the choice of request strategies in the ninth situation.

Table 93: Chi-square of the impact of gender on the choice of request strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the ninth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	58,335 ^a	3	,000
Likelihood Ratio	80,653	3	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	36,185	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6,37.

3.1.2.2.5. Cross-tabulation of Respondents from the two Institutions

To assess the impact of the group affiliation on the choice of request strategies, a cross-tabulation of the responses of MIU respondents and SMBAU respondents is made. The cross-tabulation allows comparing and contrasting answers of both faculties' respondents and helps to make the chi-square test which is the reliable test to assess the influence of one variable on other variables. The cross-tabulation is at the level of each given situation in isolation. Dealing with each situation in isolation can serve identifying strategies used in different contextual conditions, and the impact of the group affiliation on the choice of these strategies.

Situation 1

In connection with the impact of group affiliation on the choice of adequate request strategies, 30.5% of MIU respondents made use of asking for ability to make the request, 19.5% of them used rewarding, 13% of them used a powerful indicator, 12% used asking for permission plus explanation, 11% used a soft indicator, 8.5% used expressing a wish and 5% of them used an implicit order. On the other side, 46.5% of SMBAU respondents made use of asking for ability, 21% of them used expressing a wish, 14.5% used a soft indicator, 9.5% of them used rewarding, 5.5% used asking for permission plus explanation and only 2% of them used a powerful indicator.

It seems from the listed percentages that there are differences between respondents from both faculties in frequencies of use for the same request strategy in this situation. This remark is approved by the Chi-square test made in this case to test the impact of the group affiliation on the choice of request strategies. As indicated in the Chi-square below, the p-value is significant because the sig-value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be remarkable. That is, there is a convincing correlation between the choice of request strategies and group affiliation in this situation.

Table 94: Chi-square of the impact of group affiliation on the choice of request strategies used by respondents from both institutions in the first situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	52,395 ^a	7	,000
Likelihood Ratio	55,820	7	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	11,069	1	,001
N of Valid Cases	400		

a. 2 cells (12,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,50.

Situation 2

As to the influence of the group affiliation on the choice of request strategies in the second situation, 36.5% of MIU respondents used asking for ability to make the request, 15% of them used expressing a wish, 14% used asking for permission plus explanation, 9.5% of them used a soft indicator, 8.5% used implicit order, 7% used a powerful indicator and 4.5% used rewarding. On the contrary, 44.5% of SMBAU respondents made use of asking for ability, 29.5%

used expressing a wish, 11% used a soft indicator and only 2.5% used an implicit order.

As shown in (Table 50 in appendix C), there are some request strategies used by MIU respondents and not used by SMBAU respondents such as rewarding and suggesting. This would denote that there are some differences between the two faculties' respondents in the choice of adequate request strategies.

This difference is clearly confirmed by the Chi-square test carried out to assess the influence of the group affiliation on the choice of request strategies in this situation. According to this test, the p-value is significant because the sig-value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the standard value to be significant. Differently put, there is a convincing link between the choice of request strategies and group affiliation in this situation.

Table 95: Chi-square of the impact of group affiliation on the choice of request strategies used by respondents from both faculties in the second situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	61,246 ^a	8	,000
Likelihood Ratio	70,873	8	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	4,017	1	,045
N of Valid Cases	400		

a. 4 cells (22,2%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,50.

Situation 3

In relation to the influence of the group affiliation on the choice of request strategies, 46.5% of MIU respondents made use of asking for ability strategy to

make the request, 19% of them used suggestion, 11.5% used asking for permission plus explanation, 11% used powerful indicator, 8.5% used a soft indicator and 3.5% of them used expressing a wish. Contrarily, 57% of SMBAU respondents made use of asking for ability in this situation, 17% used expressing a wish, 5% used soft indicator, 5% also made use of asking for permission plus explanation, 4% used suggestion, 1% used implicit order and 11% of them had no reaction to the situation.

It can be understood from (Table 51 in appendix C) that respondents from both faculties differ either in using the same request strategies but with different percentages and frequencies, or using a strategy which is not used by the respondents from the other group like the use of implicit order strategy used by MIU respondents and not used by SMBAU respondents.

To measure the extent to which group affiliation influences the choice of request strategies, a Chi-square test is carried out. Through the Chi-square, it can be noted that the p-value is noteworthy because the sig-value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant. Accordingly, there is a convincing relationship between the choice of request strategies and group affiliation in this situation.

Table 96: Chi-square of the impact of group on the choice of request strategies used by respondents from both institutions in the third situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	66,864 ^a	7	,000
Likelihood Ratio	76,273	7	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	4,002	1	,045

Situation 4

With regard to the impact of the group affiliation on the choice of request strategies in this situation, 54.5% of MIU respondents made use of asking for ability to make the request, 17% used expressing a wish, 13% used asking for permission plus explanation, 9% used suggestion and 6.5% used a powerful indicator. Contrastingly, 57.5% of SMBAU respondents made use of asking for ability, 16.5% used expressing a wish, 8% used asking for permission plus explanation, 5% used a soft indicator, 4% used an implicit order, 0.5% used a hedged order and 8.5% of them had no reaction to the situation.

It appears from the listed percentages that respondents from both faculties differ in using adequate request strategies in this situation. This difference is both at the level of using some strategies and not using others, or even using the same strategies with different frequencies. This remark is reaffirmed by the Chi-square test carried out to evaluate the impact of the group affiliation on the choice of request strategies in this situation.

As reported in the Chi-square test below, the p-value is significant because the sig-value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the typical value to be significant. Otherwise stated, there is a compelling association between the choice of request strategies and group affiliation in this situation.

Table 97: Chi-square of the impact of group affiliation on the choice of request strategies used by respondents from both institutions in the fourth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	46,948 ^a	7	,000
Likelihood Ratio	63,969	7	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	,044	1	,833
N of Valid Cases	400		

a. 4 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,50.

Situation 5

About the influence of the group affiliation on the choice of adequate request strategies in this situation, 35% of MIU respondents made use of asking for ability to make the request, 32% used asking for permission plus explanation, 18% used a soft indicator, 6.5% used a powerful indicator, 5% used implicit order, 2% used expressing a wish and 1.5% used giving order. On the other side, 38.5% of SMBAU respondents made use of asking for ability request strategy, 38% of them made use of asking for permission plus explanation, 9.5% used a soft indicator, 5.5% used expressing a wish, 3% used an implicit order and 5.5% of them had no reaction to the situation.

It seems from the listed request strategies and their percentages of use that MIU respondents and SMBAU respondents differ in the choice of appropriate request strategies in this situation. This conclusion is stressed by the Chi-square test carried out in this regard. According to the Chi-square test, the p-value is considerable because the sig-value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the average

value to be considerable. This means, there is a convincing relationship between the choice of request strategies and group affiliation in this situation.

Table 98: Chi-square of the impact of group affiliation on the choice of request strategies used by respondents from both institutions in the fifth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	37,883 ^a	7	,000
Likelihood Ratio	48,542	7	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,725	1	,189
N of Valid Cases	400		

a. 2 cells (12,5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,50.

Situation 6

As to the group affiliation differences on the choice of request strategies in this situation, 27.5% of MIU respondents made use of implicit order, 27% of them used a hedged order, 13% used a powerful indicator, 11.5% used asking for ability, 10.5% used asking for permission plus explanation, 3% used giving order 3% also used rewarding and 4.5% of them did not react to the situation. Differently, 31% of SMBAU respondents used a hedged order to make the request, 28.5% used asking for ability, 23% used an implicit order, 7.5% used a powerful indicator, 4.5% used asking for permission plus explanation, 1.5% used giving order, 0.5% used expressing a wish and 1.5% also used rewarding, whereas 3.5% of the respondents did not react to the situation.

Seemingly, respondents from both faculties used different strategies or even the same strategies but with different percentages. To assess the impact of the group affiliation on the choice of request strategies in this situation, a Chi-

square test is carried out. It can be noted from the Chi-square test below that the p-value is significant because the sig-value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant. In short, there is an influential correlation between the choice of request strategies and group affiliation in this situation.

Table 99: Chi-square of the impact of group affiliation on the choice of request strategies used by respondents from both faculties in the sixth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	30,404 ^a	8	,000
Likelihood Ratio	31,922	8	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,472	1	,225
N of Valid Cases	400		

a. 6 cells (33,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,50.

Situation 7

As regards the influence of the group affiliation on the choice of request strategies in this situation, 44.5% of MIU respondents made use of a soft indicator to make the request, 22% made use of asking for ability, 16% used asking for permission plus explanation, 5% used a powerful indicator, 3.5% used suggestion, 3% used expressing a wish, 1.5% used an implicit order and 4.5% of them did not react to the situation. On the contrary, 48.5% of SMBAU respondents used a soft indicator, 25.5% of them used asking for ability, 11% of them used asking for permission plus explanation, 8.5% used a powerful indicator, 2% used expressing a wish and 4.5% did not react to the situation, whereas none of them used suggestion and implicit order used by MIU respondents.

In this concern, a Chi-square test is made to measure the extent to which group affiliation affects the choice of adequate request strategies. As reported in the Chi-square test, the p-value is considerable because the sig-value, 037, is less than 0.05 which is the regular value to be considerable. In other terms, there is a significant relationship between the choice of request strategies and group affiliation in this situation.

Table 100: Chi-square of the impact of group affiliation on the choice of request strategies used by respondents from both institutions in the seventh situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	14,927 ^a	7	,037
Likelihood Ratio	18,824	7	,009
Linear-by-Linear Association	,001	1	,978
N of Valid Cases	400		

a. 4 cells (25,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,50.

Situation 8

Pertaining to the influence of the group affiliation on the choice of request strategies in this situation, 37% of MIU respondents made use of asking for ability to make the request, 33.5% of them used asking for permission plus explanation, 12% used a soft indicator, 5.5% used a powerful indicator, 5% used expressing a wish, 5% also used implicit order and 2% did not react to the situation. On the other side, 30% of SMBAU respondents made use of asking for ability to make the request, 21% used an implicit order, 20% used expressing a wish, 11% used a powerful indicator, 7% used a soft indicator, 3% used asking for permission plus explanation and 8% did not react to the situation.

Ostensibly, respondents from both faculties used the same request strategies in this situation but with different frequencies and percentages. To assess the extent to which group affiliation impacted the choice of request strategies, a Chi-square test is made. According to the Chi-square test, the p-value is significant because the sig-value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the standard value to be significant. To put it in another way, there is a considerable rapport between the choice of request strategies and group affiliation in this situation.

Table 101: Chi-square of the impact of group affiliation on the choice of request strategies used by respondents from both institutions in the eighth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	103,626 ^a	6	,000
Likelihood Ratio	115,746	6	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	63,065	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	400		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10,00.

Situation 9

With reference to the influence of the group affiliation on the choice of request strategies in this situation, 49% of MIU respondents used asking for ability, 23.5% used a soft indicator, 9% used expressing a wish, 9% also used asking for permission plus explanation, 4% used a powerful indicator and 5.5% of them had no reaction to the situation. Whereas 6.5% of SMBAU respondents made use of asking for ability, 18.5% used expressing a wish, 11% used a soft indicator, 7% did not react to the situation, but none of them made use of both powerful indicator and asking for permission used by MIU respondents.

In this regard, a Chi-square test is also carried out in this situation to assess the impact of the group affiliation on the choice of request strategies. The Chi-square test shows that the p-value is noteworthy because the sig-value, 000, is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be noteworthy. Briefly, there is a significant relationship between the choice of request strategies and group affiliation in this situation.

Table 102: Chi-square of the impact of group affiliation on the choice of request strategies used by respondents from both institutions in the ninth situation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	45,719 ^a	5	,000
Likelihood Ratio	56,121	5	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	24,627	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	400		

a. 2 cells (16,7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4,00.

3.2. Observation

In addition to the discourse completion test, observation is relied on as a supplementary data collection instrument by which this study aims to get spontaneous data. Observation firstly allows access to natural settings and secondly to people that cannot be reached using the discourse completion test. Observation also reveals the impact of some paralinguistic features and body language on the use of appropriate politeness strategies to make requests and apologies. During the process of observation, the researcher adopts a non-participative observational style. Adopting the non-participative style can guarantee more objectivity and lead to reliable and valid data.

The observation targets the same sample of participants as in the discourse completion test: Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah students, faculty of letters and arts and University Moulay Ismail students, faculty of letters and arts. Therefore, observation takes place in both institutions. Observing participants from both institutions aims first to assess the impact of gender on the choice of politeness strategies, on the one hand, and to measure the difference between respondents from both institutions in using politeness strategies to make requests and apologies, on the other hand.

The observation is carried out through using an observational fieldnote that contains descriptive and inferential notes. The descriptive notes include a detailed description of what is happening, the place, participants, the speech act produced and time of occurrence. However, the inferential notes include inferences and

comments on what is produced regarding the speech acts produced at the time of the observation. Observational data are grouped and then analysed using thematic analysis. This latter is proven to be a reliable process for identifying themes and patterns in qualitative research.

3.2.1. Apologies

3.2.1.1. Moulay Ismail University

Scene 1

This situation revolves around three third-year students from the English department (Two girls and a boy). The observation took place in one of the classrooms of Meknes faculty of letters on the 8th of November 2018 at 9 am. The three students had a meeting to prepare for a presentation, but the male student missed the meeting. Thus, he showed up with a bright smile that morning saying:

S1: [a:sala:mu ?ali:kum]
(Hello)

S2: [a:sala:m alksidib frask xlitina kantsnawk lbarəh]

(Hey little liar, do you know that we have been waiting for you for two hours? I swear.)

S3: [ahh bşəh]
(Yes, true)

S1: [waili səmħulia, wəllah maqşadt, ktabt likum misaz baj nqulikum ana mazaij walakin nsit maşiftuʃ, kan ?əndi ʃiʃyul]

(Really! I am sorry, I did not mean it I swear, I wrote you a message but I forgot to click send. I had an emergency.)

S2 (smiling): [waili!. walakin şunit ʔlik bəza:f matatjawəbf, xaşək txləs lħaq, lju:m laydaʔla ħsa:bək]
(I tried to call you many times but in vain, you must pay for that. Today's lunch is at your expense)

S1: [mərħba wəllah tstahlu: aktər mən layda,γir samħu lia]

(You are welcome, I swear. Please forgive me. You deserve more than lunch.)

S 3: [ləħlaixati:k axu:ja] (God protect you brother)

S2: [Merci beaucoup xu:ya](Thanks a lot my brother)

S1: [bxususlxadma djalna ntafqu dabaʔla ʃi waqt axur] (Concerning our work, let's agree upon another time to meet)

S2 (*Laughing*): [nta razəl aʔmal xtar lwaqt lmunasib li:k] (You choose the right timing for you, business man)

S1(*Smiling*): [jak! waxayda bəʔd duhr, məzian bənisba likum?] (Ok, Tomorrow afternoon, is that ok for you?)

S3: [la la ʔafakum nxaliwhahtal bəʔd γda] (No No please! we make it the day after)

S1: [Ok c'est bonne] (Ok that's good)

Apparently, this situation takes place between speakers who share the same social distance, social power and ranking. It is between friends who have established a good rapport among them. As an opening sentence, the male speaker used the religious expression [Salamu ʔalaikum] (peace upon you) which is the

contracted form of [sala:mu ʔalaikum wa rahmatu lahi wa barakatuh]. [Salamu ʔalaikum] is derived from the Arabic word [sala:m] which signifies “peace”. Salam comes from the same root that the word “Islam” is taken from.

The word [ʔalaikum] is the word [ʔala], which is the equivalent of “on,” combined with a suffix that changes the sense into “upon you”. This sentence is always used in the Moroccan context to salute others and greet them while shaking hands or even while kissing on cheeks. After that, the female student responds using [ʔalaikumu sala:m] which is the frequent reply used in Morocco to greet others back. Later on, she uses a mitigated version of the word “liar” to make a complaint, along with swearing that is frequently used in Morocco to make an emphasis.

To mitigate the offense, the male student makes use of four apology strategies: one expression of apology (I am sorry), no intention to make the offense (I did not mean it), swearing (I swear) and explanation (I wrote you a message, but I forgot to click send. I had an emergency). The use of the four strategies at once shows that the speaker uses a high degree of politeness though he is talking to friends who share the same power, social distance and ranking. The choice of all those strategies stems firstly from the fact that the offense made, which is to keep someone waiting for a long time without calling, is considered to be very insulting in the Moroccan context, and secondly that the offended are two girls to whom he should show his politeness.

To accept his apology, one of the offended girls suggests that the boy should invite them for lunch as a remedy for his fault. The boy, generously, approves her suggestion claiming that they both deserve more than that. In addition to that, he uses an expression of apology which is (just please forgive me). The condition put by the girl is not, in fact, a call for an invitation, but it is an indirect way to show the weight of the offense and thus make the boy regret making the offense. Also, accepting the condition, in turn, is a confession for making the offense and seeking repentance.

Scene 2

This scene took place on the 14th of December, 2018 in the conference room of the faculty at 9 am. Students were attending a study day on “Methodology of the BA research”. While the presenter was explaining, one female student got into the room. She wanted to pass through the rows to have a seat. While passing by, she dropped the backpack of a male student and she astonishingly said:

S1: [Oh my God! smah lia bəza:faxuja wəlalh marditlbal, mabyitf nbərztku:m](I am really sorry brother (I swear) I did not pay attention to your school bag, and I did not want to bother you.)

S2: [La la axti makajn hta muʃkil wəlalh yir rtahi] (No no sister, there is no problem I swear, just relax).

S1 (Smiling): [xukranbəza:f xuja ləhlaixati:k] (Thanks a lot my brother, God protect you.)

S2 (Smiling): [maʃi muʃkil axti] (there is no problem my sister)

The situation above took place between two students who don't know each other but share the same social power and social ranking. The situation, as it seems, took place in a formal context where interlocutors are supposed to behave formally. It was about dropping one's school bag unintentionally. This offense can be tolerated in the Moroccan context as long as the speaker does not have the intention to make it. Henceforth, a simple sorry can be enough to cater for the mistake.

Yet, in this situation, the female student used different strategies to make the apology: an expression of apology plus an intensifier (I am really sorry), no intention to make the harm (I did not pay attention to your school bag) and explanation (I did not want to bother you). The female student also remarkably used an intimate word which is (brother). This latter is pervasively used in the Moroccan context to establish and sustain a respectable relationship with people and to show politeness.

As a feedback, the male student accepted the apology by using an intimate word which is (sister) along with swearing to show that he really forgave her. In addition to the expression he used, the speaker also used his non-body language through smiling to show that he is not angry and that he was not offended by the unintentional mistake committed by the female student.

3.2.1.2. Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah

Scene 1:

The situation took place on 14th May 2018 in the bookshop of the faculty. It was about three female students from the English department. The three students wanted to make copies of some lessons. At first, two students were waiting for a third one who has the original copies to arrive. In a while, the third student showed up with a shining smile and said:

S1: [ahla:n azinkidajri:n, səhu lijaxlitkum katsənw, raku:mʔarfin mafakiltubis](Hello beautiful ladies, how are you doing ? Please, forgive me for keeping you waiting; you know the problems of the bus.)

S2: [Ahmafi muʃkil, matsininaʃ bəza:f . nti səmhilinabsarahabərztna:k axti. ʔafa:k waʃzabti lina dars li qulna li:k](Ah! Ok, there is no problem. We did not wait for a long time. Actually, we are sorry for bothering you, sister. Did you please bring us the lesson we asked you for?)

S1 (Smiling): "[mabinatnaʃ axti. rahna xu:t] (Don't mention it, we are sisters.)

S3: [ləlaixati:k axti] (God protect you sister.)

Then they got the notebook from the student and gave it to the bookshop lady and they started discussing general topics such as the weather, exams and problems of transportation.

This situation took place in an informal context between colleagues. This means that they have the same distance and social power; therefore, they may not

use a high degree of formality to express apologies. As a preparatory phase for apologising, the first female student used her non-verbal language (smiling) to pave the way for the apology. She also used the possessive adjective (my) plus an adjective (beautiful) to remind the other girls of the intimate relationship that gathers them. Additionally, she used an expression of apology plus explanation (just forgive me, you know the problems of the bus) relying on a common knowledge between her and the others concerning buses' problems in the city.

Though the offender in this situation is a colleague of the offended, she used many strategies to make the apology. The use of these strategies simultaneously can be explained by the nature of the offense, which is keeping someone waiting for a long time. To keep someone waiting for a long time is considered to be a serious face-threatening act in the Moroccan context. As a reaction to the apology, the other female students accepted the apology by mitigating the weight of the offense (We did not wait for a long time), and in their turn, they made an apology (Actually, we are sorry to bother you sister) to prepare for their request.

Scene 2

This situation in turn took place on the 10th of January, 2019 at the faculty of letters, Sais-Fes. It was an exam day for third-year university students in the English department. Students had to sit for a four-hour exam. It was about a male student and a female student who was waiting in front of the exam classroom. When the male student came out, the following conversation took place after shaking hands:

S1 (smiling): [ahla:n kifaf'ka:n limtiha:n] (Hello! How was the exam like?)

S2: [maʔraftʃ wəlla:h, walaki:n kan twi:l w lwaqtmakanʃi ka:fibaʃnʒawbʔla
lmawad bʒu:ʒ](I don't know, but the exam was a bit long, and time was
not enough to answer both subjects.)

S1: [ʔrafti ʃnu: nsi:t masunitʃili:klbarəh, smah lija bəza:f, faʃ tfəkərtan
mʃalha:l w mabyitʃ nbərzʔək](You know what, I forgot to call you
yesterday. I am really sorry I swear, when I recalled that, it was late and
I did not want to bother you)

S2 (smiling): [La maʃi muʃkil kunt byityir nsəwlək ʃiasʔila f limtihan wa
lakinlhamdu lillahmathatuf flimtihan](No it is ok, I just wanted to ask
you some questions about the exam, and thanks God they did not ask
us about them.)

S1: [mərauxrasmah lijamaʒawbtəkʃ] (Again, please forgive me for not
answering your call)

S2: [ʔadi wəllah qult ʔatkuni məʃyula] (It is ok. I knew that you would be
busy.)

This situation as it is stated above took place between colleagues. It was about an apology situation for not taking a phone call. For apologising, the female student made use of her non-verbal language by smiling after greeting the offended. After that, she also made a preparatory introduction to the apology by asking the offended about the exam they just have taken. After that, she expressed her sincere apology by using one expression of apology plus intensifier (I am

really sorry), and explanation (I forgot to call you and when I recalled that it was late). In addition to that, she used swearing that has a religious and cultural power in asserting one's talk.

To respond to the apology made by the female student, the male student accepted the apology by reassuring the offender that there was no offense or, at least, the offense did not have bad effects since the exam was not about the questions he wanted to ask her. Though the male student accepted the apology, the female student made the apology for a second time to show how sorry she was. But this time, she only used one expression of apology (again please forgive me for not answering you). The reaction of the offended was also different.

The use of double apology in this situation can be, in fact, explained by two reasons; the first one is that the offender is a female student who must express her sincere apology to a male colleague she respects a lot, and the second one is that the offense could have had bad impacts on the offended.

3.2.2. Requests

3.2.2.1. Moulay Ismail University

Scene 1

The observation took place in one of the faculty's classrooms on the 15th of May, 2018 from 10h to 12h. It was a situation between second-year students of the English department and their male teacher. The class included about forty students and most of them were females. By the end of the session, the teacher reminded a group of students by the presentation they had to deliver the following session. Surprisingly, one of the students raised his hand saying:

S1: [Teacher please! give us more time to prepare the presentation. We have not yet finished, Sir]

T: [But you promised to make it the next session]

S1: [You are right Sir, but the time allotted is not enough and we have extra-work to do. Please make it for the week after.]

S2: [Teacher! Please, we want to make a good work and we need more time to do that if possible, Sir.]

T: [I see but next time you tell me beforehand so that I can arrange my class well, else I can assign that work to another group.]

S1: [No no teacher. Please give us a second chance.]

T: [Ok ok but make sure that you make a good work that deserves my delay.]

This situation depicts the formal relationship between a teacher and his students. This means that the students have to use very formal ways for making the request since, first the requested has a very high social power, distance, and social ranking over them, and second because it is about keeping a promise which is an essential thing in the Moroccan culture.

To make the request, one of the students used two honorifics (teacher and Sir) plus an implicit imperative. He additionally used agreeing so as to show that the teacher is right, followed by an explanation to complain that the devoted time was not enough to make the expected work in due time. Moreover, to emphasize the request, the other student used the quality as a solid argument (Teacher please we want to make a good work and we need more time to do that). Noticeably, the second student also used extra request strategies such as asking for possibility (if possible) and two different honorifics (teacher and Sir).

In reaction to their request, the teacher accepted the request but in a condition that they would make a good quality work that deserves the devoted time. However, for preventing such behaviours from students, he threatened to assign the work to other students, this made one of the two students made the request for a second time using an implicit order preceded by honorific and followed by please.

Scene 2

This situation also took place in the cafeteria of Meknes faculty of letters on the 9th of September 2019. It was between one female and two male students from the English department. They were all about to have breakfast, so a male student took the initiative and tried to take the others' orders and said in Arabic:

S1: [adrariʃnubyitutaklu wla:tʃərbu: bzərba](Guys what would you like to drink or eat quickly?)

S2 (Male student smiling): [iwa hijaʔarədna had nha:r](So you are inviting us today?)

S1: [təsahlu ktər yi:rtəlbu](You deserve more just order.)

S3 (female student smiling and said in English): [Oh!! thank you]

S2: [ana byi:t qahwa bla suka:r] (I need a cafe without sugar please)

S3: [ana byi: kas ataj ʔafa:k] (I need a cup of tea, God heals you)

S1 : [waxa w ʃnu byitu taklu](Ok. What would you like to eat?)

S 3 : [ʃi həlwafukra:n] (A cake please)

S1: [mərħəba] (Welcome)

Then when they were served S1 asked both other students about a lesson he did not understand saying in Arabic:

S1: [lahixalikum fin xəllal usta:d nusax mən dərʃ lfajt, ana kunt knt ʔajb w mafhamtʃ da:k dars] (God protect you, where did the teacher leave copies of the previous lesson, I was absent and I did not understand that lesson)

S3: [bla matqəlab ɣla dars̄rah sahəl. Ana n̄farhu li:k] (You don't have to look for the lesson, it is very easy. I can explain it to you soon.)

S1: [lah ihafda:k, mayməni nsa li:k had lxi:r] (God protect you. I will never forget your favour)

S3: [You are welcome]

This situation is about three friends who have a strong relationship that can be deduced from the use of the word (boys) by the first male student knowing that he is talking to a male and a female student. It started by taking an order by the first male student. This act can be a gentle act from his part. Taking the order is a preparatory gentle act that does not only intend to serve the others but also to prepare for making the request later on. He also showed his hospitality by asking his friends to ask whatever they want. This strategy can be understood as a prior reward for initiating a request which is asking others to explain a lesson he did not attend.

Therefore, after serving both friends, the male student made his request for others to explain a lesson he did not attend using an implicit indicator which is asking about where the teacher left a copy of the lesson. In fact, by this question, he did not want to know the bookshop where the lessons are, but he wanted others to explain that lesson to him. This remark can be explained by his saying (I don't understand it). In addition to the implicit indicator request strategy, the student also used giving explanation strategy (I was absent and I did not attend the lesson) plus begging using the expression (God protect you) which is a religious term

used in the Moroccan context to pave the way for a request meaning God protect you.

To react to the request made, the female student took the initiative and accepted his implicit request by promising him to explain the targeted lesson by expressing her ability to do that (I can explain it to you soon). This made the male student express his gratitude through praying for her on the one hand (God protect you) and promising for reward in the future on the other hand. The use of the implicit request in this situation shows that the male student places too much emphasis on politeness to make requests.

3.2.2.2. Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University

Scene 1

The observation was at the library of Fes-Sais faculty of letters on the 16th of May 2018 at 10h: 30 minutes. The situation was about four students from the English department (Two boys and two girls). The four students seemed to prepare for the final exam, the meeting started with shaking hands while greeting each other in Arabic. Then, they asked each other about the news concerning the exam. Later on, one male student proposed revising the grammar course saying:

S1 (male): [adrari jnu banlikum nəbdaw bgramar fiha bəza:f ləwajzaxashum it[ərhu:] (Guys what do you think, we start with grammar please, there are many things to be clarified)

S2 (female): [wāllah ila knt gānqulhā](I swear, I was about to say the same thing)

After, a male student (S3) took the initiative and started to explain the grammar lesson, but while he was explaining a female student (S4) interrupted him in Arabic saying:

S4: [lah ixali:k yi:r bfwijanaxud mulahadat] (God protect you, please slowly, I need to take some notes)

S3 *while smiling said*: [Desolewəlla:hmarditʃ lbal] (I am sorry I did not pay attention that I was speaking fast)

Then, when S4 was explaining, the phone of (S2) rang and she said in Arabic:

S4: [səmhulimama tatsu:nixasni nʒawəb](Excuse me please, my mother is calling and I have to pick up)

Then all students replied to her saying it is ok there is no problem. After about 1 min the female student came back smiling and said:

S2: [səmhuli mama bya:t tʔrəf wafyadinətʔətal] (I am sorry, my mother wanted to know if I will be late)

This situation took place between colleagues who have an exam and are revising lessons together. They all share the same social power, ranking and maybe the same distance. The meeting started with a request made by a male student asking his friends to start revising grammar lessons first. To make the request, he asked his colleagues about their opinion on beginning with the grammar course; the question is a rhetorical one by which he intends to ask them

if possible to start with grammar because it contains many things to be clarified. Surprisingly, one female student approved the request by swearing that she was about to make the same request.

After that, another male student took the initiative and started explaining lessons. While explaining, one female student interrupted him gently asking him to speak slowly so that she can take notes. To make the request, she used the religious expression (God protect you) which is always used to make polite requests in the Moroccan contexts. In addition to that expression, she used giving explanation to make the request (I need to take some notes). As a reaction, the male student accepted the request by apologising using his non-verbal language through smiling along with the French word (Desole) meaning sorry.

Scene 2

Incidents of this situation took place at the gate of Sais- Fes faculty of letters on the 17th of May 2018. It was between two male students from the English department. The two students were trying to agree on meeting the following day. Before leaving, one of them said:

S1: [ʃnu banlik natlaqaw yda f 2hndirufi qhiwa wəlla:h ila ʔji:t mən laqraja:] (What do you think of meeting tomorrow at 14h? We have a coffee; I really feel tired of studying.)

S2: [wəlla:hila hta ana ʔji:t, yi:r nxaliwha hta l 16h pmʔafa:k hitaʔəndnʃidja:f w xasni nkun f da:r](I swear I feel tired too, but

please let's make it at 16h because we have some guests, and I have to be at home.)

S1: [hanja: makajn ɣta muʃki:l] (It is ok there is no problem)

S2: [natlaqaw hda ɣubis wəla f lqawa] (We meet at the bus station or in the cafe?)

S1: [makajn ɣta muʃki:lbnisba lija natlqaw finma byiti] (There is no problem for me, we can meet wherever you want.)

S2: [safi natlqaw hdaɣubis inʃaʔalah] (Ok, we meet at the bus station God willing)

S1: [āh ʔafa:k matnsaʃ tɣibli mʔa:k nusxa mən dars liyanraʒu: lmera ʒaja] (ah Please, don't forget to bring me a copy of the lesson we will revise next time)

S2 (laughing): [byinanəmʃiw lqahwa baʃ nnsaw laqraja w tatquliyanzib nusxa məndars] (We want to go to the cafe to forget about studies and now you are asking me to bring you copies of the lesson.)

S1 (smiling): [la la yi:r ndi:r nsxa maʃi naqraw](no no just to make copies not to study.)

S2 (laughing): [ah ʔraft yi:r kandɣak mʔa:k] (yes I know I am just kidding)

S1 (smiling): [ʃukra:n, natʃāwfuyda: inʃaʔalah] (Thank you, so we see each other tomorrow God willing)

S2: [inʃaʔalah] (God willing)

The situation is about two friends who belong to the same social ranking, power and have the same social distance. Therefore, making requests in this situation would be informal and less face threatening. To make the request, the first student used suggestion as a request strategy (what do you think of going out tomorrow?) plus explanation (I really feel tired of studying. To react to the request, the other student expresses agreement by swearing that he is tired too. His approval to the first request was followed by another request; which is to postpone the meeting until 16h through using suggestion request strategy (let's make it 16h), plus explanation (we have some guests and I have to be at home).

After agreeing on the timing and the place, one of the students asked his friend to bring him copies of some lessons. To make the request, he used recalling plus please to make the request (please don't forget to bring me a copy of the lesson we will revise next time). For accepting the request, the other student used joking by recalling his friend of the objective why they want to go out. The use of joking in the Moroccan context is generally perceived as a positive response to either requesting or even apologising especially when it is accompanied by laughing or smiling as it is the case in this situation.

As a closing sentence, both students used the expression (if God wills or if Allah wills). This expression is used in different contexts to show a willingness to do something. Therefore, it is part of every Muslim's (not only Moroccans) everyday lexicon, as people are taught by Islamic doctrine not to make ultimate judgments about the future, given that only Allah knows what will happen. This

simply means if someone is requested to provide others with something, instead of (I will give it to you soon) s/he should say: (I will give it to you soon, Insha Allah).

Summary

Overall, this Chapter targets analysing and describing data collected from the discourse completion test and the observation. It is divided into two major parts; the first one deals with the quantitative findings of the DCT and the second one with the qualitative findings of the observation. Concerning the first part, it is, in turn, divided into two sub-sections; the first one is devoted to apologies and the second one to requests. Each speech act is dealt with in isolation in order to investigate the impact of both major variables of the research which are gender and group affiliation on the choice of the speech act. Analysing data focuses on gender differences of respondents from two faculties in Morocco firstly, and on the differences between respondents from both faculties as isolated groups.

The discourse completion test is composed of 19 situational scenarios to which respondents have to react as realistic as possible. There are 10 apology situations and 9 request ones. While analysing the data, each situation is dealt with independently, bearing in mind the contextual and cultural specificity of each situation. The data collected is grouped using tabulation and cross-tabulation which allow systematic and reasonable comparison and contrast between respondents from the same faculty and respondents from both faculties.

To assess the impact of gender and group affiliation on the choice of request and apology strategies, a Chi-square test for each situation is carried out. In most cases, the chi-square test approves the relationship between the two variables and the choice of strategies. The Chi-square test is believed to be a good measure to evaluate the correlation between two different variables.

However, the second part of this chapter aims to present data collected from the natural setting and analysed using thematic analysis. It is divided also into two major subsections: the first one deals with apologies and the second one with requests. As it is the case with findings of the discourse completion test, each speech act is dealt with in isolation so as to measure the impact of both major variables of the research: gender and group affiliation on the choice of adequate politeness strategies.

The observation takes place in eight different contexts including formal and nonformal contexts. It targeted mainly students of the two faculties; Meknes faculty of letters students and Sais-Fes faculty of letters students. Observing students in both institutions helps to identify some request and apology strategies not used in the discourse completion test such as the use of the religious lexicon. Joking is another strategy spotted by the observation in addition to some paralinguistic features and facial expressions that were used either to mitigate a request or an apology or show acceptance of a request or an apology.

The observation carried out in both contexts shows that participants place an important value on the use of politeness strategies to make requests and

apologies alike. The use of these strategies is not always conditioned by the value of the hearer, but merely by the impact of the offense made in case of apologies or the weight of the face-threatening in case of requests. Remarkably, from the observed situations, when the conversation is a mixed one, speakers tend to pick up more polite strategies and techniques to express themselves, regardless of the social distance, social power, or social ranking. Also, when students talk to each other they use Moroccan Arabic, but when they talk to teachers, they use English; this switch in the language is another technique to show respect and politeness to teachers who have a high social ranking, distance and power in comparison to students.

Chapter Four: Data Discussion and Interpretation

Introduction

The previous chapter was devoted to presenting findings and analysis of data collected from the discourse completion test and observation. This chapter is dedicated to discussing and interpreting those findings. It proceeds through the discussion of the results obtained from the observation and the DCT. The findings are discussed in the light of their relationship with the factors that affect the choice of politeness strategies, the impact of religion on the choice of these strategies and the influence of the Moroccan culture on the choice of these strategies. Additionally, this chapter presents implications drawn from themes of the observation and which mainly include gender implications and politeness implications.

4.1. Discussion of the Results Obtained from Data Collected from the Two Institutions

4.1.1. Moroccan EFL University Students and Pragmatic Competence

This sub-section deals with the pragmatic competence of respondents from both institutions: SMBAU and MIU. The results obtained from the observation and the discourse completion test show that respondents have developed a considerable pragmatic and communicative competence while making apologies and requests; taking into account the socio-cultural variable and the variety of strategies used in the same context while responding to a specific speech act can

be a proof for that. For example, respondents used both direct and indirect strategies in making apologies, following Cohen and Olshtain's (1983) classification of apology strategies.

The usage of these strategies is conditioned by the weight of the three main variables that are issued in Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory of politeness: social distance, social power and rate of imposition. These three variables are also determinant factors for choosing adequate request strategies by respondents from the two institutions. Henceforth, while responding to different scenarios, participants make use of direct and indirect request strategies as in Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984).

For the direct request strategies, participants use giving order, implicit order and hedged order. As to indirect strategies, they use rewarding, asking for permission plus explanation, asking for ability, soft indicator, powerful indicator, suggestion and expressing a wish. It can be noted from the listed strategies that the number of indirect strategies is more than that of direct strategies. This means that respondents try to sound polite to the maximum as Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) suggest. For example, in the first request scenario, 30.5% of respondents from MIU and 46, 5% of SMBAU respondents use asking for ability which is an indirect strategy.

Along with the previously stated strategies, respondents from both faculties make use of in-group-identity markers as in Brown and Levinson (1987), such as generic names and titles (honey, brother, sister, Sir, teacher) or the use of code-

switching from Arabic to French or Arabic to English as it is noticed in the observation of some scenes.

Additionally, during the observation, it can be noted that participants use other strategies not used while responding to the discourse completion test such as swearing, smiling, joking, facial expressions, showing agreement and using some words from the religious lexicon such as [infaʔalah, wəlla:h, lah ixali:k and lah ihafdək].

Remarkably, most of the strategies used by respondents from both institutions flow at the river of what Brown and Levinson (1987) call them positive politeness strategies. For instance, most of the strategies used by respondents stress the idea of claiming common ground. The speakers try to take into account the hearer's status and show care of his/her status like in apology scene one observed in SMBAU. This implies that Moroccan society is a positive politeness culture wherein people try to demonstrate closeness and affiliation through caring about the other's face and what people would say about them. Therefore, it can be concluded that participants seek values of solidarity and intimacy as in Ide et al (1986).

4.1.2. Factors Influencing the Choice of Politeness Strategies

As it is stated in the data description and analysis chapter, the discourse completion test includes different situations with distinctive contextual features. Each situation has different power relationships, distance relationship and social ranking relationships. Variety in terms of these contextual features aims at measuring the reaction of respondents in different real-life like situations.

Following Brown and Levinson's (1987) belief concerning factors influencing the choice of politeness strategies, it is clear from responses of the respondents that social power, social distance and social ranking are impactful factors in the choice of adequate apology and request strategies. This remark is asserted by the fact that when the p-value is high, as it was the case in the 3rd, 4th, 5th and 8th apology situations, the respondents tend to use more polite apology strategies such as using one expression of apology plus intensifier or even combining two different strategies along with honorifics and titles.

However, when the power value, distance value, or even social ranking value is low, the speakers tend to use less polite and less formal strategies like in the 9th situation. In this situation, the relationship between the interlocutors is a family relationship that does not necessitate formality in making apologies. Consequently, in reaction to this situation, respondents from both institutions use indirect apology strategies without using titles or honorifics such as promise not to repeat the offense (this will never happen again).

Along with the social distance, social power and the social ranking factors mentioned by Brown and Levinson (1987), there are many other influencing factors in the choice of either request or apology strategies following the convictions of Holmes (1995), Mills (2003) and Ladegaard (2004). The first major variable is gender; from the Chi-squared test conducted for each situation in both institutions, the gender variable is a determinant factor in the choice of adequate apology strategies in the ten situations for respondents from MIU and in nine situations for SMBAU respondents.

In these situations, the p-value is less than 0.05 which is the average value to be significant. However, in the eighth situation, it was not influential since that the Pearson Chi-Squared statistic is ($X^2=7.482$), $df=3$, $N=200$), the p-value ($p=.000$) is more than the significance value $p<0.05$. This finding entails that the relationship between gender and the choice of apology strategies is significant, and the gender variable is impactful in this case.

The influence of gender on the choice of politeness strategies is also clearly manifesting in responding to request situations given to the informants from both institutions. Thus, from Pearson Chi-Squared tests, the p-value is always less than the significance value 0.05, which means that also in request situations the gender variable is impactful. This finding clearly matches the view of Sadiqi (2003) who claims that gender is an influential variable that certainly makes speakers resort to specific forms of language and avoid using others.

This relationship between gender and the use of politeness strategies can be attributed to the social construction of gender, and the social dichotomy made by society to make feminine and masculine language. This entails that the gender of the speaker and the hearer can determine the politeness level and strategies used in the conversation.

The group affiliation is also another factor that could affect politeness use in language. In this concern, according to the Chi-squared test carried out for situations given to students in the two institutions (request and apology situations), the p-value is below $p < .5$ which is the average value to be significant. This means that there is a more convincing relationship between “group affiliation” and “the choice of politeness strategies”; for example, in apology situation number one, the Pearson Chi-Squared statistic is ($X^2=69,331$), ($df=13$), ($N=400$), the p-value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p < 0.05$.

This finding, indeed, matches with Giora (1992) and Mills (2003) who assert that group affiliation can be more influential than gender and other variables in the choice of adequate politeness strategies. In this case, group stands for the institutional affiliation of respondents belonging to different regions with cultural differences.

Another variable that is impactful in the choice of politeness strategies is the cultural weight of the face-threatening act. For instance, in the observed situations in both institutions, respondents choose many apology or request strategies that can be considered very formal while speaking to people with

similar social power, social distance and social ranking as theirs in situations where the face-threatening act is considered to be high.

In this regard, the first apology scene by MIU students can be an example. In this scene, the male student apologised using four apology strategies: ‘an expression of apology’, ‘no intention to do harm’, ‘swearing’ and ‘explanation’ though the offended are his classmates, who have the same social power, distance and ranking. The use of all these strategies at once can be in fact justified by the fact that missing a rendezvous without prior explanation and excuse is a very harmful act in the Moroccan context. This finding matches with Brown and Levinson’s (1987) idea that the cultural perception of face and face-threatening acts can be a determinant factor in choosing specific politeness strategies.

4.1.3. The Impact of Religion on the Choice of Politeness Strategies

Within the same realm of group affiliation influence on the choice of politeness strategies, religion is a determinant factor in choosing specific politeness forms in the Moroccan context. Clearly, while observing participants in natural settings, the use of the religious lexicon is always existent not only in making requests and apologies but also in responding to them.

The fact that religious lexicon is always present in the respondents’ communication can be attributed to the inextricable relationship between Arabic and Islam, bearing in mind that Arabic is the language of the Quran as Bouchara (2015) says. Therefore, in exchanges where interlocutors use a foreign language

(request scene 1 of MIU) they do not use religious terms while talking to each other. This matches with Bouchara (2015) who claims that the use of religious words in forms of politeness comes from the religious role Arabic plays for its speakers.

According to the findings of the observation, speakers use religious terms from the Islamic lexicon either to make requests or apologies such as: [āslāmū 'lykūm] meaning “peace be upon you” which is a declaration for peace in Islam, [lhlā āyḥtyk] meaning “may Allah protect you” which is mostly used to respond to a request or an apology, [āllah ihalykum] meaning “may Allah protect or preserve you” which is always used to make requests, and [wāllāh] which is the equivalent of the English expression (I swear to God). This latter is frequently existent in the Moroccan speaker’s communication since it is perceived as a symbol of clarity and frankness.

Unlike other western cultures which consider swearing as an impolite form of language as Mills (2003) said, in the Moroccan culture swearing is a profane form of politeness by which the speaker can show his repentance while apologising and his gratitude to others while making requests.

The findings of the research insert that there are many reasons that stimulate Arabs in general and Moroccans in particular, to call upon religious lexicons in their daily politeness discourse. One of these reasons is that the use of religion in Moroccan politeness does not only function as a politeness strategy but also as a way of protecting the self-image of both the speaker and the hearer.

Furthermore, the findings also reveal that by resorting to the use of this politeness strategy, Moroccans seem to reflect the significance of religion to them. As a consequence, it is not the linguistic expression itself but the pragmatic function of the utterance that determines the usage and explanation of politeness strategies in (Moroccan) Arabic. For that reason, it could be inferred here that religion, as a communication resource, offers Moroccans in particular and Arabs in general a chance to perform their action without threatening their self-image or their interlocutor's.

In addition, it could be also concluded from the findings of this study that along with its pragmatic force, it seems that politeness for Moroccans is tied in with religion and one's relation to *Allah* and the community in a way which it is not true in western cultures. According to Moroccans, being polite distinguishes a good Muslim from a bad one and politeness should be reflected in the person's behaviour, talk, etiquette, humour, discussion and clothes.

In sum, the interface between politeness and religion in Morocco is so obvious that we cannot overlook it. Today's modern Moroccan society, besides its complexities and because of its diverse and intense relationships, it guards special attitudes towards religion as a behaviour or as a pattern of life. This explains the religiousness of Moroccan politeness and the existence of religious lexicon in Moroccans' daily conversations.

4.1.4. Apologies and Requests in the Moroccan Context

The study findings reveal that the Moroccan respondents' religious beliefs, concepts and values are responsible for many deviations in the use of apology and request strategies. This could be noted from the use of religious lexicon as an apology or request strategy to give more power to apologies and to soften the request on the one hand and to protect both the speaker and the hearer's face on the other hand.

Through the findings of the study, it could be inferred that Moroccans use more intensifiers in their production of apologies. Therefore, while responding to the DCT or during the observation, both speakers and respondents used intensified expressions in most responses such as the recurring use of "so" and "very" (I am so so sorry, / I am awfully awfully sorry, / I am very very sorry, which is an outcome of transfer from Moroccan Arabic, in which repetition is a frequent intensification strategy. It is the equivalent of the frequent use of "bzaaf" (so) or (very) as an intensifier in Moroccan Arabic.

Another important point to note here is the use of address terms after an apology or before a request. While responding to the DCT situations, respondents used "aunt", "brother" and "Sister" to show respect. These address terms are a mere transfer from Moroccan Arabic. It could be noted also that the respondents prefer to employ "I am sorry" because it is the most easily accessible to speakers and because it is the most common among apology formulas in English. However, they, actually, use other formulas like "forgive me" or "please accept my

apology” in offences of high level of harm along with “the expression of apology” (we are sorry/ I am sorry) to strengthen the force of apologetic behaviour.

Doing harm is a possible face-threatening act that can demolish a relationship between a speaker and a hearer. That is why an apology is highly needed to rescue this relationship and keep it going in harmony. Following Cohen and Olshtain’s (1983) classificatory scheme for apologies, respondents from both faculties use direct strategies like one expression of apology or one expression of apology plus an intensifier and indirect strategies like compensation.

In eight of the ten apology situations given, respondents used direct apology strategies more than indirect ones through using either one expression of apology plus intensifier or plus explanation. This means that respondents try to pick up more formal expressions that show sincere regret for making the offense.

What makes the responses of respondents unique is the excessive use of swearing to make apologies. Through observation of natural situations, speakers and hearers use swearing to confirm their apologies and show their sincere regret for doing the harm. Therefore, in the four apology scenes observed in both institutions, participants used swearing seven times which denotes how imminent swearing is for Moroccans to show credibility and truth. In the same vein, what marks the apology used by respondents also is the excessive use of religious terms such as [ālslāmū‘lykūm] that is used as a preparatory form for opening a conversation in general and making an apology or a request.

Requests are said to be fosters of communication used by speakers and hearers to sustain and keep their relationship going smoothly. They are face-threatening acts for both the speaker and the hearer and that is why it is not simple to make a request, especially in collective cultures like the Moroccan context. In reaction to situations given to respondents from both institutions, respondents varied their use of strategies to make requests. Yet, it can be noticed that in most cases they use indirect request strategies which are considered more polite forms as in Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984). For instance, in eight out of nine situations given to respondents from both faculties, the dominant strategies used are indirect request strategies including asking for ability, rewarding, suggesting, asking for permission plus explanation and soft indicator.

Along with the used strategies to make requests, respondents from both faculties use extra-distinguishing cultural expressions to mitigate their requests such as titles (teacher, professor, Mr. and Madam), and intimate expressions such as (my aunt, names, sister, brother, dad, mother, my honey and my sweetie). The use of these expressions can be viewed as a supplementary strategy reflecting a part of the collectivism of the Moroccan culture that stresses social relationships among its members. This entails that through using indirect request strategies and extra expressions, respondents from both institutions respect the politeness principle to the maximum.

4.1.5. Politeness and Non-linguistic Behaviour in the Moroccan Context

Like in other cultures, in the Moroccan context politeness cannot only be seen in verbal communication but also in nonverbal one. Therefore, the interlocutors code and decode messages not only by words but also via body language, touching, distancing, kissing and other nonverbal cues. Through these nonverbal cues they can show polite or impolite behaviour. In accordance with politeness, nonverbal expressions can maintain harmonious and smooth social relationships.

Non-linguistic features of language are essential elements without which our communication would be incomplete. Therefore, people place an important emphasis on the coding and interpretation of non-linguistic behaviour like facial expressions, touching (haptics) and management of space (proxemics). While observing participants in this study, it could be noted that Moroccan EFL university students tend to shake hands especially between participants from different genders, or kiss on cheeks when it is between participants of the same gender. Shaking hands and kissing on the cheeks for Moroccans are polite ways by which they tend to greet each other and show intimacy.

Along with shaking hands or kissing cheeks, as a preparatory act for making requests or apologies, participants always use smiling as a non-linguistic behaviour that shows appeasement and reassurance. The use of smiling can be perceived as not only a sign of happiness but also as a reflection of a vast array of emotions towards the hearer as Brown and Levinson (1987) claim. It is a positive

politeness strategy that shows optimism and therefore reflects that the speaker and the hearer can co-operate to redress the face-threatening act. This entails that, participants in both observed institutions are aware of the importance of smiles to minimize the weight of face-threatening acts.

It can be concluded from the observation of the participants that in most interactions, they use short eye contact and avoid focused and long eye contact which is perceived by Moroccans as rude especially between interlocutors with different social power such as teacher/student relationship. It could be inferred here that the nonverbal cues can be used to strengthen a polite linguistic behaviour in some cases such as the situation where the students had to apologise from their teacher. In that situation, one student said ‘we are awfully sorry teacher’ supported by a bowed head and facial expressions that reflected regret. This means that the nonverbal in this case functions as a support to the verbal message.

Another aspect of non-linguistic behaviour that participants stressed during scenes of the observation is chronemics or the use of time. In apology scene one of both institutions, participants tend to apologise using more than one apology strategy for missing a meeting or for keeping someone waiting for a long time. This means that coming late for a meeting, be it with a person who has more social power or even the same social power, can be a serious face-threatening act that must be avoided, and thus coming on time is regarded as a polite way by which Moroccan participants show their respect to others.

Relating to the politeness concept, speakers used nonverbal positive politeness by using some gestures which are associated with assisting or comprehending. For example, the students used their body language to show their forgiveness to other student for being late. Another nonverbal behaviour that shows positive politeness is the use of smiling while talking to each other. A warm smile in many of the observed situations was used to show that the offended accepted the apology of the wrongdoer.

Generally, participants employed positive politeness on their nonverbal behaviours. They maintained eye contact with each other to show responsiveness and attentiveness. Positive politeness was also showed by the participants when they directly reacted to what the speaker was saying without any objections. The subjects tended to employ positive politeness as well to give respect and feel close to each other. It could be additionally understood from the observation that the limitation of the linguistic ability of students could contribute to the production of more nonverbal expressions. For example, in the situation between the teacher and the students, the students used more nonverbal expressions in their response(s) to the teacher's complaint(s), because of insufficient knowledge or competence in English.

4.2. Discussion of the Results Obtained from the Discourse Completion Test

4.2.1 Apologies

4.2.1.1 Interpretation of Strategies used in Both Institutions

This sub-section deals with apology strategies used in both institutions. The findings of the tabulation of the data collected from the discourse completion test for both institutions show that respondents used almost the same strategies to respond to the ten given situations. These strategies can be classified into direct and indirect strategies following Cohen and Olshtain's (1983) model for apologies; direct strategies include one expression of apology, one expression of apology plus intensifier and one expression of apology plus explanation.

However, indirect strategies used by respondents include compensation, promise not to repeat offense, showing lack of intent to do harm, self-criticism, gratefulness, claiming responsibility, calming down the offended, checking on consequences and explanation. The used strategies also go hand in hand with the four umbrella apology strategies issued by Brown and Levinson (1987) to show regret and reluctance: admit the impingement, indicate reluctance, give overwhelming reasons and finally beg forgiveness.

It can be deduced from the used strategies that respondents used three direct strategies and nine indirect ones. The excessive use of the latter can be explained by the nature of the Moroccan society which can be described as positive politeness culture; wherein speakers care a lot about hearers' wants through offering, promising, asserting the hearer's priority, giving and asking for reasons,

using in-group-identity markers, exaggerating and including both the speaker and the hearer in the activity as indicated in Brown and Levinson's (1987) model of positive politeness strategies. This means that through using indirect strategies, respondents try to sound polite as much as they can.

4.2.1.2 Gender and Apology Strategies in both Institutions

This sub-section represents a comparison between male and female respondents with respect to the impact of gender on the choice of apology strategies. The findings of the cross-tabulation between the genders in terms of the impact of gender on the use of adequate apology strategies by MIU respondents show that there is a noticeable difference between them.

To figure out whether there is any influence of gender and group affiliation on the choice of politeness strategies, a chi-square test is run. The rationale behind the use of this test is to decide whether gender and group affiliation affect students' choice of politeness strategies in both faculties MIU and SMBAU. The Chi-square test is the primary statistic used for measuring the statistical significance of the cross-tabulation table. Chi-square tests indicate whether or not the two variables are independent. If the variables are independent (have no relationship), then the findings of the statistical test are going to be "non-significant". However, if the variables are interconnected, then the findings of the statistical test are going to be "statistically significant".

The Chi-Squared tests carried out for each situation indicate that in situation one the Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=49.223$, $df=12$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation two Pearson Chi-Squared statistic is ($X^2=20.694$, $df=10$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.023$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation three Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=59.222$, $df=12$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation four Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=38.510$, $df=10$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation five Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=19.807$, $df=10$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.031$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation six Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=29.126$, $df=13$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.006$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation seven Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=15.813$, $df=8$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.045$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation eight Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=52.417$, $df=9$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation nine Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=12.676$, $df=9$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.178$) is more than the significance value $p<0.05$, and in the last situation Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=19.116$, $df=10$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.039$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$.

This may lead to the conclusion that there is a significant relationship between the two variables, “gender” and “the choice of apology strategies” by

MIU respondents in nine situations and only in one situation which is situation “nine” there is no relationship between these two variables. Henceforth, in general, gender was an impactful variable in the choice of politeness strategies by MIU respondents.

The findings of the cross-tabulation between the genders in terms of the impact of gender on the use of adequate apology strategies by SMBAU respondents also reveal a noticeable difference between them when it comes to the choice of adequate strategies.

The Chi-Squared tests carried out for each situation reveal that in situation one the Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=33.568$, $df=7$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation two Pearson Chi-Squared statistic is ($X^2=42.536$, $df=5$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation three Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=81.858$, $df=8$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation four Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=58.982$, $df=7$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation five Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=80.737$, $df=7$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation six Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=69.783$, $df=7$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation seven Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=22.450$, $df=3$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation eight Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is

($X^2=7.482$, $df=3$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.058$) is more than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation nine Pearson Chi-Squared statistic is ($X^2=85.161$, $df=6$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$ and in the last situation Pearson Chi-Squared statistic is ($X^2=54.111$, $df=7$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$.

It could be implied from the presented findings that there is a remarkable relationship between the two variables, “gender” and “the choice of apology strategies” by SMBAU respondents in nine situations and only in one situation which is situation “eight” there is no relationship between these two variables. In other words, gender was an influential variable in the choice of politeness strategies by SMBAU respondents.

The findings of the Chi-squared test go with the dominance theory, the reformist theory, semiologist theory, the postmodernist theory, community of practice theory and the radical theory that all agree upon the idea that man and woman talk differently and use different forms of politeness as Sadiqi (2003) claims, regardless of the cause of this difference in language. The findings of the Chi-square test match also with Brown and Levinson’s (1987) study that concluded that men and women use different politeness forms; wherein women use more positive politeness markers through showing friendliness and sympathy, and men use bald on record politeness markers through being objective-oriented.

Approaching the results obtained from the Chi-squared test makes it necessary to refer to Brown’s (1980, 1993) reasons for gender differences in using

politeness forms summed up into two reasons: gender inequality and education. These two reasons are also applicable to the Moroccan context. In Morocco, female kids are always encouraged to talk gently like ladies, and they can be castigated or even sanctioned if they do not, whereas, male kids are allowed to speak roughly and this is in fact what makes girls more polite than boys. As far as gender inequality is concerned, men are favoured over women in the Moroccan society, and this pushes women to use more prestigious and polite forms to gain more respect and get a better social status.

4.2.1.3. Group Affiliation and Apology Strategies

This sub-section sheds light on the comparison between the two institutions with respect to the impact of the group on the choice of apology strategies. The findings of the cross-tabulation between the two institutions in terms of the difference in the choice of apology strategies show that there is a clear difference between respondents from both institutions in the choice of apology strategies.

The Chi-squared test carried out for each situation given in the DCTs shows that in situation one the Pearson Chi-Squared statistic is ($X^2=39.331$, $df=13$, $N=400$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation two Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=85.953$, $df=10$, $N=400$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation three Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=123.414$, $df=12$, $N=400$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation four Pearson Chi-

Squared statistic is ($X^2=88.310$, $df=10$, $N=400$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation five Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=135.226$, $df=11$, $N=400$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation six Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=126.320$, $df=13$, $N=400$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation seven Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=119.571$, $df=9$, $N=400$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation eight Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=181.461$, $df=9$, $N=400$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation nine Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=28.337$, $df=9$, $N=400$), the p -value ($p=.001$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$ and in the last situation Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=164.994$, $df=11$, $N=400$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$.

It can be concluded from the findings of the Chi-square test carried out for each situation in isolation that there is a noteworthy correlation between the two variables, “group affiliation” and “the choice of apology strategies” by the respondents. In other words, group affiliation is a significant variable in the choice of politeness strategies by respondents from both institutions.

The results obtained from the Chi-squared test in this case strongly match with Mills (2003) who believes that being a member of a specific community or a speech community can be an impactful factor in the choice of politeness levels and strategies. Parallel to this, the obtained findings also go with Nwoye (1992)

who confirms that the perception of face varies from one group to another or even within the same group which, thus, affects the choice of politeness degrees. This difference in the choice of apology strategies, in this case, can be attributed to the fact that respondents from both institutions come from two different regions of Morocco which have some cultural differences in terms of the language and traditions.

4.2.2. Requests

4.2.2.1. Interpretation of Strategies used in both Institutions

This sub-section focuses on request strategies used by the respondents. The findings of the tabulation of the data gathered from the discourse completion test reveal that respondents make use of the same strategies to respond to the nine request scenarios. As it is mentioned before, these strategies can be classified into direct and indirect strategies following Blum-Kulka and Olshtain's (1984) classification of request strategies.

It is compelling the reiterate from the request strategies used by the respondents that they use seven indirect strategies and only three direct ones. The excessive use of indirect strategies can be a sign of politeness by which the requester tries to increase the degree of optionality for the requestee and therefore s/he weakens the force of the illocutionary force of the request as in Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984).

This stresses the idea that the Moroccan culture is a positive culture in which the speaker tends to make delicate requests preceded by an introductory phrase that paves the way for making the request. This means that through using indirect strategies respondents try to sound polite as much as they can through respecting the politeness principle to the maximum.

4.2.2.2. Gender and Request Strategies in both Institutions

This sub-section deals with the comparison between the male and female respondents with regard to the influence of gender on the choice of request strategies. The cross-tabulation of genders for MIU respondents shows a remarkable difference between male and female respondents in the choice of adequate politeness strategies.

The Chi-Squared tests carried out for each situation state that in situation one the Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=53.763$, $df=7$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation two Pearson Chi-Squared statistic is ($X^2=38.057$, $df=8$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation three Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=38.597$, $df=5$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation four Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=59.174$, $df=4$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation five Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=22.585$, $df=6$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.001$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation six Pearson

Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=72.559$, $df=7$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation seven Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=22.086$, $df=7$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.002$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation eight Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=29.101$, $df=6$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$ and in the last situation Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=12.866$, $df=6$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.025$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$.

This may lead to the conclusion that there is a significant relationship between the two variables “gender” and “the choice of request strategies” by MIU respondents in all the request scenarios given. Henceforth, it can be deduced that in general gender is an influential variable in the choice of request strategies by MIU respondents.

In the same realm, the findings of the cross-tabulation between genders in terms of the impact of gender on the use of adequate request strategies by SMBAU respondents reveal that there is a perceptible difference between them when it comes to the choice of adequate strategies. The Chi-Square tests carried out for each situation display that in situation one the Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=30.853$, $df=6$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation two Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=50.276$, $df=6$, $N=200$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation three Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=42.299$, $df=7$, $N=200$), the

p-value (**p=.000**) is less than the significance value **p<0.05**; in situation four Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is (**X²=25.540, df=6, N=200**), the *p*-value (**p=.000**) is less than the significance value **p<0.05**; in situation five Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is (**X²=18.688, df=5, N=200**), the *p*-value (**p=.002**) is less than the significance value **p<0.05**; in situation six Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is (**X²=27.241, df=8, N=200**), the *p*-value (**p=.001**) is less than the significance value **p<0.05**; in situation seven Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is (**X²=31.304, df=5, N=200**), the *p*-value (**p=.000**) is less than the significance value **p<0.05**; in situation eight Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is (**X²=55.067, df=6, N=200**), the *p*-value (**p=.000**) is less than the significance value **p<0.05** and in the last situation, Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is (**X²=58.335, df=3, N=200**), the *p*-value (**p=.000**) is less than the significance value **p<0.05**.

Once more, this shows that there is a noteworthy relationship between the two variables, “gender” and “the choice of request strategies” by SMBAU respondents in all given request situations of the discourse completion test. Simply put, gender is a significant variable in the choice of politeness request strategies by SMBAU respondents.

Dealing with the outcomes of the Chi-squared test in this regard makes it necessary to go back to Leap (2003) and Hellinger and Bugmann (2003) who confirm the existence of gender differences in language and the impact of gender as an influential variable on the use of language. This impact is to be attributed to social inequality between men and women and the social roles society gives to

each one of them. Generally, women are expected to be more polite and delicate whereas men can use some direct forms of language since they have more social power.

The findings of the Chi-square test in this concern also go in parallel with the conclusion of Lakoff (1975) who came to the conclusion that there are gender differences in the use of language and that these differences are attributed to social inequality and sexism in language. More than that, Lakoff (1975) concludes that requests as a speech act are made more by females than males since males always give commands.

The findings of the Chi-squared test in this regard are also in harmony with both the dominance theory which confesses the existence of gender differences in language due to the hegemonic power men have over women and the difference theory which considers gender differences in language to be compulsory since men and women are brought up differently. In sum, gender is an influential variable in choosing certain linguistic forms such as politeness strategies regardless if these differences are socially constructed, innate in people, or stereotypically made.

4.2.2.3. Group Affiliation and Request Strategies

This sub-section sheds light on the comparison between the two institutions with regard to the influence of the group affiliation on the choice of request strategies. The findings of the cross-tabulation between the two institutions in terms of the difference in the choice of request strategies demonstrate that there is an obvious difference between respondents from both institutions in the choice of request strategies.

The Chi-squared test made for each situation given in the DCTs infers that in situation one the Pearson Chi-Squared statistic is ($X^2=52.395$, $df=7$, $N=400$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation two Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=61.246$, $df=8$, $N=400$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation three Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=66.864$, $df=7$, $N=400$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation four Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=46.948$, $df=7$, $N=400$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation five Pearson Chi-Squared statistic is ($X^2=37.883$, $df=7$, $N=400$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation six Pearson Chi- Squared statistic is ($X^2=30.404$, $df=8$, $N=400$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation seven Pearson Chi-Squared statistic is ($X^2=14.927$, $df=7$, $N=400$), the p -value ($p=.037$) is less than the significance value $p<0.05$; in situation eight Pearson Chi-Squared statistic is ($X^2=103.626$, $df=6$, $N=400$), the p -value ($p=.000$) is less than the

significance value $p < 0.05$ and in the last situation Pearson Chi-Squared statistic is ($X^2=45.719$, $df=5$, $N=400$), the p -value ($p=.001$) is less than the significance value $p < 0.05$

From the findings of the Chi-squared test carried out for each situation in isolation, it can be noted that there is a correlation between the two variables: “group affiliation” and “the choice of request strategies” by respondents from both institutions. In other words, group affiliation is a considerable variable in the choice of politeness strategies by the respondents.

The results obtained from the Chi-squared tests in this case strongly match with Ariel and Giora (1992) and Mills (2003) who claim that the impact of the group affiliation on the choice of politeness strategies can be more influencing than the impact of gender itself, bearing in mind the fact that being a member of a group means having certain rules for speaking and behaving that speakers and hearers should abide by alike. Consequently, these rules can dictate what to say in what way under which circumstances, and therefore can make a difference while choosing certain forms of language.

4.3. Discussion of the Results Obtained from the Themes of the Observation

In the area of the qualitative data collected through the observation, the findings indicate that in cross-sex dyads, speakers use more positive politeness strategies such as irony, rhetorical questions, exaggerated intonation, swearing and showing sympathy like in apology scene 1. From the observation, and in accordance with Mills (2003), it can be deciphered that the weight of the face-threatening act can be more influential in the choice of politeness strategies than social distance, social power, and ranking such as in apology scene one for both institutions, wherein the apologiser used four apology strategies to beg pardon from hearers who share the same social ranking and power.

Remarkably, while making an apology or a request, participants of both institutions use more than one strategy to show regret in apologising or to show gratefulness in making requests. This technique was used by both males and females in apology scenes when the weight of offense is high as it is the case with keeping someone waiting or not answering someone's call without a solid excuse. This also implies the importance of the weight of the face-threatening act as a variable in making apologies or requests in the Moroccan culture.

It can be also noted from the observation of both institutions that participants, excessively, tend to use in-group markers that reflect the collectivism of the Moroccan culture and show intimacy. For instance, in apology scene one of SMBAU, female speaker uses (my beautiful ladies) which implies intimacy and rapprochement, and in request scene 2 the male speaker also used the word

(guys). The use of intimacy markers is not actually bounded by the gender of the speaker. Therefore, it is used by both male and female speakers.

Additionally, it can be understood from the observation that Moroccans show special politeness strategies that make them different from other societies. These strategies are characterized by the use of many religious expressions and lexicons. The use of the religious lexicons in their politeness does not necessarily express a deep religiosity, but it is a habitual practice they are used to. This means that the use of religious lexicons can be seen as a politeness strategy that protects both the speaker and the hearer's face. This conclusion goes in parallel with Bouchara (2015) who asserts that religion may function as a politeness strategy by which people can preserve their self-image since it allows them to avoid threatening the self-image of each other and consequently preserve the face.

4.4. Implications and conclusions

This sub-section tackles two types of implications through two main sub-sections. The first sub-section is devoted to gender implications. The second sub-section deals with politeness implications.

4.4.1. Gender Implications

The first implication of the findings obtained from the data analysis shows that gender is an impactful variable that may affect the choice of politeness strategies by the speakers. These differences are attributed to the social construction of gender in the Moroccan context wherein women have to sound more polite than men. For this reason, there must be a reconsideration of the social norms and dichotomies in the education of children. In this concern, this study can be a starting point towards social and linguistic equality between males and females in the Moroccan context. In the same vein, educationists are expected to look for possible ways to give equal chances to males and females in the teaching/learning process.

The second implication is that gender differences in language are reinforced by the interpretation of the religious texts believing that women have to be more polite than men. This belief impacts the way parents bring up their children and reinforces the patriarchal ideas society holds. Therefore, it is high time for religious people and educationists, in particular, to go beyond impressionistic interpretations of religious texts and call for logical and critical interpretations of

those texts, seeking equality between genders in society. Additionally, gender awareness must be included in daily activities set by policymakers and educationists because it may positively influence and diminish the existing unbalanced social power between males and females.

4.4.2. Politeness Implications

It can be noted from the findings of the current study that pragmatic competence is a major element for successful communication. Henceforth, teaching pragmatic competence to students may equip them with effective tools towards successful communication either in intercultural or intracultural situations. In this realm, decision-makers and educationists would better stress the importance of pragmatic competence and motivate students to learn more about it. It is also worth mentioning that educationists should come up with new motivating ways and approaches to teaching pragmatic competence to involve more students and teachers in this field.

Another implication in this regard is that politeness as a pragmatic competence is a skill that fosters relationships between people. This leads to the idea that not only university teachers but also parents and educationalists, in general, should give more prominence to politeness as a fundamental skill to equip children and students with. In this regard, students' politeness can be improved by teachers through providing them with contextual situations to which they respond in classrooms. The aim is to accomplish a high level of pragmatic

competence that enables them to communicate effectively not only with foreigners but also with native people.

Based on the findings of the study, other implications can be taken into consideration by teachers. One of these implications is that the choice of politeness strategies can be affected by distinctive factors such as age, group affiliation, gender and the weight of the face-threatening act. In this framework, teachers ought to emphasize the importance of these variables while teaching pragmatic competence to their students so as to avoid communication breakdown.

This dissertation makes it possible for people interested in pragmatic competence to know how politeness can be impactful in promoting human communication and softening relationships between people. Knowing that effective communication is the key to a successful social relationship, teaching pragmatic competence in situations is of an urgent need.

Summary

This chapter was devoted to discussing and interpreting the findings of both the discourse completion test and the observation in addition to gender and politeness implications of the study. It included different subsections such as; Moroccan EFL students and pragmatic competence, factors influencing the choice of politeness strategies, the impact of religion on the choice of politeness strategies, requests and apologies in the Moroccan context, and politeness and nonverbal language in the Moroccan context. It also included a detailed discussion of the comparison between findings of both institutions with respect to the influence of gender and the impact of the group affiliation on the choice of politeness strategies.

It can be concluded from the findings of the Chi-squared test, which is the primary statistic tool used for testing the statistical significance of the cross-tabulation table, and which shows whether or not the two variables are independent, that gender and group affiliation are significant variables in the choice of politeness strategies by respondents from both institutions.

However, from the findings of the observation, it can be noticed that the weight of the face-threatening act can be more influential than gender and group affiliation. Additionally, it can be inferred from the findings of the thematic analysis that there are some characteristics that characterize Moroccan politeness such as the use of religious lexicon and the use of in-group markers that show intimacy and collectivism. Later, the conclusion sums up the whole research and

sets the limitations encountered during the study and proposes implications for further research.

General Conclusion

The ever-increasing importance of pragmatic competence to build and maintain social relationships among educationists, practitioners and students is one of the most debated topics in education in general and in higher education in particular. The significance of the topic stems from the fact that developing students' pragmatic competence axiomatically establishes and sustains smooth relationships in each community through preventing communication breakdown and increasing mutual understanding between speakers.

In Morocco, as an Islamic and Arab country, stressing the politeness competence while rearing children, for instance, is not only a cultural necessity but also a religious obligation. In this framework, the current dissertation has been carried out to measure and assess the impact of gender and group affiliation on the choice of politeness strategies. The aim of this research has been to answer the following questions:

- ✓ To what extent are Moroccan EFL university students contextually aware and able to use their pragmatic competence?
- ✓ To what extent does gender impact the choice of linguistic politeness by Moroccan EFL university students?
- ✓ To what extent does group affiliation impact the choice of politeness strategies by Moroccan EFL university students?

These questions have been reformulated and transformed into the following hypotheses:

1. Moroccan EFL university students possess sufficient pragmatic competence that enables them to deal with different linguistic situations.
2. There is a predictive relationship between gender and the choice of politeness strategies by Moroccan EFL university students.
3. There is a predictive link between the choice of politeness strategies by Moroccan EFL university students and group affiliation.

The data collection techniques used were: the discourse completion test and observing naturally occurring data. The quantitative/qualitative approach (mixed approach) was used to collect and analyse the data through inferential and descriptive statistics using (SPSS). As to the findings of the research, they can be summarised into the following:

Concerning research question 1 related to the pragmatic competence of Moroccan EFL students in the sample, it has been found that students use different politeness strategies while responding to the discourse completion test's situations. The strategies vary from one situation to another depending on the specificities of each situation such as power, distance, social ranking, age and gender of the speaker/hearer.

The pragmatic competence of the respondents can be also deciphered from the use of direct and indirect strategies accordingly with the variables of each

situation. Moreover, students used some culture-specific markers of politeness in the Moroccan context such as the religious lexicon which denotes their awareness of the usefulness of those markers.

Concerning research question 2 related to the impact of gender on the choice of politeness strategies, it has been concluded, from both the discourse completion test and the observation, that gender is an impactful factor in the choice of politeness strategies. Differently put, in nine apology strategies and in all request strategies, the P-value was less than 0.5 which is the average value to be significant. This means that gender in all those situations was an influential variable that pushed the speakers to use specific politeness strategies. As to the observation, it has been noted that the speakers and the hearers differ in their use of politeness strategies while making the same speech act depending on the gender of the hearer.

As to research question 3 related to the impact of group affiliation on the choice of politeness strategies is concerned, it has been found out that there is a significant relationship between group affiliation and the choice of politeness strategies, which means that group affiliation is an influential variable in the choice of politeness strategies by students.

As far as the hypotheses are concerned, the results listed in Chapter three, (data analysis and interpretation) for both quantitative and qualitative data findings, reveal that the first hypothesis: “Moroccan EFL university students possess sufficient pragmatic competence that enables them to deal with different

linguistic situations” has been confirmed by the fact that Moroccan EFL university students used appropriate politeness strategies to cope with different linguistic situations given in the discourse completion test.

The second hypothesis: “There is a predictive relationship between gender and the choice of politeness strategies by Moroccan EFL university students”, which has been tested through the DCT and the observation, has been stressed by the findings of the thematic analysis of the observation and the Chi-squared test run for each situation. The last hypothesis: “There is a predictive link between the choice of politeness strategies by Moroccan EFL university students and group affiliation” has also been confirmed by the findings of both the Chi-squared test and thematic analysis.

The ultimate objective of this research has been to test the effect of gender and group affiliation on the use of politeness strategies and to sort out the extent to which Moroccan EFL university students can employ appropriate politeness strategies. For this aim, three hypotheses and three major research questions were developed based on the review of the literature, and the title of the research.

The objective has been attained by firstly collecting data from two different groups of students (400 participants) who meticulously answered the discourse completion test, and secondly through the observation of 8 linguistic situations in both institutions, SMBAU and UMI. This study adopted the mixed-methods research design to collect and analyse data.

The choice of mixed-methods for the current study was directed by many factors. The first factor was to get an inclusive and holistic understanding of the research problem by mixing quantitative and qualitative approaches. The second one is to strengthen the validity and reliability of the research findings by taking advantage of both approaches' points of strength. The third one is to diversify sources of data by including more participants through the discourse completion test and getting natural data through the observation.

Distinctive basic insights may be declared to have been retained from the present study in the field of politeness and pragmatic competence for Moroccan EFL students. The first insight is basically a recognition that gender and group affiliation are basic variables that affect the choice of politeness strategies. Despite being influenced by the three universal variables that Brown and Levinson (1978) issued and which are distance, power and rank of imposition, Moroccan EFL students' politeness is distinguished by the use of religious lexicon and nonverbal cues that support and complement the verbal politeness.

Another basic gain of this study is that it may enlarge the scope of thinking about the manifestations of the politeness phenomenon in the Moroccan context. By investigating the pragmatic competence of Moroccan EFL students, the study has shed light on one of the fundamental components of pragmatic competence which is politeness in relation to gender and group affiliation. Moreover, this study gives a detailed description of the politeness strategies Moroccan EFL students use to perform requests and apologies in different contexts.

Additionally, this study can offer a profound understanding of the politeness strategies used by students and of the intersection between the communicative behaviour and linguistic, cultural, religious and gender background of the interlocutors. This is said, the outcome of this study can provide a better understanding to the ways Moroccan EFL students adapt to their culture and religion while performing a specific speech act.

The results of this research can be a guiding map for further future research in the area of politeness in the Moroccan context. Despite the fact that it can help in fostering social relationships and enable readers to understand communication mechanisms more, this study still has some limitations. First, the study was limited to EFL students, which makes generalizing the results of the study to all Moroccan university students challenging. Second, the study focused on two Moroccan higher education institutions, which again may question the generalizability of the findings of the study to all EFL students in Morocco.

Additionally, this study did not cover some socio-economic backgrounds of the participants which may impact the findings of the research. Fourth, for participants of the study, who were selected using convenience sampling, are representative for EFL students of Moulay Ismail University and Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University, but they may not be representative for EFL students from other institutions.

In this research, politeness competence has been investigated in relation to two different variables: gender and group affiliation. The research has been

carried out employing specific research design, sampling techniques, data collection instruments and scrupulous techniques for data analysis. Nevertheless, future research may approach the same topic from a different perspective. For instance, a questionnaire in Arabic can be useful to include more students from other departments. Other inferential statistics might be used in data analysis. Researchers can additionally deal with the issue of politeness in relation to those two variables in virtual communication of students so as to draw commonalities and differences between face-to-face and online communication. Last but not least, future studies may focus on online politeness competence of students while talking to native speakers of English.

Notwithstanding the foregoing limitations, the findings of this research were built a solid research ground and they may be stimulating for future research and questions in this research area. Further research is to be carried out to measure the pragmatic competence of Moroccan EFL university students and its impact on their daily communicative behaviour. This thesis was a preliminary attempt to analyse and understand the pragmatic competence of EFL students in the Moroccan context and further investigation and sophistication are needed in this regard. The findings of this research are made accessible with an optimistic view that they will be employed by researchers to process theory and develop a better understanding of the pragmatic competence of EFL learners.

Pragmatic competence and the use of politeness strategies are scarcely investigated topics by researchers in the Moroccan context; henceforth

longitudinal studies are highly recommended and needed first to assess their impact on the development of communicative competence for ELF students in the Moroccan university and second to effectively integrate them in the designed courses. This thesis offers help for scholars, teachers and educationist to design action plans to boost EFL students' pragmatic competence and interest in the research area.

The current study opens up horizons for pursuing further research in the area of politeness rules and strategies in the Moroccan context. Considering that research addressed to politeness is of crucial importance for both scholars and layman to understand themselves first, and to understand how social relationships are built and sustained smoothly within each cultural context. Therefore, other researches in this area of study can focus more on Moroccan culture specificities and allow comparisons with other cultures.

Lastly, much investigation is to be carried out in the field of pragmatic competence in general and politeness in particular. This thesis, henceforth, is an optimistic attempt to open new horizons and draw the attention to the importance of pragmatic competence as a major constituent for effective communication.

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Appendices

Appendix A:

The Discourse Completion Test

Dear Participants,

This questionnaire is a part of a study entitled “**Pragmatic Competence and Politeness in Moroccan EFL University Students’ Communication: Gender and Group Affiliation Influence**”. You are gently required to read carefully and meticulously the following situations and complete the dialogues as realistically as possible. We promise to keep your information in high confidence and use it only for academic objectives.

Section 1

1. Gender:	Male	<input type="checkbox"/>	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
Age:	18	<input type="checkbox"/>	21	<input type="checkbox"/>
	19	<input type="checkbox"/>	22	<input type="checkbox"/>
	20	<input type="checkbox"/>	More	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section 2

1. You borrowed a book from a female classmate, and you unvoluntarily lost the book, suddenly your classmate asks for her book back. What would you tell her or what would you do?

.....
.....

2. You are in a desperate need of a lesson you didn't attend at the faculty. Only a limited number of your friends attended that class and took some notes. How would you ask your friends to explain the missed lesson to you?

.....
.....

3. You are out of cash and you need to make an urgent call to your home, only a friend that you barely know has credit on his/her mobile phone. What would you say to him/her?

.....
.....

4. You missed a meeting with your friends, which was scheduled for preparing for exams because of a relative's accident. What would you say to them as an apology?

.....
.....

5. One of your teachers scheduled an exam for your class; the timing of the exam doesn't fit your class because you already have another exam the same day. What would you tell him/her to make him/her reschedule the exam for you?

.....
.....

6. You were called for a job interview that you were dreaming a lot of, at the day of the interview you forgot to bring your identity card, which was very necessary for identifying candidates. What would you say to the jury as an apology?

.....
.....

7. You are very late for an important class, and the teacher is very punctual and strict. What would you tell him/her as an apology?

.....
.....

8. You were asked to prepare a project and hand it in due time to your teacher. However, you didn't finish working on that project because of some unexpected emergencies. What would you say to him/her as an apology?

.....
.....

9. A foreign friend is visiting you at school, and you are showing him/her around the university. You want someone to take you a picture. You see a man dressed in a suit carrying a briefcase and you want to ask him to take you the picture. What would you say to him?

.....
.....

10. It is raining heavily and you forgot to take your umbrella and you want to borrow one from a female classmate. What would you say to her?

.....
.....

11. You failed to hand back the homework of a friend for a second time. What would you say to him/her

.....
.....

12. You need a glass of water and you want to ask your little brother/sister to bring you one. What would you say to him/her

.....
.....

13. You are having dinner with your friend's family. The food is delicious, and you want to ask your friend's mother/father for more. What would you say to him/her?

.....
.....

14. You would like to go home with some friends who are getting a ride home from the university. What would you say to them?

.....
.....

15. You kept a classmate who is phoning you on hold for a long time. The classmate is not a close friend. What would you say to him/her?

.....
.....

16. You phone or you text a teacher again to ask for another question knowing that the teacher could be busy. What would you say to him/her?

.....
.....

17. You returned home three hours late again which irritated your parents and made them mad at you. What would you say to them?

.....
.....

18. You are not satisfied with the score you get in your exam and you want to ask your teacher to re-correct your paper. What would you say to him/her?

.....
.....

19. You accused a classmate of taking your notebook, after a short time, you found it somewhere at home. What would you say to him/her?

.....
.....

Thank you

Appendix B:

Observational Fieldnote

Date:
Location:
Timing:
Sample:

Observation

Comments



Appendix C:

Table 1: Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the first situation

		The First Situation													Total	
		compensation	promise not to repeat offense	showing lack of intent to do harm	self-Castigation	gratitude	showing responsibility	asking the offended not to be angry	checking on consequences	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	one expression of apology plus Explanation		
Gender	Male	Count	45	1	3	1	3	1	2	1	1	16	1	20	10	105
		% within Gender	42.9%	1.0%	2.9%	1.0%	2.9%	1.0%	1.9%	1.0%	1.0%	15.2%	1.0%	19.0%	9.5%	100.0%
		% within The First Situation	43.3%	33.3%	75.0%	33.3%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	20.0%	7.1%	94.1%	50.0%	90.9%	50.0%	52.5%
		% of Total	22.5%	0.5%	1.5%	0.5%	1.5%	0.5%	1.0%	0.5%	0.5%	8.0%	0.5%	10.0%	5.0%	52.5%
Gender	Female	Count	59	2	1	2	0	0	4	13	1	1	2	10	95	
		% within Gender	62.1%	2.1%	1.1%	2.1%	0.0%	0.0%	4.2%	13.7%	1.1%	1.1%	2.1%	10.5%	100.0%	
		% within The First Situation	56.7%	66.7%	25.0%	66.7%	0.0%	0.0%	80.0%	92.9%	5.9%	50.0%	9.1%	50.0%	47.5%	
		% of Total	29.5%	1.0%	0.5%	1.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.0%	6.5%	0.5%	0.5%	1.0%	5.0%	47.5%	
Total		Count	104	3	4	3	3	1	2	5	14	17	2	22	20	200
		% within Gender	52.0%	1.5%	2.0%	1.5%	1.5%	0.5%	1.0%	2.5%	7.0%	8.5%	1.0%	11.0%	10.0%	100.0%
		% within The First Situation	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	52.0%	1.5%	2.0%	1.5%	1.5%	0.5%	1.0%	2.5%	7.0%	8.5%	1.0%	11.0%	10.0%	100.0%

Table 2: Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the second situation

		The Second Situation											Total	
		compensation	promise not to repeat offense	showing lack of intent to do harm	asking the offended not to be angry	blaming others	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	one expression of apology plus Explanation		
Gender	Male	Count	5	1	1	1	3	16	14	3	36	2	23	105
		% within Gender	4.8%	1.0%	1.0%	1.0%	2.9%	15.2%	13.3%	2.9%	34.3%	1.9%	21.9%	100.0%
		% within The Second Situation	100.0%	20.0%	11.1%	100.0%	100.0%	66.7%	53.8%	37.5%	55.4%	66.7%	45.1%	52.5%
		% of Total	2.5%	0.5%	0.5%	0.5%	1.5%	8.0%	7.0%	1.5%	18.0%	1.0%	11.5%	52.5%
Gender	Female	Count	0	4	8	0	0	8	12	5	29	1	28	95
		% within Gender	0.0%	4.2%	8.4%	0.0%	0.0%	8.4%	12.6%	5.3%	30.5%	1.1%	29.5%	100.0%
		% within The Second Situation	0.0%	80.0%	88.9%	0.0%	0.0%	33.3%	46.2%	62.5%	44.6%	33.3%	54.9%	47.5%
		% of Total	0.0%	2.0%	4.0%	0.0%	0.0%	4.0%	6.0%	2.5%	14.5%	0.5%	14.0%	47.5%
Total		Count	5	5	9	1	3	24	26	8	65	3	51	200
		% within Gender	2.5%	2.5%	4.5%	0.5%	1.5%	12.0%	13.0%	4.0%	32.5%	1.5%	25.5%	100.0%
		% within The Second Situation	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	2.5%	2.5%	4.5%	0.5%	1.5%	12.0%	13.0%	4.0%	32.5%	1.5%	25.5%	100.0%

Table 3: Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the third situation

		The Third Situation													Total	
		compensation	promise not to repeat offense	self-castigation	gratitude	showing responsibility	blaming others	checking on consequences	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	one expression of apology plus Explanation		
Gender	Male	Count	8	0	19	3	1	2	0	24	17	8	13	0	10	105
		% within Gender	7,6%	0,0%	16,1%	2,9%	1,0%	1,9%	0,0%	22,9%	16,2%	7,6%	12,4%	0,0%	9,5%	100,0%
		% within The Third Situation	88,9%	0,0%	90,5%	30,0%	50,0%	100,0%	0,0%	70,6%	73,9%	53,3%	38,2%	0,0%	34,5%	52,5%
		% of Total	4,0%	0,0%	9,5%	1,5%	0,5%	1,0%	0,0%	12,0%	8,5%	4,0%	6,5%	0,0%	5,0%	52,5%
Gender	Female	Count	1	1	2	7	1	0	13	10	6	7	21	7	19	95
		% within Gender	1,1%	1,1%	2,1%	7,4%	1,1%	0,0%	13,7%	10,5%	6,3%	7,4%	22,1%	7,4%	20,0%	100,0%
		% within The Third Situation	11,1%	100,0%	9,5%	70,0%	50,0%	0,0%	100,0%	29,4%	26,1%	46,7%	61,8%	100,0%	65,5%	47,5%
		% of Total	0,5%	0,5%	1,0%	3,5%	0,5%	0,0%	6,5%	5,0%	3,0%	3,5%	10,5%	3,5%	9,5%	47,5%
Total		Count	9	1	21	10	2	2	13	34	23	15	34	7	29	200
		% within Gender	4,5%	0,5%	10,5%	5,0%	1,0%	1,0%	6,5%	17,0%	11,5%	7,5%	17,0%	3,5%	14,5%	100,0%
		% within The Third Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	4,5%	0,5%	10,5%	5,0%	1,0%	1,0%	6,5%	17,0%	11,5%	7,5%	17,0%	3,5%	14,5%	100,0%

Table 4: Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the fourth situation

		The Fourth Situation											Total	
		promise not to repeat offense	self-castigation	gratitude	showing responsibility	blaming others	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	one expression of apology plus Explanation		
Gender	Male	Count	6	4	1	4	14	15	13	9	18	2	19	105
		% within Gender	5,7%	3,8%	1,0%	3,8%	13,3%	14,3%	12,4%	8,6%	17,1%	1,9%	18,1%	100,0%
		% within The Fourth Situation	20,7%	80,0%	50,0%	57,1%	100,0%	83,3%	44,8%	42,9%	41,9%	66,7%	65,5%	52,5%
		% of Total	3,0%	2,0%	0,5%	2,0%	7,0%	7,5%	6,5%	4,5%	9,0%	1,0%	9,5%	52,5%
Gender	Female	Count	23	1	1	3	0	3	16	12	25	1	10	95
		% within Gender	24,2%	1,1%	1,1%	3,2%	0,0%	3,2%	16,8%	12,6%	26,3%	1,1%	10,5%	100,0%
		% within The Fourth Situation	79,3%	20,0%	50,0%	42,9%	0,0%	16,7%	55,2%	57,1%	58,1%	33,3%	34,5%	47,5%
		% of Total	11,5%	0,5%	0,5%	1,5%	0,0%	1,5%	8,0%	6,0%	12,5%	0,5%	5,0%	47,5%
Total		Count	29	5	2	7	14	18	29	21	43	3	29	200
		% within Gender	14,5%	2,5%	1,0%	3,5%	7,0%	9,0%	14,5%	10,5%	21,5%	1,5%	14,5%	100,0%
		% within The Fourth Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	14,5%	2,5%	1,0%	3,5%	7,0%	9,0%	14,5%	10,5%	21,5%	1,5%	14,5%	100,0%

Table 5: Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the fifth situation

		The Fifth Situation											Total	
		promise not to repeat offense	showing lack of intent to do harm	self-castigation	gratitude	showing responsibility	checking on consequences	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	one expression of apology plus Explanation		
Gender	Male	Count	1	0	1	10	2	0	18	18	24	10	21	105
		% within Gender	1,0%	0,0%	1,0%	9,5%	1,9%	0,0%	17,1%	17,1%	22,9%	9,5%	20,0%	100,0%
		% within The Fifth Situation	50,0%	0,0%	33,3%	90,9%	66,7%	0,0%	75,0%	60,0%	46,2%	52,6%	38,9%	52,5%
		% of Total	0,5%	0,0%	0,5%	5,0%	1,0%	0,0%	9,0%	9,0%	12,0%	5,0%	10,5%	52,5%
Gender	Female	Count	1	1	2	1	1	1	6	12	28	9	33	95
		% within Gender	1,1%	1,1%	2,1%	1,1%	1,1%	1,1%	6,3%	12,6%	29,5%	9,5%	34,7%	100,0%
		% within The Fifth Situation	50,0%	100,0%	66,7%	9,1%	33,3%	100,0%	25,0%	40,0%	53,8%	47,4%	61,1%	47,5%
		% of Total	0,5%	0,5%	1,0%	0,5%	0,5%	0,5%	3,0%	6,0%	14,0%	4,5%	16,5%	47,5%
Total		Count	2	1	3	11	3	1	24	30	52	19	54	200
		% within Gender	1,0%	0,6%	1,6%	6,6%	1,6%	0,6%	12,0%	16,0%	26,0%	8,6%	27,0%	100,0%
		% within The Fifth Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	1,0%	0,5%	1,5%	5,5%	1,5%	0,5%	12,0%	15,0%	26,0%	9,5%	27,0%	100,0%

Table 6: Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the sixth situation

		The Sixth Situation													Total		
		compensation	promise not to repeat offense	showing lack of intent to do harm	self-castigation	gratitude	showing responsibility	asking the offended not to be angry	denial	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	two expressions of apology plus one intensifier		one expression of apology plus Explanation	
Gender	Male	Count	0	16	2	3	2	1	1	1	2	28	20	26	2	1	105
		% within Gender	0,0%	15,2%	1,9%	2,9%	1,9%	1,0%	1,0%	1,0%	1,9%	26,7%	19,0%	24,8%	1,9%	1,0%	100,0%
		% within The Sixth Situation	0,0%	94,1%	28,6%	30,0%	50,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	58,3%	45,5%	47,3%	100,0%	14,3%	52,5%
		% of Total	0,0%	8,0%	1,0%	1,5%	1,0%	0,5%	0,5%	0,5%	1,0%	14,0%	10,0%	13,0%	1,0%	0,5%	52,5%
Gender	Female	Count	1	1	5	7	2	0	0	0	0	20	24	29	0	6	95
		% within Gender	1,1%	1,1%	5,3%	7,4%	2,1%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	21,1%	25,3%	30,5%	0,0%	6,3%	100,0%
		% within The Sixth Situation	100,0%	5,9%	71,4%	70,0%	50,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	41,7%	54,5%	52,7%	0,0%	86,7%	47,5%
		% of Total	0,5%	0,5%	2,5%	3,5%	1,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	10,0%	12,0%	14,5%	0,0%	3,0%	47,5%
Total		Count	1	17	7	10	4	1	1	1	2	48	44	55	2	7	200
		% within Gender	0,5%	8,5%	3,5%	5,0%	2,0%	0,5%	0,5%	0,5%	1,0%	24,0%	22,0%	27,5%	1,0%	3,5%	100,0%
		% within The Sixth Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	0,5%	8,5%	3,5%	5,0%	2,0%	0,5%	0,5%	0,5%	1,0%	24,0%	22,0%	27,5%	1,0%	3,5%	100,0%

Table 7: Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the seventh situation

		The Seventh Situation									Total	
		showing lack of intent to do harm	gratitude	showing responsibility	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	one expression of apology plus Explanation		
Gender	Male	Count	4	1	1	11	30	19	19	4	16	105
		% within Gender	3,8%	1,0%	1,0%	10,5%	28,6%	18,1%	18,1%	3,8%	15,2%	100,0%
		% within The Seventh Situation	66,7%	50,0%	100,0%	84,6%	58,8%	48,7%	45,2%	100,0%	38,1%	52,5%
		% of Total	2,0%	0,5%	0,5%	5,5%	15,0%	9,5%	9,5%	2,0%	8,0%	52,5%
Gender	Female	Count	2	1	0	2	21	20	23	0	26	95
		% within Gender	2,1%	1,1%	0,0%	2,1%	22,1%	21,1%	24,2%	0,0%	27,4%	100,0%
		% within The Seventh Situation	33,3%	50,0%	0,0%	15,4%	41,2%	51,3%	54,8%	0,0%	61,9%	47,5%
		% of Total	1,0%	0,5%	0,0%	1,0%	10,5%	10,0%	11,5%	0,0%	13,0%	47,5%
Total		Count	6	2	1	13	51	39	42	4	42	200
		% within Gender	3,0%	1,0%	0,5%	6,5%	25,5%	19,5%	21,0%	2,0%	21,0%	100,0%
		% within The Seventh Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	3,0%	1,0%	0,5%	6,5%	25,5%	19,5%	21,0%	2,0%	21,0%	100,0%

Table 8: Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the eighth situation

		The Eighth Situation										Total	
		promise not to repeat offense	showing lack of intent to do harm	self-castigation	gratitude	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	one expression of apology plus Explanation		
Gender	Male	Count	11	1	22	0	2	36	13	17	0	3	105
		% within Gender	10,5%	1,0%	21,0%	0,0%	1,9%	34,3%	12,4%	16,2%	0,0%	2,9%	100,0%
		% within The Eighth Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	0,0%	100,0%	51,4%	44,8%	42,5%	0,0%	21,4%	52,5%
		% of Total	5,5%	0,5%	11,0%	0,0%	1,0%	18,0%	6,5%	8,5%	0,0%	1,5%	52,5%
Gender	Female	Count	0	0	0	6	0	34	16	23	5	11	95
		% within Gender	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	6,3%	0,0%	35,8%	16,8%	24,2%	5,3%	11,6%	100,0%
		% within The Eighth Situation	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	100,0%	0,0%	48,6%	55,2%	57,5%	100,0%	78,6%	47,5%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	3,0%	0,0%	17,0%	8,0%	11,5%	2,5%	5,5%	47,5%
Total		Count	11	1	22	6	2	70	29	40	5	14	200
		% within Gender	5,5%	0,5%	11,0%	3,0%	1,0%	35,0%	14,5%	20,0%	2,5%	7,0%	100,0%
		% within The Eighth Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	5,5%	0,5%	11,0%	3,0%	1,0%	35,0%	14,5%	20,0%	2,5%	7,0%	100,0%

Table 9: Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the ninth situation

		The Ninth Situation										Total		
		promise not to repeat offense	showing lack of intent to do harm	self-castigation	showing responsibility	denial	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	one expression of apology plus Explanation			
Gender	Male	Count	23	2	2	1	0	27	12	13	10	15	105	
		% within Gender	21,9%	1,9%	1,9%	1,0%	0,0%	25,7%	11,4%	12,4%	9,5%	14,3%	100,0%	
		% within The Ninth Situation	46,0%	66,7%	100,0%	100,0%	0,0%	55,1%	54,5%	44,8%	90,9%	46,9%	52,5%	
		% of Total	11,5%	1,0%	1,0%	0,5%	0,0%	13,5%	6,0%	6,5%	5,0%	7,5%	52,5%	
		Female	Count	27	1	0	0	1	22	10	16	1	17	95
		% within Gender	28,4%	1,1%	0,0%	0,0%	1,1%	23,2%	10,5%	16,8%	1,1%	17,9%	100,0%	
Total		% within The Ninth Situation	54,0%	33,3%	0,0%	0,0%	100,0%	44,9%	45,5%	55,2%	9,1%	53,1%	47,5%	
		% of Total	13,5%	0,5%	0,0%	0,0%	0,5%	11,0%	5,0%	8,0%	0,5%	8,5%	47,5%	
		Count	50	3	2	1	1	49	22	29	11	32	200	
		% within Gender	25,0%	1,5%	1,0%	0,5%	0,5%	24,5%	11,0%	14,5%	5,5%	16,0%	100,0%	
		% within The Ninth Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
		% of Total	25,0%	1,5%	1,0%	0,5%	0,5%	24,5%	11,0%	14,5%	5,5%	16,0%	100,0%	

Table 10: Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by MIU respondents in the tenth situation

		The Tenth Situation											Total		
		compensation	showing lack of intent to do harm	self-castigation	gratitude	showing responsibility	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	one expression of apology plus Explanation			
Gender	Male	Count	0	5	5	2	3	8	21	20	17	16	8	105	
		% within Gender	0,0%	4,8%	4,8%	1,9%	2,9%	7,6%	20,0%	19,0%	16,2%	15,2%	7,6%	100,0%	
		% within The Tenth Situation	0,0%	71,4%	71,4%	66,7%	75,0%	100,0%	48,8%	66,7%	37,0%	47,1%	47,1%	52,5%	
		% of Total	0,0%	2,5%	2,5%	1,0%	1,5%	4,0%	10,5%	10,0%	8,5%	8,0%	4,0%	52,5%	
		Female	Count	1	2	2	1	1	0	22	10	29	18	9	95
		% within Gender	1,1%	2,1%	2,1%	1,1%	1,1%	0,0%	23,2%	10,5%	30,5%	18,9%	9,5%	100,0%	
Total		% within The Tenth Situation	100,0%	28,6%	28,6%	33,3%	25,0%	0,0%	51,2%	33,3%	63,0%	52,9%	52,9%	47,5%	
		% of Total	0,5%	1,0%	1,0%	0,5%	0,5%	0,0%	11,0%	5,0%	14,5%	9,0%	4,5%	47,5%	
		Count	1	7	7	3	4	8	43	30	46	34	17	200	
		% within Gender	0,5%	3,5%	3,5%	1,5%	2,0%	4,0%	21,5%	15,0%	23,0%	17,0%	8,5%	100,0%	
		% within The Tenth Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
		% of Total	0,5%	3,5%	3,5%	1,5%	2,0%	4,0%	21,5%	15,0%	23,0%	17,0%	8,5%	100,0%	

Table 11: Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the first situation

		The First Situation									Total	
		compensation	showing lack of intent to do harm	Explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	one expression of apology plus Explanation			
Gender	Male	Count	24	1	1	12	12	47	0	12	109	
		% within Gender	22,0%	0,9%	0,9%	11,0%	11,0%	43,1%	0,0%	11,0%	100,0%	
		% within The First Situation	40,0%	100,0%	11,1%	60,0%	100,0%	67,1%	0,0%	52,2%	54,5%	
		% of Total	12,0%	0,5%	0,5%	6,0%	6,0%	23,5%	0,0%	6,0%	54,5%	
		Female	Count	36	0	8	8	0	23	5	11	91
		% within Gender	39,6%	0,0%	8,8%	8,8%	0,0%	25,3%	5,5%	12,1%	100,0%	
Total		% within The First Situation	60,0%	0,0%	88,9%	40,0%	0,0%	32,9%	100,0%	47,8%	45,5%	
		% of Total	18,0%	0,0%	4,0%	4,0%	0,0%	11,5%	2,5%	5,5%	45,5%	
		Count	60	1	9	20	12	70	5	23	200	
		% within Gender	30,0%	0,5%	4,5%	10,0%	6,0%	35,0%	2,5%	11,5%	100,0%	
		% within The First Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
		% of Total	30,0%	0,5%	4,5%	10,0%	6,0%	35,0%	2,5%	11,5%	100,0%	

Table12: Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the second situation

		The Second Situation						Total
		Compensation	Explanation	one expression of apology	NA	One expression of apology with one intensifier	One expression of apology plus Explanation	
Gender	Count	1	17	1	1	29	60	109
	Male							
	% within Gender	0,9%	15,6%	0,9%	0,9%	26,6%	55,0%	100,0%
	% within The Second Situation	9,1%	100,0%	100,0%	10,0%	78,4%	48,4%	54,5%
	% of Total	0,5%	8,5%	0,5%	0,5%	14,5%	30,0%	54,5%
	Count	10	0	0	9	8	64	91
	Female							
	% within Gender	11,0%	0,0%	0,0%	9,9%	8,8%	70,3%	100,0%
	% within The Second Situation	90,9%	0,0%	0,0%	90,0%	21,6%	51,6%	45,5%
% of Total	5,0%	0,0%	0,0%	4,5%	4,0%	32,0%	45,5%	
Count	11	17	1	10	37	124	200	
Total								
% within Gender	5,5%	8,5%	0,5%	5,0%	18,5%	62,0%	100,0%	
% within The Second Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
% of Total	5,5%	8,5%	0,5%	5,0%	18,5%	62,0%	100,0%	

Table13: Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the third situation

		The Third Situation								Total	
		promise not to repeat offense	self-castigation	gratitude	showing responsibility	explanation	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	two expressions of apology plus one intensifier		one expression of apology plus Explanation
Gender	Count	14	19	2	0	25	4	0	0	45	109
	Male										
	% within Gender	12,8%	17,4%	1,8%	0,0%	22,9%	3,7%	0,0%	0,0%	41,3%	100,0%
	% within The Third Situation	100,0%	100,0%	50,0%	0,0%	100,0%	40,0%	0,0%	0,0%	42,5%	54,5%
	% of Total	7,0%	9,5%	1,0%	0,0%	12,5%	2,0%	0,0%	0,0%	22,5%	54,5%
	Count	0	0	2	1	0	6	9	12	61	91
	Female										
	% within Gender	0,0%	0,0%	2,2%	1,1%	0,0%	6,6%	9,9%	13,2%	67,0%	100,0%
	% within The Third Situation	0,0%	0,0%	50,0%	100,0%	0,0%	60,0%	100,0%	100,0%	57,5%	45,5%
% of Total	0,0%	0,0%	1,0%	0,5%	0,0%	3,0%	4,5%	6,0%	30,5%	45,5%	
Count	14	19	4	1	25	10	9	12	106	200	
Total											
% within Gender	7,0%	9,5%	2,0%	0,5%	12,5%	5,0%	4,5%	6,0%	53,0%	100,0%	
% within The Third Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
% of Total	7,0%	9,5%	2,0%	0,5%	12,5%	5,0%	4,5%	6,0%	53,0%	100,0%	

Table14: Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the fourth situation

		The Fourth Situation							Total	
		promise not to repeat offense	self-castigation	blaming others	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	two expressions of apology plus one intensifier		one expression of apology plus explanation
Gender	Count	5	12	15	1	0	38	0	38	109
	Male									
	% within Gender	4,6%	11,0%	13,8%	0,9%	0,0%	34,9%	0,0%	34,9%	100,0%
	% within The Fourth Situation	31,2%	100,0%	100,0%	16,7%	0,0%	74,5%	0,0%	44,7%	54,5%
	% of Total	2,5%	6,0%	7,5%	0,5%	0,0%	19,0%	0,0%	19,0%	54,5%
	Count	11	0	0	5	6	13	9	47	91
	Female									
	% within Gender	12,1%	0,0%	0,0%	5,5%	6,6%	14,3%	9,9%	51,6%	100,0%
	% within The Fourth Situation	68,8%	0,0%	0,0%	83,3%	100,0%	25,5%	100,0%	55,3%	45,5%
% of Total	5,5%	0,0%	0,0%	2,5%	3,0%	6,5%	4,5%	23,5%	45,5%	
Count	16	12	15	6	6	51	9	85	200	
Total										
% within Gender	8,0%	6,0%	7,5%	3,0%	3,0%	25,5%	4,5%	42,5%	100,0%	
% within The Fourth Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
% of Total	8,0%	6,0%	7,5%	3,0%	3,0%	25,5%	4,5%	42,5%	100,0%	

Table15: Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the fifth situation

		The Fifth Situation								Total	
		compensation	promise not to repeat offense	self-castigation	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	one expression of apology plus Explanation		
Gender	Male	Count	22	0	0	8	1	0	52	26	109
		% within Gender	20,2%	0,0%	0,0%	7,3%	0,9%	0,0%	47,7%	23,9%	100,0%
		% within The Fifth Situation	100,0%	0,0%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%	0,0%	74,3%	37,7%	54,5%
	Female	% of Total	11,0%	0,0%	0,0%	4,0%	0,5%	0,0%	26,0%	13,0%	54,5%
		Count	0	12	5	0	0	13	18	43	91
		% within Gender	0,0%	13,2%	5,5%	0,0%	0,0%	14,3%	19,8%	47,3%	100,0%
	Total	% within The Fifth Situation	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%	0,0%	0,0%	100,0%	25,7%	62,3%	45,5%
		% of Total	0,0%	6,0%	2,5%	0,0%	0,0%	6,5%	9,0%	21,5%	45,5%
		Count	22	12	5	8	1	13	70	69	200
Total	% within Gender	11,0%	6,0%	2,5%	4,0%	0,5%	6,5%	35,0%	34,5%	100,0%	
	% within The Fifth Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
	% of Total	11,0%	6,0%	2,5%	4,0%	0,5%	6,5%	35,0%	34,5%	100,0%	

Table16: Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the sixth situation

		The Sixth Situation								Total	
		promise not to repeat offense	showing lack of intent to do harm	self-castigation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	one expression of apology plus Explanation		
Gender	Male	Count	29	19	4	2	0	36	2	17	109
		% within Gender	26,6%	17,4%	3,7%	1,8%	0,0%	33,0%	1,8%	15,6%	100,0%
		% within The Sixth Situation	87,9%	90,5%	100,0%	25,0%	0,0%	65,5%	9,5%	34,0%	54,5%
	Female	% of Total	14,5%	9,5%	2,0%	1,0%	0,0%	18,0%	1,0%	8,5%	54,5%
		Count	4	2	0	6	8	19	19	33	91
		% within Gender	4,4%	2,2%	0,0%	6,6%	8,8%	20,9%	20,9%	36,3%	100,0%
	Total	% within The Sixth Situation	12,1%	9,5%	0,0%	75,0%	100,0%	34,5%	90,5%	66,0%	45,5%
		% of Total	2,0%	1,0%	0,0%	3,0%	4,0%	9,5%	9,5%	16,5%	45,5%
		Count	33	21	4	8	8	55	21	50	200
Total	% within Gender	16,5%	10,5%	2,0%	4,0%	4,0%	27,5%	10,5%	25,0%	100,0%	
	% within The Sixth Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
	% of Total	16,5%	10,5%	2,0%	4,0%	4,0%	27,5%	10,5%	25,0%	100,0%	

Table17: Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the seventh situation

		The Seventh Situation				Total	
		blaming others	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	one expression of apology plus Explanation		
Gender	Male	Count	0	10	45	54	109
		% within Gender	0,0%	9,2%	41,3%	49,5%	100,0%
		% within The Seventh Situation	0,0%	40,0%	72,6%	52,4%	54,5%
	Female	% of Total	0,0%	5,0%	22,5%	27,0%	54,5%
		Count	10	15	17	49	91
		% within Gender	11,0%	16,5%	18,7%	53,8%	100,0%
	Total	% within The Seventh Situation	100,0%	60,0%	27,4%	47,6%	45,5%
		% of Total	5,0%	7,5%	8,5%	24,5%	45,5%
		Count	10	25	62	103	200
Total	% within Gender	5,0%	12,5%	31,0%	51,5%	100,0%	
	% within The Seventh Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
	% of Total	5,0%	12,5%	31,0%	51,5%	100,0%	

Table 18: Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the eighth situation

		The Eighth Situation				Total		
		NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	one expression of apology plus Explanation			
Gender	Male	Count	8	57	9	35	109	
		% within Gender	7,3%	52,3%	8,3%	32,1%	100,0%	
		% within The Eighth Situation	42,1%	64,8%	56,2%	45,5%	54,5%	
		% of Total	4,0%	28,5%	4,5%	17,5%	54,5%	
		Female	Count	11	31	7	42	91
		% within Gender	12,1%	34,1%	7,7%	46,2%	100,0%	
Total		% within The Eighth Situation	57,9%	35,2%	43,8%	54,5%	45,5%	
		% of Total	5,5%	15,5%	3,5%	21,0%	45,5%	
		Count	19	88	16	77	200	
		% within Gender	9,5%	44,0%	8,0%	38,5%	100,0%	
		% within The Eighth Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
		% of Total	9,5%	44,0%	8,0%	38,5%	100,0%	

Table 19: Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the ninth situation

		The Ninth Situation							Total		
		promise not to repeat offense	denial	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	one expression of apology plus Explanation			
Gender	Male	Count	20	0	63	0	6	0	20	109	
		% within Gender	18,3%	0,0%	57,8%	0,0%	5,5%	0,0%	18,3%	100,0%	
		% within The Ninth Situation	40,0%	0,0%	100,0%	0,0%	37,5%	0,0%	36,4%	54,5%	
		% of Total	10,0%	0,0%	31,5%	0,0%	3,0%	0,0%	10,0%	54,5%	
		Female	Count	30	1	0	5	10	10	35	91
		% within Gender	33,0%	1,1%	0,0%	5,5%	11,0%	11,0%	38,5%	100,0%	
Total		% within The Ninth Situation	60,0%	100,0%	0,0%	100,0%	62,5%	100,0%	63,6%	45,5%	
		% of Total	15,0%	0,5%	0,0%	2,5%	5,0%	5,0%	17,5%	45,5%	
		Count	50	1	63	5	16	10	55	200	
		% within Gender	25,0%	0,5%	31,5%	2,5%	8,0%	5,0%	27,5%	100,0%	
		% within The Ninth Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
		% of Total	25,0%	0,5%	31,5%	2,5%	8,0%	5,0%	27,5%	100,0%	

Table 20: Gender and the choice of apology strategies used by SMBAU respondents in the tenth situation

		The Tenth Situation								Total		
		showing lack of intent to do harm	self-castigation	asking the offended not to be angry	explanation	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	one expression of apology plus Explanation			
Gender	Male	Count	0	41	17	6	6	23	1	15	109	
		% within Gender	0,0%	37,6%	15,6%	5,5%	5,5%	21,1%	0,9%	13,8%	100,0%	
		% within The Tenth Situation	0,0%	100,0%	40,5%	100,0%	33,3%	44,2%	100,0%	38,5%	54,5%	
		% of Total	0,0%	20,5%	8,5%	3,0%	3,0%	11,5%	0,5%	7,5%	54,5%	
		Female	Count	1	0	25	0	12	29	0	24	91
		% within Gender	1,1%	0,0%	27,5%	0,0%	13,2%	31,9%	0,0%	26,4%	100,0%	
Total		% within The Tenth Situation	100,0%	0,0%	59,5%	0,0%	66,7%	55,8%	0,0%	61,5%	45,5%	
		% of Total	0,5%	0,0%	12,5%	0,0%	6,0%	14,5%	0,0%	12,0%	45,5%	
		Count	1	41	42	6	18	52	1	39	200	
		% within Gender	0,5%	20,5%	21,0%	3,0%	9,0%	26,0%	0,5%	19,5%	100,0%	
		% within The Tenth Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
		% of Total	0,5%	20,5%	21,0%	3,0%	9,0%	26,0%	0,5%	19,5%	100,0%	

Table 21: Group affiliation influence and the choice of apology strategies by respondents from both institutions in the first situation

		The First Situation														Total
		compensation	promise not to repeat offense	showing lack of intent to do harm	self-castigation	gratitude	showing responsibility	asking the offended not to be angry	checking on consequences	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	one expression of apology plus explanation	
Faculty	Count	104	3	4	3	3	1	2	5	14	17	2	22	0	20	200
	% within Faculty	52,0%	1,5%	2,0%	1,5%	1,5%	0,5%	1,0%	2,5%	7,0%	8,5%	1,0%	11,0%	0,0%	10,0%	100,0%
	Meknes % within The First Situation	63,4%	100,0%	80,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	60,9%	45,9%	14,3%	23,9%	0,0%	46,5%	50,0%
	% of Total	26,0%	0,8%	1,0%	0,8%	0,8%	0,2%	0,5%	1,2%	3,5%	4,2%	0,5%	5,5%	0,0%	5,0%	50,0%
	Count	60	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	9	20	12	70	5	23	200
	% within Faculty	30,0%	0,0%	0,5%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	4,5%	10,0%	6,0%	35,0%	2,5%	11,5%	100,0%
Fes	% within The First Situation	36,6%	0,0%	20,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	39,1%	54,1%	85,7%	76,1%	100,0%	53,5%	50,0%
	% of Total	15,0%	0,0%	0,2%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	2,2%	5,0%	3,0%	17,5%	1,2%	5,8%	50,0%
	Count	164	3	5	3	3	1	2	5	23	37	14	92	5	43	400
	% within Faculty	41,0%	0,8%	1,2%	0,8%	0,8%	0,2%	0,5%	1,2%	5,8%	9,2%	3,5%	23,0%	1,2%	10,8%	100,0%
Total	% within The First Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
	% of Total	41,0%	0,8%	1,2%	0,8%	0,8%	0,2%	0,5%	1,2%	5,8%	9,2%	3,5%	23,0%	1,2%	10,8%	100,0%

Table 22: Group affiliation influence and the choice of apology strategies by respondents from both institutions in the second situation

		The Second Situation											Total
		compensation	promise not to repeat offense	showing lack of intent to do harm	asking the offended not to be angry	blaming others	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	one expression of apology plus explanation	
Faculty	Count	5	5	9	1	3	24	26	8	65	3	51	200
	% within Faculty	2,5%	2,5%	4,5%	0,5%	1,5%	12,0%	13,0%	4,0%	32,5%	1,5%	25,5%	100,0%
	Meknes % within The Second Situation	31,2%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	58,5%	96,3%	44,4%	63,7%	100,0%	29,1%	50,0%
	% of Total	1,2%	1,2%	2,2%	0,2%	0,8%	6,0%	6,5%	2,0%	16,2%	0,8%	12,8%	50,0%
	Count	11	0	0	0	0	17	1	10	37	0	124	200
	% within Faculty	5,5%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	8,5%	0,5%	5,0%	18,5%	0,0%	62,0%	100,0%
Fes	% within The Second Situation	68,8%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	41,5%	3,7%	55,6%	36,3%	0,0%	70,9%	50,0%
	% of Total	2,8%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	4,2%	0,2%	2,5%	9,2%	0,0%	31,0%	50,0%
	Count	16	5	9	1	3	41	27	18	102	3	175	400
	% within Faculty	4,0%	1,2%	2,2%	0,2%	0,8%	10,2%	6,8%	4,5%	25,5%	0,8%	43,8%	100,0%
Total	% within The Second Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
	% of Total	4,0%	1,2%	2,2%	0,2%	0,8%	10,2%	6,8%	4,5%	25,5%	0,8%	43,8%	100,0%

Table 23: Group affiliation influence and the choice of apology strategies by respondents from both institutions in the third situation

		The Third Situation													Total
		compensation	promise not to repeat offense	self-castigation	gratitude	showing responsibility	blaming others	checking on consequences	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	one expression of apology plus explanation	
Faculty	Count	9	1	21	10	2	2	13	34	23	15	34	7	29	200
	% within Faculty	4,5%	0,5%	10,5%	5,0%	1,0%	1,0%	6,5%	17,0%	11,5%	7,5%	17,0%	3,5%	14,5%	100,0%
	% within The Third Situation	100,0%	6,7%	52,5%	71,4%	66,7%	100,0%	100,0%	57,6%	100,0%	60,0%	79,1%	36,8%	21,5%	50,0%
	% of Total	2,2%	0,2%	5,2%	2,5%	0,5%	0,5%	3,2%	8,5%	5,8%	3,8%	8,5%	1,8%	7,2%	50,0%
	Count	0	14	19	4	1	0	0	25	0	10	9	12	106	200
	% within Faculty	0,0%	7,0%	9,5%	2,0%	0,5%	0,0%	0,0%	12,5%	0,0%	5,0%	4,5%	6,0%	53,0%	100,0%
Fes	% within The Third Situation	0,0%	93,3%	47,5%	28,6%	33,3%	0,0%	0,0%	42,4%	0,0%	40,0%	20,9%	63,2%	78,5%	50,0%
	% of Total	0,0%	3,5%	4,8%	1,0%	0,2%	0,0%	0,0%	6,2%	0,0%	2,5%	2,2%	3,0%	26,5%	50,0%
	Count	9	15	40	14	3	2	13	59	23	25	43	19	135	400
Total	% within Faculty	2,2%	3,8%	10,0%	3,5%	0,8%	0,5%	3,2%	14,8%	5,8%	6,2%	10,8%	4,8%	33,8%	100,0%
	% within The Third Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
	% of Total	2,2%	3,8%	10,0%	3,5%	0,8%	0,5%	3,2%	14,8%	5,8%	6,2%	10,8%	4,8%	33,8%	100,0%

Table 24: Group affiliation influence and the choice of apology strategies by respondents from both institutions in the fourth situation

		The Fourth Situation											Total
		promise not to repeat offense	self-castigation	gratitude	showing responsibility	blaming others	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	one expression of apology plus explanation	
Faculty	Count	29	5	2	7	14	18	29	21	43	3	29	200
	% within Faculty	14,5%	2,5%	1,0%	3,5%	7,0%	9,0%	14,5%	10,5%	21,5%	1,5%	14,5%	100,0%
	% within The Fourth Situation	64,4%	29,4%	100,0%	100,0%	48,3%	100,0%	82,9%	77,8%	45,7%	25,0%	25,4%	50,0%
	% of Total	7,2%	1,2%	0,5%	1,8%	3,5%	4,5%	7,2%	5,2%	10,8%	0,8%	7,2%	50,0%
Fes	Count	16	12	0	0	15	0	6	6	51	9	85	200
	% within Faculty	8,0%	6,0%	0,0%	0,0%	7,5%	0,0%	3,0%	3,0%	25,5%	4,5%	42,5%	100,0%
	% within The Fourth Situation	35,6%	70,6%	0,0%	0,0%	51,7%	0,0%	17,1%	22,2%	54,3%	75,0%	74,6%	50,0%
Total	% of Total	4,0%	3,0%	0,0%	0,0%	3,8%	0,0%	1,5%	1,5%	12,8%	2,2%	21,2%	50,0%
	Count	45	17	2	7	29	18	35	27	94	12	114	400
	% within Faculty	11,2%	4,2%	0,5%	1,8%	7,2%	4,5%	8,8%	6,8%	23,5%	3,0%	28,5%	100,0%
Total	% within The Fourth Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
	% of Total	11,2%	4,2%	0,5%	1,8%	7,2%	4,5%	8,8%	6,8%	23,5%	3,0%	28,5%	100,0%

Table 25: Group affiliation influence and the choice of apology strategies by respondents from both institutions in the fifth situation

		The Fifth Situation												Total		
		compensation	promise not to repeat offense	showing lack of intent to do harm	self-castigation	gratitude	showing responsibility	checking on consequences	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	one expression of apology plus explanation			
Faculty	Meknes	Count	0	2	1	3	11	3	1	24	30	52	19	54	200	
		% within Faculty	0,0%	1,0%	0,5%	1,5%	5,5%	1,5%	0,5%	12,0%	15,0%	26,0%	9,5%	27,0%	100,0%	
		% within The Fifth Situation	0,0%	14,3%	100,0%	37,5%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	75,0%	96,8%	80,0%	21,3%	43,9%	50,0%	
		% of Total	0,0%	0,5%	0,2%	0,8%	2,8%	0,8%	0,2%	6,0%	7,5%	13,0%	4,8%	13,5%	50,0%	
		Fes	Count	22	12	0	5	0	0	0	8	1	13	70	69	200
		% within Faculty	11,0%	6,0%	0,0%	2,5%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	4,0%	0,5%	6,5%	35,0%	34,5%	100,0%
Total		% within The Fifth Situation	100,0%	85,7%	0,0%	62,5%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	25,0%	3,2%	20,0%	78,7%	56,1%	50,0%	
		% of Total	5,5%	3,0%	0,0%	1,2%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	2,0%	0,2%	3,2%	17,5%	17,2%	50,0%	
		Count	22	14	1	8	11	3	1	32	31	65	89	123	400	
		% within Faculty	5,5%	3,5%	0,2%	2,0%	2,8%	0,8%	0,2%	8,0%	7,8%	16,2%	22,2%	30,8%	100,0%	
		% within The Fifth Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
		% of Total	5,5%	3,5%	0,2%	2,0%	2,8%	0,8%	0,2%	8,0%	7,8%	16,2%	22,2%	30,8%	100,0%	

Table 26: Group affiliation influence and the choice of apology strategies by respondents from both institutions in the sixth situation

		The Sixth Situation														Total		
		compensation	promise not to repeat offense	showing lack of intent to do harm	self-castigation	gratitude	showing responsibility	asking the offended not to be angry	denial	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	one expression of apology plus explanation			
Faculty	Meknes	Count	1	17	7	10	4	1	1	1	2	48	44	55	2	7	200	
		% within Faculty	0,5%	8,5%	3,5%	5,0%	2,0%	0,5%	0,5%	0,5%	1,0%	24,0%	22,0%	27,5%	1,0%	3,5%	100,0%	
		% within The Sixth Situation	100,0%	34,0%	25,0%	71,4%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	85,7%	84,6%	50,0%	8,7%	12,3%	50,0%	
		% of Total	0,2%	4,2%	1,8%	2,5%	1,0%	0,2%	0,2%	0,2%	0,5%	12,0%	11,0%	13,8%	0,5%	1,8%	50,0%	
		Fes	Count	0	33	21	4	0	0	0	0	0	8	8	55	21	50	200
		% within Faculty	0,0%	16,5%	10,5%	2,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	4,0%	4,0%	27,5%	10,5%	25,0%	100,0%	
Total		% within The Sixth Situation	0,0%	66,0%	75,0%	28,6%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	14,3%	15,4%	50,0%	91,3%	87,7%	50,0%	
		% of Total	0,0%	8,2%	5,2%	1,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	2,0%	2,0%	13,8%	5,2%	12,5%	50,0%	
		Count	1	50	28	14	4	1	1	1	2	56	52	110	23	57	400	
		% within Faculty	0,2%	12,5%	7,0%	3,5%	1,0%	0,2%	0,2%	0,2%	0,5%	14,0%	13,0%	27,5%	5,8%	14,2%	100,0%	
		% within The Sixth Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
		% of Total	0,2%	12,5%	7,0%	3,5%	1,0%	0,2%	0,2%	0,2%	0,5%	14,0%	13,0%	27,5%	5,8%	14,2%	100,0%	

Table 27: Group affiliation influence and the choice of apology strategies by respondents from both institutions in the seventh situation

		The Seventh Situation										Total
		showing lack of intent to do harm	gratitude	showing responsibility	blaming others	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	one expression of apology plus explanation	
Faculty	Count	6	2	1	0	13	51	39	42	4	42	200
	Meknes											
	% within Faculty	3,0%	1,0%	0,5%	0,0%	6,5%	25,5%	19,5%	21,0%	2,0%	21,0%	100,0%
	% within The Seventh Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%	60,9%	40,4%	100,0%	29,0%	50,0%
	% of Total	1,5%	0,5%	0,2%	0,0%	3,2%	12,8%	9,8%	10,5%	1,0%	10,5%	50,0%
	Fes											
	Count	0	0	0	10	0	0	25	62	0	103	200
	% within Faculty	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	5,0%	0,0%	0,0%	12,5%	31,0%	0,0%	51,5%	100,0%
	% within The Seventh Situation	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	100,0%	0,0%	0,0%	39,1%	59,6%	0,0%	71,0%	50,0%
% of Total	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	2,5%	0,0%	0,0%	6,2%	15,5%	0,0%	25,8%	50,0%	
Total	Count	6	2	1	10	13	51	64	104	4	145	400
	% within Faculty	1,5%	0,5%	0,2%	2,5%	3,2%	12,8%	16,0%	26,0%	1,0%	36,2%	100,0%
	% within The Seventh Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
	% of Total	1,5%	0,5%	0,2%	2,5%	3,2%	12,8%	16,0%	26,0%	1,0%	36,2%	100,0%

Table 28: Group affiliation influence and the choice of apology strategies by respondents from both institutions in the eighth situation

		The Eighth Situation										Total
		promise not to repeat offense	showing lack of intent to do harm	self-castigation	gratitude	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	one expression of apology plus explanation	
Faculty	Count	11	1	22	6	2	70	29	40	5	14	200
	Meknes											
	% within Faculty	5,5%	0,5%	11,0%	3,0%	1,0%	35,0%	14,5%	20,0%	2,5%	7,0%	100,0%
	% within The Eighth Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	60,4%	31,2%	23,8%	15,4%	50,0%
	% of Total	2,8%	0,2%	5,5%	1,5%	0,5%	17,5%	7,2%	10,0%	1,2%	3,5%	50,0%
	Fes											
	Count	0	0	0	0	0	0	19	88	16	77	200
	% within Faculty	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	9,5%	44,0%	8,0%	38,5%	100,0%
	% within The Eighth Situation	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	39,6%	68,8%	76,2%	84,6%	50,0%
% of Total	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	4,8%	22,0%	4,0%	19,2%	50,0%	
Total	Count	11	1	22	6	2	70	48	128	21	91	400
	% within Faculty	2,8%	0,2%	5,5%	1,5%	0,5%	17,5%	12,0%	32,0%	5,2%	22,8%	100,0%
	% within The Eighth Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
	% of Total	2,8%	0,2%	5,5%	1,5%	0,5%	17,5%	12,0%	32,0%	5,2%	22,8%	100,0%

Table 29: Group affiliation influence and the choice of apology strategies by respondents from both institutions in the ninth situation

		The Ninth Situation										Total		
		promise not to repeat offense	showing lack of intent to do harm	self-castigation	showing responsibility	denial	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier	one expression of apology plus explanation			
Faculty	Meknes	Count	50	3	2	1	1	49	22	29	11	32	200	
		% within Faculty	25,0%	1,5%	1,0%	0,5%	0,5%	24,5%	11,0%	14,5%	5,5%	16,0%	100,0%	
		% within The Ninth Situation	50,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	50,0%	43,8%	81,5%	64,4%	52,4%	36,8%	50,0%	
		% of Total	12,5%	0,8%	0,5%	0,2%	0,2%	12,2%	5,5%	7,2%	2,8%	8,0%	50,0%	
		Fes	Count	50	0	0	0	1	63	5	16	10	55	200
		% within Faculty	25,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,5%	31,5%	2,5%	8,0%	5,0%	27,5%	100,0%	
Total		% within The Ninth Situation	50,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	50,0%	56,2%	18,5%	35,6%	47,6%	63,2%	50,0%	
		% of Total	12,5%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,2%	15,8%	1,2%	4,0%	2,5%	13,8%	50,0%	
		Count	100	3	2	1	2	112	27	45	21	87	400	
		% within Faculty	25,0%	0,8%	0,5%	0,2%	0,5%	28,0%	6,8%	11,2%	5,2%	21,8%	100,0%	
		% within The Ninth Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
		% of Total	25,0%	0,8%	0,5%	0,2%	0,5%	28,0%	6,8%	11,2%	5,2%	21,8%	100,0%	

Table 30: Group affiliation influence and the choice of apology strategies by respondents from both institutions in the tenth situation

		The Tenth Situation										Total				
		compensation	showing lack of intent to do harm	self-castigation	gratitude	showing responsibility	asking the offended not to be angry	explanation	one expression of apology	NA	one expression of apology with one intensifier		two expressions of apology plus one intensifier	one expression of apology plus explanation		
Faculty	Meknes	Count	1	7	7	3	4	0	8	43	30	46	34	17	200	
		% within Faculty	0,5%	3,5%	3,5%	1,5%	2,0%	0,0%	4,0%	21,5%	15,0%	23,0%	17,0%	8,5%	100,0%	
		% within The Tenth Situation	100,0%	87,5%	14,6%	100,0%	100,0%	0,0%	57,1%	100,0%	62,5%	46,9%	97,1%	30,4%	50,0%	
		% of Total	0,2%	1,8%	1,8%	0,8%	1,0%	0,0%	2,0%	10,8%	7,5%	11,5%	8,5%	4,2%	50,0%	
		Fes	Count	0	1	41	0	0	42	6	0	18	52	1	39	200
		% within Faculty	0,0%	0,5%	20,5%	0,0%	0,0%	21,0%	3,0%	0,0%	9,0%	26,0%	0,5%	19,5%	100,0%	
Total		% within The Tenth Situation	0,0%	12,5%	85,4%	0,0%	0,0%	100,0%	42,9%	0,0%	37,5%	53,1%	2,9%	69,6%	50,0%	
		% of Total	0,0%	0,2%	10,2%	0,0%	0,0%	10,5%	1,5%	0,0%	4,5%	13,0%	0,2%	9,8%	50,0%	
		Count	1	8	48	3	4	42	14	43	48	98	35	56	400	
		% within Faculty	0,2%	2,0%	12,0%	0,8%	1,0%	10,5%	3,5%	10,8%	12,0%	24,5%	8,8%	14,0%	100,0%	
		% within The Tenth Situation	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
		% of Total	0,2%	2,0%	12,0%	0,8%	1,0%	10,5%	3,5%	10,8%	12,0%	24,5%	8,8%	14,0%	100,0%	

Table 31: Gender and the choice of request strategies used by MIU respondents in the first situation

		situation1								Total
		implicit order	expressing a wish	asking for ability	powerful indicator	soft indicator	rewarding	NA	asking for permission plus explanation	
Gender	Count	10	6	23	26	8	26	0	6	105
	Male	9,5%	5,7%	21,9%	24,8%	7,6%	24,8%	0,0%	5,7%	100,0%
	% within situation1	100,0%	35,3%	37,7%	100,0%	36,4%	66,7%	0,0%	25,0%	52,5%
	% of Total	5,0%	3,0%	11,5%	13,0%	4,0%	13,0%	0,0%	3,0%	52,5%
	Count	0	11	38	0	14	13	1	18	95
	Female	0,0%	11,6%	40,0%	0,0%	14,7%	13,7%	1,1%	18,9%	100,0%
Total	% within situation1	0,0%	64,7%	62,3%	0,0%	63,6%	33,3%	100,0%	75,0%	47,5%
	% of Total	0,0%	5,5%	19,0%	0,0%	7,0%	6,5%	0,5%	9,0%	47,5%
	Count	10	17	61	26	22	39	1	24	200
	% within Gender	5,0%	8,5%	30,5%	13,0%	11,0%	19,5%	0,5%	12,0%	100,0%
	% within situation1	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
	% of Total	5,0%	8,5%	30,5%	13,0%	11,0%	19,5%	0,5%	12,0%	100,0%

Table 32: Gender and the choice of request strategies used by MIU respondents in the second situation

		situation2									Total
		implicit order	expressing a wish	suggestion	asking for ability	powerful indicator	soft indicator	rewarding	NA	asking for permission plus explanation	
Gender	Count	13	7	7	37	7	13	9	3	9	105
	Male	12,4%	6,7%	6,7%	35,2%	6,7%	12,4%	8,6%	2,9%	8,6%	100,0%
	% within situation2	76,5%	23,3%	100,0%	50,7%	50,0%	68,4%	100,0%	100,0%	32,1%	52,5%
	% of Total	6,5%	3,5%	3,5%	18,5%	3,5%	6,5%	4,5%	1,5%	4,5%	52,5%
	Count	4	23	0	36	7	6	0	0	19	95
	Female	4,2%	24,2%	0,0%	37,9%	7,4%	6,3%	0,0%	0,0%	20,0%	100,0%
Total	% within situation2	23,5%	76,7%	0,0%	49,3%	50,0%	31,6%	0,0%	0,0%	67,9%	47,5%
	% of Total	2,0%	11,5%	0,0%	18,0%	3,5%	3,0%	0,0%	0,0%	9,5%	47,5%
	Count	17	30	7	73	14	19	9	3	28	200
	% within Gender	8,5%	15,0%	3,5%	36,5%	7,0%	9,5%	4,5%	1,5%	14,0%	100,0%
	% within situation2	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
	% of Total	8,5%	15,0%	3,5%	36,5%	7,0%	9,5%	4,5%	1,5%	14,0%	100,0%

Table 33: Gender and the choice of request strategies used by MIU respondents in the third situation

		situation3						Total		
		expressing a wish	suggestion	asking for ability	powerful indicator	soft indicator	asking for permission plus explanation			
Gender	Male	Count	4	28	40	21	2	10	105	
		% within Gender	3,8%	26,7%	38,1%	20,0%	1,9%	9,5%	100,0%	
		% within situation3	57,1%	73,7%	43,0%	95,5%	11,8%	43,5%	52,5%	
		% of Total	2,0%	14,0%	20,0%	10,5%	1,0%	5,0%	52,5%	
		Female	Count	3	10	53	1	15	13	95
		% within Gender	3,2%	10,5%	55,8%	1,1%	15,8%	13,7%	100,0%	
Total		% within situation3	42,9%	26,3%	57,0%	4,5%	88,2%	56,5%	47,5%	
		% of Total	1,5%	5,0%	26,5%	0,5%	7,5%	6,5%	47,5%	
		Count	7	38	93	22	17	23	200	
		% within Gender	3,5%	19,0%	46,5%	11,0%	8,5%	11,5%	100,0%	
		% within situation3	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
		% of Total	3,5%	19,0%	46,5%	11,0%	8,5%	11,5%	100,0%	

Table 34: Gender and the choice of request strategies used by MIU respondents in the fourth situation

		situation4					Total		
		expressing a wish	suggestion	asking for ability	powerful indicator	asking for permission plus explanation			
Gender	Male	Count	34	5	39	13	14	105	
		% within Gender	32,4%	4,8%	37,1%	12,4%	13,3%	100,0%	
		% within situation4	100,0%	27,8%	35,8%	100,0%	53,8%	52,5%	
		% of Total	17,0%	2,5%	19,5%	6,5%	7,0%	52,5%	
		Female	Count	0	13	70	0	12	95
		% within Gender	0,0%	13,7%	73,7%	0,0%	12,6%	100,0%	
Total		% within situation4	0,0%	72,2%	64,2%	0,0%	46,2%	47,5%	
		% of Total	0,0%	6,5%	35,0%	0,0%	6,0%	47,5%	
		Count	34	18	109	13	26	200	
		% within Gender	17,0%	9,0%	54,5%	6,5%	13,0%	100,0%	
		% within situation4	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
		% of Total	17,0%	9,0%	54,5%	6,5%	13,0%	100,0%	

Table 35: Gender and the choice of request strategies used by MIU respondents in the fifth situation

		situation5							Total
		implicit order	giving order	expressing a wish	asking for ability	powerful indicator	soft indicator	asking for permission plus explanation	
Gender	Count	4	3	2	26	13	21	36	105
	Male	3,8%	2,9%	1,9%	24,8%	12,4%	20,0%	34,3%	100,0%
	% within Gender	40,0%	100,0%	50,0%	37,1%	100,0%	58,3%	56,2%	52,5%
	% within situation5	2,0%	1,5%	1,0%	13,0%	6,5%	10,5%	18,0%	52,5%
	% of Total	6	0	2	44	0	15	28	95
	Female	6,3%	0,0%	2,1%	46,3%	0,0%	15,8%	29,5%	100,0%
Total	Count	60,0%	0,0%	50,0%	62,9%	0,0%	41,7%	43,8%	47,5%
	Female	3,0%	0,0%	1,0%	22,0%	0,0%	7,5%	14,0%	47,5%
	% within Gender	10	3	4	70	13	36	64	200
	% within situation5	5,0%	1,5%	2,0%	35,0%	6,5%	18,0%	32,0%	100,0%
	% of Total	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
	% of Total	5,0%	1,5%	2,0%	35,0%	6,5%	18,0%	32,0%	100,0%

Table 36: Gender and the choice of request strategies used by MIU respondents in the sixth situation

		situation6								Total
		implicit order	hedged order	giving order	asking for ability	powerful indicator	rewarding	NA	asking for permission plus explanation	
Gender	Count	29	33	0	0	26	6	0	11	105
	Male	27,6%	31,4%	0,0%	0,0%	24,8%	5,7%	0,0%	10,5%	100,0%
	% within Gender	52,7%	61,1%	0,0%	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%	0,0%	52,4%	52,5%
	% within situation6	14,5%	16,5%	0,0%	0,0%	13,0%	3,0%	0,0%	5,5%	52,5%
	% of Total	26	21	6	23	0	0	9	10	95
	Female	27,4%	22,1%	6,3%	24,2%	0,0%	0,0%	9,5%	10,5%	100,0%
Total	Count	47,3%	38,9%	100,0%	100,0%	0,0%	0,0%	100,0%	47,6%	47,5%
	Female	13,0%	10,5%	3,0%	11,5%	0,0%	0,0%	4,5%	5,0%	47,5%
	% within Gender	55	54	6	23	26	6	9	21	200
	% within situation6	27,5%	27,0%	3,0%	11,5%	13,0%	3,0%	4,5%	10,5%	100,0%
	% of Total	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
	% of Total	27,5%	27,0%	3,0%	11,5%	13,0%	3,0%	4,5%	10,5%	100,0%

Table 37: Gender and the choice of request strategies used by MIU respondents in the seventh situation

		situation7							Total	
		implicit order	expressing a wish	suggestion	asking for ability	powerful indicator	soft indicator	NA		asking for permission plus explanation
Gender	Count	0	6	0	24	5	54	4	12	105
	Male	0,0%	5,7%	0,0%	22,9%	4,8%	51,4%	3,8%	11,4%	100,0%
	% within Gender	0,0%	100,0%	0,0%	54,5%	50,0%	60,7%	44,4%	37,5%	52,5%
	% within situation7	0,0%	3,0%	0,0%	12,0%	2,5%	27,0%	2,0%	6,0%	52,5%
	% of Total	3	0	7	20	5	35	5	20	95
	Female	3,2%	0,0%	7,4%	21,1%	5,3%	36,8%	5,3%	21,1%	100,0%
Total	Count	100,0%	0,0%	100,0%	45,5%	50,0%	39,3%	55,6%	62,5%	47,5%
	Female	1,5%	0,0%	3,5%	10,0%	2,5%	17,5%	2,5%	10,0%	47,5%
	% within Gender	3	6	7	44	10	89	9	32	200
	% within situation7	1,5%	3,0%	3,5%	22,0%	5,0%	44,5%	4,5%	16,0%	100,0%
	% of Total	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
	% of Total	1,5%	3,0%	3,5%	22,0%	5,0%	44,5%	4,5%	16,0%	100,0%

Table 38: Gender and the choice of request strategies used by MIU respondents in the eighth situation

		situation8							Total
		implicit order	expressing a wish	asking for ability	powerful indicator	soft indicator	NA	asking for permission plus explanation	
Gender	Count	5	2	44	5	22	0	27	105
	Male	4,8%	1,9%	41,9%	4,8%	21,0%	0,0%	25,7%	100,0%
	% within situation8	50,0%	20,0%	59,5%	45,5%	91,7%	0,0%	40,3%	52,5%
	% of Total	2,5%	1,0%	22,0%	2,5%	11,0%	0,0%	13,5%	52,5%
	Count	5	8	30	6	2	4	40	95
	Female	5,3%	8,4%	31,6%	6,3%	2,1%	4,2%	42,1%	100,0%
Total	% within situation8	50,0%	80,0%	40,5%	54,5%	8,3%	100,0%	59,7%	47,5%
	% of Total	2,5%	4,0%	15,0%	3,0%	1,0%	2,0%	20,0%	47,5%
	Count	10	10	74	11	24	4	67	200
	% within Gender	5,0%	5,0%	37,0%	5,5%	12,0%	2,0%	33,5%	100,0%
	% within situation8	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
	% of Total	5,0%	5,0%	37,0%	5,5%	12,0%	2,0%	33,5%	100,0%

Table 39: Gender and the choice of request strategies used by MIU respondents in the ninth situation

		situation9					Total	
		expressing a wish	asking for ability	powerful indicator	soft indicator	NA		asking for permission plus explanation
Gender	Count	7	47	8	29	7	7	105
	Male	6,7%	44,8%	7,6%	27,6%	6,7%	6,7%	100,0%
	% within situation9	38,9%	48,0%	100,0%	61,7%	63,6%	38,9%	52,5%
	% of Total	3,5%	23,5%	4,0%	14,5%	3,5%	3,5%	52,5%
	Count	11	51	0	18	4	11	95
	Female	11,6%	53,7%	0,0%	18,9%	4,2%	11,6%	100,0%
Total	% within situation9	61,1%	52,0%	0,0%	38,3%	36,4%	61,1%	47,5%
	% of Total	5,5%	25,5%	0,0%	9,0%	2,0%	5,5%	47,5%
	Count	18	98	8	47	11	18	200
	% within Gender	9,0%	49,0%	4,0%	23,5%	5,5%	9,0%	100,0%
	% within situation9	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
	% of Total	9,0%	49,0%	4,0%	23,5%	5,5%	9,0%	100,0%

Table 40: Gender and the choice of request strategies by respondents from SMBAU in the first situation

		situation1							Total		
		implicit order	expressing a wish	asking for ability	powerful indicator	soft indicator	rewarding	asking for permission plus explanation			
Gender	Male	Count	2	30	38	2	13	19	5	109	
		% within Gender	1,8%	27,5%	34,9%	1,8%	11,9%	17,4%	4,6%	100,0%	
		% within situation1	100,0%	71,4%	40,9%	50,0%	44,8%	100,0%	45,5%	54,5%	
		% of Total	1,0%	15,0%	19,0%	1,0%	6,5%	9,5%	2,5%	54,5%	
		Female	Count	0	12	55	2	16	0	6	91
		% within Gender	0,0%	13,2%	60,4%	2,2%	17,6%	0,0%	6,6%	100,0%	
Total		% within situation1	0,0%	28,6%	59,1%	50,0%	55,2%	0,0%	54,5%	45,5%	
		% of Total	0,0%	6,0%	27,5%	1,0%	8,0%	0,0%	3,0%	45,5%	
		Count	2	42	93	4	29	19	11	200	
		% within Gender	1,0%	21,0%	46,5%	2,0%	14,5%	9,5%	5,5%	100,0%	
		% within situation1	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
		% of Total	1,0%	21,0%	46,5%	2,0%	14,5%	9,5%	5,5%	100,0%	

Table 41: Gender and the choice of request strategies by respondents from SMBAU in the second situation

		situation2							Total		
		implicit order	expressing a wish	asking for ability	powerful indicator	soft indicator	NA	asking for permission plus explanation			
Gender	Male	Count	0	49	30	4	16	10	0	109	
		% within Gender	0,0%	45,0%	27,5%	3,7%	14,7%	9,2%	0,0%	100,0%	
		% within situation2	0,0%	83,1%	33,7%	57,1%	72,7%	71,4%	0,0%	54,5%	
		% of Total	0,0%	24,5%	15,0%	2,0%	8,0%	5,0%	0,0%	54,5%	
		Female	Count	5	10	59	3	6	4	4	91
		% within Gender	5,5%	11,0%	64,8%	3,3%	6,6%	4,4%	4,4%	100,0%	
Total		% within situation2	100,0%	16,9%	66,3%	42,9%	27,3%	28,6%	100,0%	45,5%	
		% of Total	2,5%	5,0%	29,5%	1,5%	3,0%	2,0%	2,0%	45,5%	
		Count	5	59	89	7	22	14	4	200	
		% within Gender	2,5%	29,5%	44,5%	3,5%	11,0%	7,0%	2,0%	100,0%	
		% within situation2	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
		% of Total	2,5%	29,5%	44,5%	3,5%	11,0%	7,0%	2,0%	100,0%	

Table 42: Gender and the choice of request strategies by respondents from SMBAU in the third situation

		situation3								Total		
		implicit order	expressing a wish	suggestion	asking for ability	powerful indicator	soft indicator	NA	asking for permission plus explanation			
Gender	Count	2	24	8	50	9	1	5	10	109		
	Male	% within Gender	1,8%	22,0%	7,3%	45,9%	8,3%	0,9%	4,6%	9,2%	100,0%	
		% within situation3	100,0%	70,6%	100,0%	43,9%	100,0%	10,0%	38,5%	100,0%	54,5%	
		% of Total	1,0%	12,0%	4,0%	25,0%	4,5%	0,5%	2,5%	5,0%	54,5%	
		Count	0	10	0	64	0	9	8	0	91	
		Female	% within Gender	0,0%	11,0%	0,0%	70,3%	0,0%	9,9%	8,8%	0,0%	100,0%
		% within situation3	0,0%	29,4%	0,0%	56,1%	0,0%	90,0%	61,5%	0,0%	45,5%	
		% of Total	0,0%	5,0%	0,0%	32,0%	0,0%	4,5%	4,0%	0,0%	45,5%	
		Count	2	34	8	114	9	10	13	10	200	
Total	% within Gender	1,0%	17,0%	4,0%	57,0%	4,5%	5,0%	6,5%	5,0%	100,0%		
	% within situation3	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%		
	% of Total	1,0%	17,0%	4,0%	57,0%	4,5%	5,0%	6,5%	5,0%	100,0%		

Table 43: Gender and the choice of request strategies by respondents from SMBAU in the fourth situation

		situation4							Total		
		implicit order	hedged order	expressing a wish	asking for ability	powerful indicator	NA	asking for permission plus explanation			
Gender	Count	8	1	26	47	6	10	11	109		
	Male	% within Gender	7,3%	0,9%	23,9%	43,1%	5,5%	9,2%	10,1%	100,0%	
		% within situation4	100,0%	100,0%	78,8%	40,9%	60,0%	58,8%	68,8%	54,5%	
		% of Total	4,0%	0,5%	13,0%	23,5%	3,0%	5,0%	5,5%	54,5%	
		Count	0	0	7	68	4	7	5	91	
		Female	% within Gender	0,0%	0,0%	7,7%	74,7%	4,4%	7,7%	5,5%	100,0%
		% within situation4	0,0%	0,0%	21,2%	59,1%	40,0%	41,2%	31,2%	45,5%	
		% of Total	0,0%	0,0%	3,5%	34,0%	2,0%	3,5%	2,5%	45,5%	
		Count	8	1	33	115	10	17	16	200	
Total	% within Gender	4,0%	0,5%	16,5%	57,5%	5,0%	8,5%	8,0%	100,0%		
	% within situation4	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%		
	% of Total	4,0%	0,5%	16,5%	57,5%	5,0%	8,5%	8,0%	100,0%		

Table 44: Gender and the choice of request strategies by respondents from SMBAU in the fifth situation

		situation5						Total		
		implicit order	expressing a wish	asking for ability	soft indicator	NA	asking for permission plus explanation			
Gender	Count	4	10	33	16	4	42	109		
	Male	% within Gender	3,7%	9,2%	30,3%	14,7%	3,7%	38,5%	100,0%	
		% within situation5	66,7%	90,9%	42,9%	84,2%	36,4%	55,3%	54,5%	
		% of Total	2,0%	5,0%	16,5%	8,0%	2,0%	21,0%	54,5%	
		Count	2	1	44	3	7	34	91	
		Female	% within Gender	2,2%	1,1%	48,4%	3,3%	7,7%	37,4%	100,0%
		% within situation5	33,3%	9,1%	57,1%	15,8%	63,6%	44,7%	45,5%	
		% of Total	1,0%	0,5%	22,0%	1,5%	3,5%	17,0%	45,5%	
		Count	6	11	77	19	11	76	200	
Total	% within Gender	3,0%	5,5%	38,5%	9,5%	5,5%	38,0%	100,0%		
	% within situation5	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%		
	% of Total	3,0%	5,5%	38,5%	9,5%	5,5%	38,0%	100,0%		

Table 45: Gender and the choice of request strategies by respondents from SMBAU in the sixth situation

		situation6									Total	
		implicit order	hedged order	giving order	expressing a wish	asking for ability	powerful indicator	rewarding	NA	asking for permission plus explanation		
Gender	Male	Count	26	48	2	0	20	5	0	4	4	109
		% within Gender	23,9%	44,0%	1,8%	0,0%	18,3%	4,6%	0,0%	3,7%	3,7%	100,0%
		% within situation6	56,5%	77,4%	66,7%	0,0%	35,1%	33,3%	0,0%	57,1%	50,0%	54,5%
		% of Total	13,0%	24,0%	1,0%	0,0%	10,0%	2,5%	0,0%	2,0%	2,0%	54,5%
Gender	Female	Count	20	14	1	1	37	10	1	3	4	91
		% within Gender	22,0%	15,4%	1,1%	1,1%	40,7%	11,0%	1,1%	3,3%	4,4%	100,0%
		% within situation6	43,5%	22,6%	33,3%	100,0%	64,9%	66,7%	100,0%	42,9%	50,0%	45,5%
		% of Total	10,0%	7,0%	0,5%	0,5%	18,5%	5,0%	0,5%	1,5%	2,0%	45,5%
Total		Count	46	62	3	1	57	15	1	7	8	200
		% within Gender	23,0%	31,0%	1,5%	0,5%	28,5%	7,5%	0,5%	3,5%	4,0%	100,0%
		% within situation6	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	23,0%	31,0%	1,5%	0,5%	28,5%	7,5%	0,5%	3,5%	4,0%	100,0%

Table 46: Gender and the choice of request strategies by respondents from SMBAU in the seventh situation

		situation7						Total	
		expressing a wish	asking for ability	powerful indicator	soft indicator	NA	asking for permission plus explanation		
Gender	Male	Count	4	21	17	50	1	16	109
		% within Gender	3,7%	19,3%	15,6%	45,9%	0,9%	14,7%	100,0%
		% within situation7	100,0%	41,2%	100,0%	51,5%	11,1%	72,7%	54,5%
		% of Total	2,0%	10,5%	8,5%	25,0%	0,5%	8,0%	54,5%
Gender	Female	Count	0	30	0	47	8	6	91
		% within Gender	0,0%	33,0%	0,0%	51,6%	8,8%	6,6%	100,0%
		% within situation7	0,0%	58,8%	0,0%	48,5%	88,9%	27,3%	45,5%
		% of Total	0,0%	15,0%	0,0%	23,5%	4,0%	3,0%	45,5%
Total		Count	4	51	17	97	9	22	200
		% within Gender	2,0%	25,5%	8,5%	48,5%	4,5%	11,0%	100,0%
		% within situation7	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
	% of Total	2,0%	25,5%	8,5%	48,5%	4,5%	11,0%	100,0%	

Bar chart 47: Gender and the choice of request strategies by respondents from SMBAU in the eighth situation

		situation8							Total		
		implicit order	expressing a wish	asking for ability	powerful indicator	soft indicator	NA	asking for permission plus explanation			
Gender	Male	Count	25	28	29	0	14	13	0	109	
		% within Gender	22,9%	25,7%	26,6%	0,0%	12,8%	11,9%	0,0%	100,0%	
		% within situation8	59,5%	70,0%	48,3%	0,0%	100,0%	81,2%	0,0%	54,5%	
		% of Total	12,5%	14,0%	14,5%	0,0%	7,0%	6,5%	0,0%	54,5%	
		Female	Count	17	12	31	22	0	3	6	91
		% within Gender	18,7%	13,2%	34,1%	24,2%	0,0%	3,3%	6,6%	100,0%	
Total		% within situation8	40,5%	30,0%	51,7%	100,0%	0,0%	18,8%	100,0%	45,5%	
		% of Total	8,5%	6,0%	15,5%	11,0%	0,0%	1,5%	3,0%	45,5%	
		Count	42	40	60	22	14	16	6	200	
		% within Gender	21,0%	20,0%	30,0%	11,0%	7,0%	8,0%	3,0%	100,0%	
		% within situation8	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
		% of Total	21,0%	20,0%	30,0%	11,0%	7,0%	8,0%	3,0%	100,0%	

Table 48: Gender and the choice of request strategies by respondents from SMBAU in the ninth situation

		situation9				Total	
		expressing a wish	asking for ability	soft indicator	NA		
Count						109	
Gender	Male	Count	37	66	0	6	109
		% within Gender	33,9%	60,6%	0,0%	5,5%	100,0%
		% within situation9	100,0%	52,0%	0,0%	42,9%	54,5%
		% of Total	18,5%	33,0%	0,0%	3,0%	54,5%
Gender	Female	Count	0	61	22	8	91
		% within Gender	0,0%	67,0%	24,2%	8,8%	100,0%
		% within situation9	0,0%	48,0%	100,0%	57,1%	45,5%
		% of Total	0,0%	30,5%	11,0%	4,0%	45,5%
Total		Count	37	127	22	14	200
		% within Gender	18,5%	63,5%	11,0%	7,0%	100,0%
		% within situation9	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	18,5%	63,5%	11,0%	7,0%	100,0%

Table 49: Group affiliation influence and the choice of request strategies by respondents from both institutions in the first situation

		situation1								Total	
		implicit order	expressing a wish	asking for ability	powerful indicator	soft indicator	rewarding	NA	asking for permission plus explanation		
Faculty	Meknes	Count	10	17	61	26	22	39	1	24	200
		% within Faculty	5,0%	8,5%	30,5%	13,0%	11,0%	19,5%	0,5%	12,0%	100,0%
		% within situation1	83,3%	28,8%	39,6%	86,7%	43,1%	67,2%	100,0%	68,6%	50,0%
		% of Total	2,5%	4,2%	15,2%	6,5%	5,5%	9,8%	0,2%	6,0%	50,0%
Faculty	Fes	Count	2	42	93	4	29	19	0	11	200
		% within Faculty	1,0%	21,0%	46,5%	2,0%	14,5%	9,5%	0,0%	5,5%	100,0%
		% within situation1	16,7%	71,2%	60,4%	13,3%	56,9%	32,8%	0,0%	31,4%	50,0%
		% of Total	0,5%	10,5%	23,2%	1,0%	7,2%	4,8%	0,0%	2,8%	50,0%
Total		Count	12	59	154	30	51	58	1	35	400
		% within Faculty	3,0%	14,8%	38,5%	7,5%	12,8%	14,5%	0,2%	8,8%	100,0%
		% within situation1	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	3,0%	14,8%	38,5%	7,5%	12,8%	14,5%	0,2%	8,8%	100,0%

Table 50: Group affiliation influence and the choice of request strategies by respondents from both institutions in the second situation

		situation2									Total	
		implicit order	expressing a wish	suggestion	asking for ability	powerful indicator	soft indicator	rewarding	NA	asking for permission plus explanation		
Faculty	Meknes	Count	17	30	7	73	14	19	9	3	28	200
		% within Faculty	8,5%	15,0%	3,5%	36,5%	7,0%	9,5%	4,5%	1,5%	14,0%	100,0%
		% within situation2	77,3%	33,7%	100,0%	45,1%	66,7%	46,3%	100,0%	17,6%	87,5%	50,0%
		% of Total	4,2%	7,5%	1,8%	18,2%	3,5%	4,8%	2,2%	0,8%	7,0%	50,0%
Faculty	Fes	Count	5	59	0	89	7	22	0	14	4	200
		% within Faculty	2,5%	29,5%	0,0%	44,5%	3,5%	11,0%	0,0%	7,0%	2,0%	100,0%
		% within situation2	22,7%	66,3%	0,0%	54,9%	33,3%	53,7%	0,0%	82,4%	12,5%	50,0%
		% of Total	1,2%	14,8%	0,0%	22,2%	1,8%	5,5%	0,0%	3,5%	1,0%	50,0%
Total		Count	22	89	7	162	21	41	9	17	32	400
		% within Faculty	5,5%	22,2%	1,8%	40,5%	5,2%	10,2%	2,2%	4,2%	8,0%	100,0%
		% within situation2	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	5,5%	22,2%	1,8%	40,5%	5,2%	10,2%	2,2%	4,2%	8,0%	100,0%

Table 51: Group affiliation influence and the choice of request strategies by respondents from both institutions in the third situation

		situation3								Total	
		implicit order	expressing a wish	suggestion	asking for ability	powerful indicator	soft indicator	NA	asking for permission plus explanation		
Faculty	Meknes	Count	0	7	38	93	22	17	0	23	200
		% within Faculty	0,0%	3,5%	19,0%	46,5%	11,0%	8,5%	0,0%	11,5%	100,0%
		% within situation3	0,0%	17,1%	82,6%	44,9%	71,0%	63,0%	0,0%	69,7%	50,0%
		% of Total	0,0%	1,8%	9,5%	23,2%	5,5%	4,2%	0,0%	5,8%	50,0%
Faculty	Fes	Count	2	34	8	114	9	10	13	10	200
		% within Faculty	1,0%	17,0%	4,0%	57,0%	4,5%	5,0%	6,5%	5,0%	100,0%
		% within situation3	100,0%	82,9%	17,4%	55,1%	29,0%	37,0%	100,0%	30,3%	50,0%
		% of Total	0,5%	8,5%	2,0%	28,5%	2,2%	2,5%	3,2%	2,5%	50,0%
Total		Count	2	41	46	207	31	27	13	33	400
		% within Faculty	0,5%	10,2%	11,5%	51,8%	7,8%	6,8%	3,2%	8,2%	100,0%
		% within situation3	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	0,5%	10,2%	11,5%	51,8%	7,8%	6,8%	3,2%	8,2%	100,0%

Table 52: Group affiliation influence and the choice of request strategies by respondents from both institutions in the fourth situation

		situation4								Total	
		implicit order	hedged order	expressing a wish	suggestion	asking for ability	powerful indicator	NA	asking for permission plus explanation		
Faculty	Meknes	Count	0	0	34	18	109	13	0	26	200
		% within Faculty	0,0%	0,0%	17,0%	9,0%	54,5%	6,5%	0,0%	13,0%	100,0%
		% within situation4	0,0%	0,0%	50,7%	100,0%	48,7%	56,5%	0,0%	61,9%	50,0%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,0%	8,5%	4,5%	27,2%	3,2%	0,0%	6,5%	50,0%
Faculty	Fes	Count	8	1	33	0	115	10	17	16	200
		% within Faculty	4,0%	0,5%	16,5%	0,0%	57,5%	5,0%	8,5%	8,0%	100,0%
		% within situation4	100,0%	100,0%	49,3%	0,0%	51,3%	43,5%	100,0%	38,1%	50,0%
		% of Total	2,0%	0,2%	8,2%	0,0%	28,8%	2,5%	4,2%	4,0%	50,0%
Total		Count	8	1	67	18	224	23	17	42	400
		% within Faculty	2,0%	0,2%	16,8%	4,5%	56,0%	5,8%	4,2%	10,5%	100,0%
		% within situation4	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	2,0%	0,2%	16,8%	4,5%	56,0%	5,8%	4,2%	10,5%	100,0%

Table 53: Group affiliation influence and the choice of request strategies by respondents from both institutions in the fifth situation

		situation5								Total		
		implicit order	giving order	expressing a wish	asking for ability	powerful indicator	soft indicator	NA	asking for permission plus explanation			
Faculty	Meknes	Count	10	3	4	70	13	36	0	64	200	
		% within Faculty	5,0%	1,5%	2,0%	35,0%	6,5%	18,0%	0,0%	32,0%	100,0%	
		% within situation5	62,5%	100,0%	26,7%	47,6%	100,0%	65,5%	0,0%	45,7%	50,0%	
		% of Total	2,5%	0,8%	1,0%	17,5%	3,2%	9,0%	0,0%	16,0%	50,0%	
		Fes	Count	6	0	11	77	0	19	11	76	200
		% within Faculty	3,0%	0,0%	5,5%	38,5%	0,0%	9,5%	5,5%	38,0%	100,0%	
		% within situation5	37,5%	0,0%	73,3%	52,4%	0,0%	34,5%	100,0%	54,3%	50,0%	
Total		% of Total	1,5%	0,0%	2,8%	19,2%	0,0%	4,8%	2,8%	19,0%	50,0%	
		Count	16	3	15	147	13	55	11	140	400	
		% within Faculty	4,0%	0,8%	3,8%	36,8%	3,2%	13,8%	2,8%	35,0%	100,0%	
	% within situation5	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%		
	% of Total	4,0%	0,8%	3,8%	36,8%	3,2%	13,8%	2,8%	35,0%	100,0%		

Table 54: Group affiliation influence and the choice of request strategies by respondents from both institutions in the sixth situation

		situation6									Total		
		implicit order	hedged order	giving order	expressing a wish	asking for ability	powerful indicator	rewarding	NA	asking for permission plus explanation			
Faculty	Meknes	Count	55	54	6	0	23	26	6	9	21	200	
		% within Faculty	27,5%	27,0%	3,0%	0,0%	11,5%	13,0%	3,0%	4,5%	10,5%	100,0%	
		% within situation6	54,5%	46,6%	66,7%	0,0%	28,8%	63,4%	85,7%	56,2%	72,4%	50,0%	
		% of Total	13,8%	13,5%	1,5%	0,0%	5,8%	6,5%	1,5%	2,2%	5,2%	50,0%	
		Fes	Count	46	62	3	1	57	15	1	7	8	200
		% within Faculty	23,0%	31,0%	1,5%	0,5%	28,5%	7,5%	0,5%	3,5%	4,0%	100,0%	
		% within situation6	45,5%	53,4%	33,3%	100,0%	71,2%	36,6%	14,3%	43,8%	27,6%	50,0%	
Total		% of Total	11,5%	15,5%	0,8%	0,2%	14,2%	3,8%	0,2%	1,8%	2,0%	50,0%	
		Count	101	116	9	1	80	41	7	16	29	400	
		% within Faculty	25,2%	29,0%	2,2%	0,2%	20,0%	10,2%	1,8%	4,0%	7,2%	100,0%	
	% within situation6	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%		
	% of Total	25,2%	29,0%	2,2%	0,2%	20,0%	10,2%	1,8%	4,0%	7,2%	100,0%		

Table 55: Group affiliation influence and the choice of request strategies by respondents from both institutions in the seventh situation

		situation7							Total		
		implicit order	expressing a wish	suggestion	asking for ability	powerful indicator	soft indicator	NA		asking for permission plus explanation	
Faculty	Meknes	Count	3	6	7	44	10	89	9	32	200
		% within Faculty	1,5%	3,0%	3,5%	22,0%	5,0%	44,5%	4,5%	16,0%	100,0%
		% within situation7	100,0%	60,0%	100,0%	46,3%	37,0%	47,8%	50,0%	59,3%	50,0%
		% of Total	0,8%	1,5%	1,8%	11,0%	2,5%	22,2%	2,2%	8,0%	50,0%
Faculty	Fes	Count	0	4	0	51	17	97	9	22	200
		% within Faculty	0,0%	2,0%	0,0%	25,5%	8,5%	48,5%	4,5%	11,0%	100,0%
		% within situation7	0,0%	40,0%	0,0%	53,7%	63,0%	52,2%	50,0%	40,7%	50,0%
		% of Total	0,0%	1,0%	0,0%	12,8%	4,2%	24,2%	2,2%	5,5%	50,0%
Total		Count	3	10	7	95	27	186	18	54	400
		% within Faculty	0,8%	2,5%	1,8%	23,8%	6,8%	46,5%	4,5%	13,5%	100,0%
		% within situation7	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	0,8%	2,5%	1,8%	23,8%	6,8%	46,5%	4,5%	13,5%	100,0%

Table 56: Group affiliation influence and the choice of request strategies by respondents from both institutions in the eighth situation

		situation8							Total	
		implicit order	expressing a wish	asking for ability	powerful indicator	soft indicator	NA	asking for permission plus explanation		
Faculty	Meknes	Count	10	10	74	11	24	4	67	200
		% within Faculty	5,0%	5,0%	37,0%	5,5%	12,0%	2,0%	33,5%	100,0%
		% within situation8	19,2%	20,0%	55,2%	33,3%	63,2%	20,0%	91,8%	50,0%
		% of Total	2,5%	2,5%	18,5%	2,8%	6,0%	1,0%	16,8%	50,0%
Faculty	Fes	Count	42	40	60	22	14	16	6	200
		% within Faculty	21,0%	20,0%	30,0%	11,0%	7,0%	8,0%	3,0%	100,0%
		% within situation8	80,8%	80,0%	44,8%	66,7%	36,8%	80,0%	8,2%	50,0%
		% of Total	10,5%	10,0%	15,0%	5,5%	3,5%	4,0%	1,5%	50,0%
Total		Count	52	50	134	33	38	20	73	400
		% within Faculty	13,0%	12,5%	33,5%	8,2%	9,5%	5,0%	18,2%	100,0%
		% within situation8	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	13,0%	12,5%	33,5%	8,2%	9,5%	5,0%	18,2%	100,0%

Table 57: Group affiliation influence and the choice of request strategies by respondents from both institutions in the ninth situation

		situation9					Total			
		expressing a wish	asking for ability	powerful indicator	soft indicator	NA		asking for permission plus explanation		
Faculty	Meknes	Count	18	98	8	47	11	18	200	
		% within Faculty	9,0%	49,0%	4,0%	23,5%	5,5%	9,0%	100,0%	
		% within situation9	32,7%	43,6%	100,0%	68,1%	44,0%	100,0%	50,0%	
		% of Total	4,5%	24,5%	2,0%	11,8%	2,8%	4,5%	50,0%	
		Fes	Count	37	127	0	22	14	0	200
		% within Faculty	18,5%	63,5%	0,0%	11,0%	7,0%	0,0%	100,0%	
Total		% within situation9	67,3%	56,4%	0,0%	31,9%	56,0%	0,0%	50,0%	
		% of Total	9,2%	31,8%	0,0%	5,5%	3,5%	0,0%	50,0%	
		Count	55	225	8	69	25	18	400	
		% within Faculty	13,8%	56,2%	2,0%	17,2%	6,2%	4,5%	100,0%	
		% within situation9	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
		% of Total	13,8%	56,2%	2,0%	17,2%	6,2%	4,5%	100,0%	