



مركز دراسات الدكتوراه: الآداب والعلوم الإنسانية والفنون وعلوم التربية
تكوين الدكتوراه: اللغات و الآداب و التواصل والاعلام
التخصص: الدراسات الانجليزية
مختبر: Discourse, Creativity and Society

أطروحة لنيل الدكتوراه في الآداب و العلوم الانسانية

في موضوع:

Performing Requests and Refusals by Moroccan University
E.F.L Learners :
Forms and Strategies

اسم الأستاذ(ة) المشرف(ة):
الدكتورة أدبية بوصفيحة

إعداد الطالب(ة) الباحث(ة):
أسماء بوشوك

تاريخ المناقشة: 2022/11/28

لجنة المناقشة :

رئيسا	كلية الآداب سايس فاس	الدكتور عبد الحميد النفيسي
عضوا	كلية الآداب مكناس	الدكتور عزالدين الخلوفي
عضوا	المدرسة الوطنية للتجارة والتسيير فاس	الدكتور يوسف بنعبد الرازق
مشرفا ومقررا	كلية الآداب سايس فاس	الدكتور (ة) أدبية بوصفيحة

السنة الجامعية :

2023 - 2022

ABSTRACT

The main objective of the thesis at hand is to investigate Moroccan EFL learners' production of request and refusal strategies in various contexts. A pragmalinguistic as well as sociopragmatic analysis of the strategies of requests and refusals are targeted. Then, a comparison of Moroccan EFL learners' request and refusal realization patterns with native speakers is adopted. The research also examines the effect of Moroccan EFL learners' academic level as well as social factors (social power, social distance, imposition and gender) on their performance of the speech acts under study. A total of 80 Moroccan EFL learners who belong to three different universities participated in the discourse completion task, 100 took part in the multiple choice questionnaire and awareness test, and 30 native speakers reacted to the discourse completion task. Results showed that Moroccans prefer the use of conventionally indirect strategies especially Ability and Willingness and rarely used suggestory formulae and permission; they also prefer the use of external over internal modifiers. Moroccans also show preference of the use of the lexical downgraders mainly the politeness marker "please". As for refusals, Moroccans use of indirect strategies overcomes other strategies, and favour the use of strategies like "Excuse, reason and explanation" and "Wish" "Statement of regret". Moreover, it is revealed that some social factors affect Moroccan learners' production of the speech acts under study, and the academic level has a great impact of their performance. Lastly, the dissertation concludes with numerous implications and recommendations for future research.

ملخص

تهدف هذه الأطروحة أساساً إلى دراسة استراتيجيات الإنتاج في تركيب أساليب الطلب والرفض التي يستخدمها المتعلمون المغاربة للغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في سياقات مختلفة، وذلك باعتماد كل من التحليلين البراغماتيين اللغوي والاجتماعي لاستراتيجيات أساليب الطلب والرفض. وبعد ذلك، اعتمدت هذه الأطروحة دراسة مقارنة بين أنماط تركيب أساليب الطلب والرفض المستعملة لدى المتعلمين المغاربة للغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية وأنماط تركيب هذه الأساليب لدى الناطقين باللغة الإنجليزية. وتدرس هذه الأطروحة أيضاً تأثير المستوى الأكاديمي للمتعلمين المغاربة للغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية وتأثير العوامل الاجتماعية (السلطة الاجتماعية، والمسافة الاجتماعية، والنوع) على إنتاجهم لأفعال الكلام قيد الدراسة. وقد شارك 80 متعلماً مغرباً للغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية يدرسون في ثلاث جامعات مختلفة في مهمة اختبار إكمال الخطاب، كما شارك 100 متعلم في استبيان الاختيار المتعدد واختبار التوعية، وقد ساهم كذلك 30 ناطقاً باللغة الإنجليزية في مهمة إكمال الخطاب. وأظهرت النتائج أن المغاربة يفضلون استخدام الاستراتيجيات التقليدية غير المباشرة خاصة القدرة والإرادة وندراً ما يستخدمون الاقتراحات والإنذ، كما أنهم يفضلون استخدام المُعْذَلات الخارجية بدل المُعْذَلات الداخلية. ويُظهر المغاربة أيضاً تفضيلهم لاستخدام المصنفات المعجمية، وخصوصاً العبارة الدالة على التأدب "من فضلك". أما بالنسبة للرفض، فإن الأكثر شيوعاً هو استخدام المغاربة للاستراتيجيات غير المباشرة، ويفضل استخدام استراتيجيات مثل "العذر والسبب والمبرر" و "التمني" و "التعبير عن الندم". وعلاوة على ذلك، فقد تبين أن بعض العوامل الاجتماعية تؤثر على إنتاج المتعلمين المغاربة لأفعال الكلام قيد الدراسة، كما اتضح أن للمستوى الأكاديمي دوراً كبيراً في عملية التركيب اللغوي. وأخيراً، تختم الأطروحة بجملة من المقترحات والتوصيات المرتبطة بهذا الموضوع لفتح الباب أمام آفاق جديدة يرجى البحث فيها مستقبلاً.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This Ph.D dissertation would not have been achieved without the valuable assistance and guidance of my hard-working supervisor Dr. Adiba Bousfiha who has always provided me with her meticulous feedback and critically scrutinized my work to produce the best version of this academic work. I am grateful for all the time she dedicated for me and my research, as she insisted upon meeting up to thoroughly discuss all the aspects of my research. She was always ready to answer all of my inquiries whenever I reached her out.

I am also thankful to my beloved family for their emotional support and thoughtfulness. I am indebted to my lovely parents and my sisters who are always by my side to support and encourage me in a number of ways and who helped me keep my enthusiasm and determination to accomplish this work. Furthermore, special thanks to my beloved husband Dr. El Hiani, K. for his proofreading, pieces of advice and encouragement. Last but not least, special thanks to my uncle Hamdi M. for his help and support.

Above all, all blessings go to ALLAH, the Almighty who is the first Creator, for the strength and patience He gave me to achieve this work.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this piece of work to:

✚ *My dear parents who have been my constant
source of inspiration*

✚ *My beloved husband*

✚ *My three sisters Afaf, Oumaima and Yousra*

✚ *My Grandmother*

✚ *My uncle Mohamed*

✚ *My friend Fatimazehra*

TABLE OF CONTENT

ABSTRACT.....	I	
ملخص	II	
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	III	
DEDICATION	IV	
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	V	
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	VIII	
LIST OF TABLES	IX	
LIST OF FIGURES	XI	
LIST OF APPENDICES	XII	
General Introduction		
Chapter One: Review of the Literature		
1. Chapter introduction... ..	15	
2. Scope of Pragmatics	16	
3. Politeness Theory	26	
4. Speech Acts	37	
5. Speech act of Requesting	43	
6. The Speech Act of Refusal.....	58	
7. Interlanguage pragmatic transfer... ..	68	
8. Data Collection Methods in Interlanguage pragmatics... ..	71	
9. Conclusion	88	
Chapter two: Research Methodology		
1. Research questions & Research Hypothesis.....	91	
2. Research Design	93	
3. Setting &Participants	93	
4. Data Collection Instruments... ..	95	
5. Validity & Reliability	103	
6. Pilot study & Data analysis	104	
Chapter three: Interpretation and Data Analysis		
Part 1: Moroccan EFL learners' Pragmalinguistic Realizations of the Speech Acts of Requests & Refusals		107
I. Pragmalinguistic Realizations of Requests.....	108	
II. Pragmalinguistic Realizations of Refusals.....	114	
Part 2: Moroccan EFL learners' Sociopragmatic Realizations of the Speech Acts of Requests & Refusals		118
I. Sociopragmatic Realizations of Requests.....	118	
II. Sociopragmatic Realizations of Refusals... ..	130	
Part 3: Pragmatic Transfer		138
I. <i>Pragmatic Transfer in the Speech Act of Request</i>	139	
I.2.1. The Effect of Social Variables on Native Speakers' Realizations of Requests	145	
I.2.2. A Comparison of the Effect of Social Variables on both Moroccan EFL learners' and Native Speakers' Realizations of the Speech Act of Requests	155	
II. Pragmatic Transfer in the Speech Act of Refusal		159
II.1. A Pragmalinguistic Comparison between Moroccan EFL Learners' and Native Speakers' Realizations of Refusals	159	
II.2.A Sociopragmatic Comparison between Moroccan EFL Learners' and Native Speakers' Realizations of Refusals	163	
IV. The Effect of Students' Level on Moroccan EFL learners' performance of speech acts (Requests & Refusals)	173	
Chapter Four: Discussion		
I. Moroccan EFL Learners' Pragmalinguistic Realizations of the Speech Acts of Requests and Refusal		177

I.1. Moroccan EFL Learners' Pragmalinguistic Realizations of the Speech Acts of Requests	177
I.1.1 Request categories and strategies	178
I.1.2 Modifications.....	179
I.2. Moroccan EFL Learners' Pragmalinguistic Realizations of the Speech Acts of Refusals	181
II. Moroccan EFL Learners' Sociopragmatic Realizations of the Speech Acts of Requests and Refusals	184
II.1. Sociopragmatic Realizations of the Speech Acts of Requests	184
II.2 Sociopragmatic Realizations of the Speech Acts of Refusals	188
III. Pragmatic Transfer.....	192
III.1. Pragmalinguistic Comparison between Moroccan EFL Learners and Native Speakers' Realization Patterns of the Speech Acts of Requests and Refusals	193
Requests	193
Refusals	197
Sociopragmatic Comparison between Moroccan EFL Learners and Native Speakers' Realization Patterns of the Speech Acts of Requests and Refusals	200
Requests	202
Refusals	203
IV. The Effect of Students' Level on Moroccan EFL learners' performance of speech acts (Requests & Refusals)	203
General conclusion	207
Bibliography	225
Appendices	
Appendix 1: Discourse Completion Task	
Appendix 2: Multiple Choice Questionnaire	
Appendix 3: Awareness Test	

List of Abbreviations

AT: Awareness Test

CP: Cooperative principle

DCTs: Discourse Completion Tests

EFL : English as a Foreign Language

FTA: face threatening act

MCQ: Multiple Choice Questionnaire

List of Tables

Table (1) The five general functions of speech acts based on Searle (1979) (from Yule, 1996 p. 55).....	42
Table (2) Speech act of requesting: (Searle, 1969; from: Bowe & Martin, 2007).....	46
Table (3) The realization of request strategies (Trosborg, 1995: 205).....	49
Table (4) Defining Internal Modifications.....	52
Table (5) Examples of Internal modifiers.....	53
Table (6) External modifications.....	55
Table (7) Indirect Refusals classifications (Beebe et al. (1990)).....	62
Table: (8) refusal sequences.....	65
Table 9: Background information of Moroccan EFL learners who took part of DCTs.....	95
Table10: Awareness test situations (requests/refusals).....	98
Table11: Multiple Choice Questionnaire situations (requests/refusals).....	100
Table 12: Scenarios for the speech act of requesting.....	101
Table 13: Scenarios for the speech act of refusals.....	102
Table (14) Moroccan EFL learners' choice of request categories.....	109
Table (15) Moroccan EFL learners' use of request strategies.....	110
Table (16) Moroccan EFL learners' choice of request modifications.....	111
Table (17) Moroccan EFL learners' use of internal modifications.....	112
Table (18) Moroccan EFL learners' use of external modifications.....	113
Table (19) Moroccan EFL learners' choice of Refusal Categories.....	115
Table (20) Moroccan EFL learners' use of Direct Refusals.....	116
Table (21) Moroccan EFL learners' use of Indirect Refusals.....	116
Table (22) Moroccan EFL learners' use of Attempt to dissuade interlocutor.....	117
Table (23) Moroccan EFL learners' use of Adjunct to Refusal.....	117
Table (24) Chi-Square Test for request strategies across social variables.....	119
Table (25) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and request categories.....	119
Table (26) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and request strategies.....	122
Table (27) Chi-Square Test for request modifications across different variables.....	124
Table (28) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and request Modifications.....	125
Table (29) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and internal modifications.....	125
Table (30) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and external modifications.....	128
Table (31) Chi-Square Test for direct refusal strategies across social variables.....	130
Table (32) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and direct refusals.....	132
Table (33) Chi-Square Test for indirect refusal strategies across social variables.....	132
Table (34) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and indirect refusals.....	133
Table (35) Chi-Square Test for adjunct to refusals across social variables.....	136
Table (36) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and adjunct to refusals.....	136
Table (37) Chi-Square Test for request categories across informants' first language.....	141
Table (38) Chi-Square Test for internal modifiers across informants' first language.....	143
Table (39) Chi-Square Test for external modifier across informants' first language.....	145
Table (40) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and native speakers' use of request categories.....	148
Table (41) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and native speakers' use of request strategies.....	150
Table (42) Cross-tabulation of the relation between (42) social variables and natives' use of internal modifications.....	152
Table (43) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and native speakers' use of external modifications.....	154
Table (44) Chi-Square Tests for MEFL and NS' choice of the category of request strategies across social variables.....	156

Table (45) Chi-Square Tests for MEFL and NS' use of internal modification across social variables	157
Table (46) Chi-Square Tests for MEFL and NS' use of external modification across social variables	158
Table (47) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and native speakers' choice of refusal categories... ..	165
Table (48) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and native speakers' use of indirect refusals... ..	166
Table (49) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and native speakers' use of direct refusals	168
Table (50) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and native speakers' use of adjunct to refusals... ..	169
Table (51) Chi-Square Tests for MEFL and NS' choice of the category of refusal strategies across social variables.....	171
Table (52) Chi-Square Tests for MEFL and NS' the use of indirect refusal strategies across social variables	171
Table (53) Chi-Square Tests for MEFL and NS' the use of adjunct to refusals strategies across social variables... ..	172
Table (54) Cross-tabulation of the relation between MEFL' results of Awareness test and academic level... ..	173
Table (55) Chi-Square Test for students' performance (AT) across students' level... ..	174
Table (56) Cross-tabulation of the relation between MEFL' results of multiple choice questionnaire and academic level... ..	174
Table (57) Chi-Square Test for students' performance (MCQ) across students' level.....	175

List of Figures

Figure (1): leech's (1983) distinction between pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics.....	26
Figure (2): The cooperative principle; Grice (1975).....	31
Figure (3): Leech's politeness principle. From: Leech (1983) p. 132	32
Figure (4): The distribution of participants according to their university	94
Figure (5): Percentage distribution of requesting categories across groups.....	140
Figure (6): Percentage distribution of requesting strategies across groups	141
Figure (7): Percentage distribution internal modifications across groups.....	143
Figure (8): Percentage distribution of external modifications across groups...	144
Figure (9): Percentage distribution of refusal categories across groups	160
Figure (10): Percentage distribution of direct refusals across groups.....	161
Figure (11): Percentage distribution of indirect refusals across groups.....	162
Figure (12): Percentage distribution of adjuncts to refusals across groups.....	163

Appendices

Appendix 1 : Discourse Completion Task

Appendix 2 : Multiple Choice Questionnaire

Appendix 3: Awareness Test

GENERAL

INTRODUCTION

This chapter research sheds light on the theoretical background that concerns the study at hand, and situates the study within its general framework. Then, it states the statement of the problem of the issue that concerns the study. After that, it highlights the major research objectives along with the rationale which stresses the major motivations for conducting this research paper. Next, research questions and research hypotheses followed by a concise part that deals with the significance of the study are highlighted. In addition, it highlights research methodology where the major methodological instruments used in the study are briefly introduced. Finally, the part closes with a general overview of the organization of the study.

1. Theoretical Background

Over the past few decades, it has been recognized that mastering a language is no longer accredited basically to the structural forms and grammatical rules, but also to the pragmatic aspects to attain an effective communication. Many researchers in the field of pragmatics addressed the critical issue of teaching pragmatics in formal contexts (e.g Bardovi-Harling, 2005; Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993, Bachman, 1990). Based on the fact that mastering foreign and/or second languages has been the goal of language teaching for many decades, pragmatics is by no means considered as an essential element to achieve this goal. Accordingly, it is intrinsically, not ornamentally, crucial to examine learners' pragmatic competence, especially its status among EFL advanced learners.

However, though there has been a shift in interest from considering a language as merely a linguistic competence to a matter of communicative competence, literature in the field of pragmatic competence needs much more research in order to promote the process of learning and teaching foreign languages. Researchers of interlanguage pragmatics claim that the best way to attain convincing and applicable conclusions concerning language learners is to first have to analyze and consider non-native language learners' production, understanding and acquisition of second language. Researchers' comparison and contrast of the two languages (i.e. the native/non-native) opened the door to investigate and discuss novel matters and explore serious issues that lead to miscommunication.

One of these issues is pragmatic transfer. It is irrefutable that the learning of any language reflects a form of social practice (Kasper and Rose, 2002). Thus, it is necessary for researchers to take into account the norms, values, beliefs and the culture of the learner of a second or foreign language. Accordingly, practitioners of this area endeavored to observe how second/foreign language learners are being affected by their native language in their use of a language that is not theirs. According to many researchers (e.g. Beardmore, 1982; Beebe & Seliger, as cited in Nemati & Taghizadeh, 2006, Derakhshan & Karimmi, 2015), there are numerous cases where non-native speakers find it hard to attain the communicative goals because of the influence of their first language. Negative transfer is more likely to occur if the target language's own system is different from the mother tongue. When it comes to speech acts, it has been proven that

they are universal. Their existence is confirmed in all languages. However, the way they are used differs from one culture to another. Consequently, negative transfer could happen when using speech acts.

Pragmatics has been seen from different angles. While some have considered it as the study of language use, others perceive it as the study of how communicative interactions occur; others identify it as an opportunity to investigate language through language's communicative function (Allott, 2010). Undoubtedly, numerous of studies have increasingly been conducted in the last years to investigate EFL learners' pragmatic competence. The latter is notoriously divided into two main components: sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics (Leech, 1983).

As a result, it is of paramount importance, on the one hand, to investigate how non-native speakers' pragmalinguistic competence is performed. This competence is governed by certain strategies in the areas of speech act theory (Austin, 1962), cooperative principle (Grice, 1975), and Politeness theory (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Hence, EFL learners' performance of the speech acts needs a systematic study to cover all its aspects.

Sociopragmatic competence, on the other hand, is equally important as it provides learners with the necessary knowledge concerning the socio-cultural conventions (i.e shared by members of a cultural group) so as to be able to rely on appropriate knowledge in the right context. Thus, the awareness of these two components (pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics) enable EFL learners to both

master and use the target language appropriately, and avoid any kind of communication breakdowns.

According to Zagarac & Pennington, as cited in Spencer, (2008, p.141), in some cultures, for instance, offering coffee to the guest after a meal is considered as an indication to put an end to the visit in a civilized and polite manner. In other cultures, the very same behavior may be perceived as the host's willingness towards the visitor to stay for more time.

The realization of these components will be used to investigate the speech acts of refusals / requests. These are one of the most widely used functions in daily life conversations. It is considered as a face-threatening act which threatens both the requestee's positive face and the requester's negative face (Brown & Levinson 1987). The critical importance of these speech acts cries for a serious consideration to make this act more appropriate and more polite especially for EFL learners.

Research objectives & Rationale

The study of how nonnative speakers distinguish, understand, generate and produce suitable utterances (Interlanguage pragmatics) has been one of the most important objectives of researchers in the field of language learning and teaching foreign languages in the last three decades or so. In this respect, the present study aims at meeting four major aims.

First, it investigates Moroccan EFL learners use of the appropriate strategies in terms of the pragmalinguistic realizations (linguistic forms) in

performing the speech acts of requests and refusals. In other words, this includes the pragmalinguistic variations in the expression and realization of the speech act of requests/refusals.

Second, it examines the extent to which Moroccan EFL learners are familiar with the appropriate sociopragmatic strategies used in the target language. To put it differently, the study's aim is to deal with learners' perception of some socio-cultural conventions (such as social distance, social power/status...) about the target language. The study of these two components (i.e. sociopragmatics/pragmalinguistics) will pave the ground, effectively, to recognize patterns of universality and variability in performing the above mentioned function.

Third, the study seeks to compare Moroccan EFL learners' performance in using the appropriate strategies in performing the speech acts of requesting and refusal and native speakers' realization patterns of those speech acts. Since pragmatic knowledge is acquired successfully and unconsciously in learners' L1 (mother tongue), they may rely on some of its elements to make requests/refusals in the target language, which may in turn lead to communication breakdown (i.e. negative pragmatic transfer). Accordingly, the study tries to identify and explain any patterns of this obstacle. **Finally**, the study explores the extent to which the students' academic level affects the learners' performance of the above-mentioned speech acts.

The idea of conducting the present research has a lot of motivations. First, pragmatic deficiency has always been seen as a hindrance to communicate appropriately and efficiently. It is necessary for speakers to be pragmatically competent in order to have smooth and proper interactions. Pragmatics enables users to take into account the context and the different social traits instead of focusing on language only. It allows people to comprehend and evaluate speaker's intentions and increases their ability of interpreting their emotions, reactions, and attitudes. To put it differently, pragmatic competence is the key to appropriately respond and interact with others (Demeter, 2010; Sankulie, 2012).

Second, the fields of sociopragmatics and paragrammalinguistics are not well developed in Moroccan higher education. Very few studies have been devoted to study these two main elements of pragmatic competence (e.g. Latif, 2014).

Third, the scope of speech act has been considered as one of the main issues within the field of second language acquisition, yet it has been pushed to corners and, consequently, did not receive the attention it deserves (Linde, 2009; Kahtani, 2005). Blum- Kulka et al. (1989) portray speech acts as one of the main remarkable and interesting concepts in the study of language use. Their multifaceted and complex nature puts SLA learners in awkward situations.

Research questions & Research Hypotheses

Based on the objectives, which have been discussed in the previous section, four major questions are formulated:

1. What pragmalinguistic strategies do Moroccan EFL learners use in performing the speech acts of requesting and refusal?
2. To what extent are Moroccan EFL learners affected with the different sociopragmatic factors in performing the speech acts of requests and refusals?
3. Does negative pragmatic transfer impede Moroccan EFL learners' performance to use the appropriate strategies in performing the speech acts of requesting and refusal?
4. Does learners' level impact their performance of the speech acts of requests and refusals?

Based on the abovementioned questions, four hypotheses are generated:

The first hypothesis is generated due to the perception that pragmalinguistics is an essential constituent of pragmatic competence. Once the non-native speakers' use of conventions of resources and linguistic structures influences the illocutionary force and politeness value of their utterances, negative pragmalinguistics transfer transpires (Beebe et al., 1990; Bodman & Eisentsein, 1988; House & Kasper, 1987). As a result, the first hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 1:

Moroccan EFL learners don't vary their strategies in performing the speech acts of requesting and refusal.

The second hypothesis is formulated to consider the extent to which Moroccan EFL learners are familiar with the other side of pragmatic competence namely, sociopragmatic aspects, which is necessary to interact in a second/foreign language. A number of external factors that affect the pragmatic meaning are taken into account (e.g. learner's social distance, imposition, power...). Many researchers assume that language learners may fall into misunderstanding because of the lack of this competence.

Hypothesis 2:

Moroccan EFL learners' performance of the speech acts of requests and refusals is not affected by the different social variables.

Being aware of the focal significance of the effect that first language (mother tongue) has on the learning of a new language, Second Language Acquisition researchers have lately contributed to the growing of this area by conducting numerous research papers which main focus revolves around how native language can influence the learning of another one (Kasper and Blum-Kulka, 1993; Kasper, 1992; Ishihara and Cohen, 2010). Pragmatic transfer may mark one of reasons that hamper non-native learners from transmitting or expressing properly a message in the second/ foreign language. To overcome such awkward situations, language learners need to develop their pragmatic competence.

Hypothesis 3:

Pragmatic transfer impedes Moroccan EFL learners' performance to use the appropriate strategies in performing the speech acts of request and refusal.

It is also, of paramount importance to seek for any potential effect of Moroccan EFL learners' level on their awareness of the different pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic strategies that are used in performing the speech acts of requests and refusals.

Hypothesis 4

Students' level has a huge impact on the students' performance on the speech acts of requests and refusals.

The study is significant for three main reasons; First, it provides a clear explanation for the nature of problems that face EFL learners to produce appropriate utterances in performing the speech acts of request and refusal. Since pragmalinguistics is an essential component of pragmatics, recognizing what strategies used by EFL learners will enable us understand clearly their problems. Accordingly, any pedagogical intervention will be based on scientific and systematic investigations.

Second, this study describes and investigates the extent to which Moroccan EFL learners are cognizant of sociopragmatic elements of the target language. In other words, it deals with their weaknesses and strengths about the target culture

(sociopragmatic assessment). This aspect is overlooked in interlanguage pragmatics especially concerning the Moroccan context. In this context, very few research papers in the past few years have tried to investigate how Moroccan EFL learners comprehend, produce, and develop their performance of the speech act of requesting.

Third, this study paves the ground to reconsider the gaps of the syllabi used in learning and teaching foreign languages. Accordingly, it will help teachers anticipate some problems facing their students and develop their effective communication especially the way they make requests because this function has a critical status in developing communicative competence in English language. In addition, the findings of the present study have the potential to benefit curriculum designers. These findings will be inspiring for them to develop new strategies and techniques to facilitate the learning task.

Research methodology

The study aims at identifying the strategies used by Moroccan EFL learners to perform the speech acts of request /refusal such as the internal and external modifications of pragmalinguistics, and the degree of directness and indirectness in the performance of request/refusal in the target language. As a result, this study will include Moroccan students from different university levels. Additionally, it will include English native speakers so as to be able to draw some differences and similarities based on their performance.

Concerning the data collection methods, a number of different methods were recommended in the field of interlanguage pragmatics. To achieve the aims of this paper, three research methods are adopted. First, discourse completion tasks (DCTs), which are one of the most dominant tools applied in the speech act research, are used to collect data. The participants, here, are given a number of common situations where they should react to.

Second, multiple choice questionnaire, where participants are required to decide among a number of choices the most appropriate answer according to them, is administered as a second instrument. The reason behind using this option is that this instrument has been considered as an efficient means to spot learners' preferences about some pragmatic differences of the speech acts studied in this research (requests/refusals).

Finally, an awareness test or a rating scale questionnaire is also used as the third instrument in this research to obtain metapragmatic data from learners.

In spite of some limitations of each instrument mentioned above, many researchers in interlanguage pragmatics research declared that using multiple instruments awards an added significance to the credibility of the study. The participants who participated in this research are university undergraduate students belong to different levels.

Organization of the Study

The current study is divided into six main parts. The first part is a general introduction that offers a general overview about the study. It includes statement

of the problem, where the main problematic is highlighted. It also provides objectives of the research and states the main motivations behind conducting such research (Rationale). Then, it draws attention to research questions, research hypotheses, significance of the study and research methodology.

The first chapter locates the study in its theoretical framework. It intends to offer general overview of the theoretical background that marks the edges of pragmatics. It introduces key terms related to the field of pragmatics (e.g. pragmalinguistics/ sociopragmatic competences, models of politeness, speech acts...). The chapter also introduces a number of related previous studies.

The second chapter revolves around the research methodology. It underlines major elements related to research methodology. The chapter states the four research questions. It describes the research design, the setting and the participants in this research. It also provides information about data collection instruments, used in the study. This section is divided into two parts. The first one introduces Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs), the second one offers information about awareness test. Next, validity and reliability are highlighted to go through the quality of the research at hand. A short section that briefly presents the procedure that pilot study went through. The very last section in this chapter is dedicated to data analysis.

The third chapter deals with data presentation, interpretation, and analysis. It was divided into four main sections. Each of the sections provides an overview of the findings related to one of the objectives of this study. The first one examines

results related to Moroccan EFL learners' pragmatolinguistic realization patterns of the speech acts of requests and refusals. It focuses on the strategies that were favored among Moroccans and the ones ignored. The next section investigates the impact of social variables on Moroccan EFL learners' performance of the speech acts of requests and refusals.

The following part draws attention to pragmatic transfer. The main concern of this part is to compare between native speakers and Moroccan EFL learners' use of the two speech acts studied in this thesis. The last part examines the effect of students' academic level on Moroccan EFL learners' awareness of the different strategies used in performing the two speech acts of this study.

The next chapter discusses, scrutinizes and examines the chief results. It seeks at raising a discussion of the findings of the present study, in the light of previous studies. It is also divided into four major sections; each of them underlines one of the objectives of the study.

The last part represents the general conclusion of the study. Its major aim was to draw attention into a number of major points. It starts with restating the main purposes, methodology and findings of this study. Then, it sheds light on the major research implications that might interest university professors, as well as learners and textbook designers. Next, it underlines some of the limitations related to the study at hand. Lastly, it offers some recommendations, and suggestions that could be taken into account for future research.

Chapter One

Review of the literature

1. Introduction

This chapter provides a general framework of the study, stressing the area of pragmatics generally and speech acts specifically. The chapter begins with an overview of pragmatics and its characteristics. Then, it highlights the scope of pragmatic competence and its sub-sections namely, *Pragmalinguistic* and *Sociopragmatic* competences.

Next, it deals with politeness theory. It opens with a general introduction to this theory. After that, it presents an overview of the various models of politeness. The first model is the cooperative principle (CP) which was developed by Grice (1975). Subsequently, the chapter moves to shed light on Leech's politeness principle and its six maxims, which was developed to complement Grice's cooperative principle. Lastly, the chapter brings to the fore Brown and Levinson's (1978) Model. The latter includes subsections addressing the major politeness strategies (bald on record, off record, positive politeness and negative politeness).

Afterwards, the chapter raises the issue of speech acts. It begins with a general definition of speech acts. Then, it describes Austin's taxonomy of Illocutionary acts and Classification of Speech Acts. After that, it sheds light on Searle's taxonomy, and finally it provides a brief description of the Cross-cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP).

The chapter also revolves around the speech act of request. It starts with a definition of request, and presents different requesting strategies and modifications which are categorized into two sections: Internal Modifications and

External Modifications. Lastly, it ends with introducing previous studies related to requesting speech act.

Lately, the chapter describes the speech act of refusal. It starts with defining refusals which are one of the most complex and problematic speech acts. Next, it summarizes the major refusal strategies. This section is divided into two main subsections. The first one entitled as refusal classification. It includes the three different categories of refusals. The second one deals with the factors affecting refusal strategies. In addition, an overview of refusal sequential organizations is provided. Finally, the section ends with some previous studies related to the speech act of refusal in the Moroccan context.

2. Scope of Pragmatics

Pragmatics, as an independent discipline within the arena of semiotics, has emerged in the beginnings of the 20th century. The term pragmatics can be traced back to Morris (1938), an American philosopher and semiotician, who, within his science of signs, distinguishes three distinct branches among this field which deals with the study of signs. Starting from this trichotomy, Morris has contributed to the emergence of the classic division between three interrelated fields namely: semantics, syntax and pragmatics and, concurrently, played a vital role in expanding the scope of pragmatics. He points out that:

One may study the relations of signs to the objects to which the signs are applicable. This relation will be called the semantical dimension of semiosis, symbolized by the sign ‘DSEM’; the study

of this dimension will be called semantics. Or the subject of study may be the relation of signs to interpreters. This relation will be called the pragmatical dimension of semiosis, symbolized by the sign 'DP'; the study of this dimension will be named pragmatics. One important relation of signs has not yet been introduced: the formal relations of signs to one another. [...] This third dimension will be called the syntactical dimension of semiosis, symbolized by the sign 'DSYN', and the study of this dimension will be named syntactics (Morris 1938: 21–22).

According to Morris' (1938) definition the relation between two major elements: (sign and interpreter/user) is emphasized, two different views of pragmatics were brought to life (Goebel et al., 1996). Consequently, pragmatics can be classified into two major views: narrow and broad. On the one hand, the narrow view represents pragmatics as “the systematic investigation of how and what people mean when they use language as a vehicle of action in a particular context and with a particular goal in mind” (Goebel et al. 1996, cited in Bublitz and Norrick, 2001, p. 3).

Accordingly, matters that concern this view of pragmatics revolves around utterances that represent specific references. It includes issues such as deixis, presupposition, implicature, speech act (Levinson, 1983), conversation, politeness and relevance Verschueren (2009). These issues, according to Bublitz & Norrick (2011), can be easily compared to topics associated to language like grammar and

semantics. On the other hand, the broad view of pragmatics (European Continental School) goes beyond the linguistic level to cover other dimensions and, thus, travels beyond the contextual dimension. In this sense, pragmatics expands to cover the study of language in use from its cultural, psychological, sociological perspectives (Verschuere 1999, Culpeper & Haugh, 2014).

In other words, the field of pragmatics has been governed by two different traditions. The first trend, the Anglo-American trend or the narrow view, limits the scope of pragmatics to a very tiny corner to refer to the intentional meaning a speaker makes when conveying a message to an addressee. The second trend, namely the European perspective or the broader view of pragmatics, revolves around the social context of communication which is, according to Jucker (2008), the most important component that distinguishes this trend (Jucker, 2008, cited in Marmaridou, 2011).

Definition and Characteristics of Pragmatics

Despite its scientific approval, the concept of pragmatics remains somehow unfathomable and, thus, it is not easy to afford a thorough definition of pragmatics. Ariel (2012) argues that the main reason behind such obscurity might lie in the unsuccessful attempts to create a borderline between grammar and pragmatics. She asserts that the numerous criteria that are allocated to identifying and distinguishing grammar and pragmatics were the source of perpetuating the manifold contradictions between the various criteria and, therefore, interrupting the mission of building coherent and clear cut definitions of each.

According to Leech (1983), it is hard, if not impossible to deeply understand the nature of language without understanding pragmatics and its underpinnings. Therefore, it is of paramount importance to go through some various definitions of pragmatics.

Pragmatics goes beyond the level of utterances and words. It centralizes its focus on interpretations and closely considers the buried meaning rather than focusing on the visible utterances (Yule, 1996; Mey, 2001; Marmaridou, 2000; Bublitz; 2009; Van Dijk; 2008). It also takes into account the speaker's intention. To put it differently, what distinguishes pragmatics from the other fields is the sufficient attention that is devoted to the user of language. Morris (1971), in his trichotomy, acclaims that pragmatics is "the study of the relation of signs to interpreters" (Morris, 1971, cited in: Fetzer, 2011, P.24).

Within its framework, pragmatics focuses mainly on the whole communicative action. Also, it neither represents language as a mere system of signs nor as a set of rules. Language, accordingly, is not limited to separate words, sentences or texts; however, it is a combination of multifaceted speech actions and interactions within an authentic context (Bublitz & Norrick 2011).

Kasper & Blum-Kulka (1993) assume that the ultimate mission of pragmatics is to investigate and examine human's grasping and comprehension along with the production of linguistic manifestations within a given context. Pragmatics, in this sense, is context-related (dependent) and, therefore context forces itself to become one of the main key elements in the field of pragmatics.

Context here represents the setting and the environment where language is used (Muzigirwa, 2010). The strong presence of context necessitates providing a restricted attention to the various types of context to a deeper understanding of pragmatics. In the same context, Parret (1983) claims that by thoughtfully approaching the different types of context, which he considers to be closely related to the description and explanation of discourse and other semiotic sequences, it will doors would open doors to easily understand and classify the types of pragmatics.

Being aware of its focal importance, Auer (2009) discusses the five dimensions of context. The first type is referred to as “linguistic contexts” and occasionally referred to as co-texts (de Beaugrande & Dressel 1981; Widdowson 2004). It goes beyond the narrow scope which focuses on small units, no larger than propositions to cover a broader sense, which describes everything that surrounds a discourse and contributes to the understanding of its meaning. This is based on the fact that language is made of “linguistic constructions (or parts) embedded in adjacent linguistic constructions (further parts), composing a whole clause, sentence, utterance, turn or text” (Feter, 2011, p 35). Several utterances in this sense are observed as interrelated sequences to achieve a textual cohesion which describes a specific or “focal event”. There is also the case in which texts reported or recorded on totally different circumstances but still relating to each other. This intertextual relationship is given greater attention in Bakhtin’ (1986) work which considers texts that respond to previous ones.

The second dimension of context as mentioned by Auer (2009) is what he calls the “non-linguistic sense-data in the surroundings of the linguistic activity (the situation in a physical sense)” (p.91). This second type is one of the most important types of context. According to Wisniewski (2007), it includes a number of criteria that contribute to the comprehension and understanding of a given word such as the position and location of the word, the situation in which the word is used, and the time of its use (cited in: Muzigirwa, 2010). It includes the entire elements or things that could be reached or sensed through the five senses.

“The social situation” is the third dimension of context that was elaborated by Auer (2009). This type involves the communicative exchange between interlocutors as well as their social roles and social activities they are involved in. The fourth and most complicated dimension of context deals with the participants' common knowledge background. The focus in this dimension is on the prior knowledge a speaker might count on while producing, interpreting or participating in social activities. Finally, the channel, or the medium through which interaction between interlocutors occurs, is the last dimension of context.

Levinson (1983) questions a number of definitions that were intended to delineate the field of pragmatics. The first definition, which he finds deficient, considers pragmatics as “the study of those principles that will account for why a certain set of sentences are anomalous, or not possible utterances” (p.6). However, he argues that such anomalies could only be imaginary and they are not possible to be encountered or used in any context. The second definition, which he finds

misleading because it might confuse linguistic pragmatics with fields involved in the functional approaches to language such as psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics, regards pragmatics as “the study of language from a functional perspective” (p.7).

This perspective was described by Verschueren (2009) as an approach to language which takes into account the intricate aspects of its cognitive, social, and cultural functioning in the daily life conversations. Afterwards, Levinson (1983) provides a very general and traditional definition of pragmatics that he points to as the most suitable one. He distinguishes three interrelated fields, namely syntax, semantics and pragmatics. Levinson (1983) claims that while syntax could be referred to as the grammatical combination between words and their parts; semantics revolves around the study of meaning. Accordingly, he affirms that pragmatics is “**the study of language usage**” (p.5). Or, to grasp Chomsky's conception of competence and performance, pragmatics in this context sheds light directly on the performance dimension of language use.

Verschueren (2009) describes pragmatics as the study of language and communicative interactions from its cognitive, cultural and social perspectives. The use of language necessitates going through cognitive processes occurring in a social world with a variety of cultural constraints. Pragmatics, therefore; is not involved with language itself but with language use, that is the communicative meaning of language.

Pragmatic Competence

Pragmatic competence, according to Taguchi (2009), is “the ability to use language appropriately in a social context” (p. 1). According to Thomas (1983), linguistic competence comprises of grammatical competence which includes components such as phonology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatic competence. The latter refers to the capacity to effectively use language to reach a specific purpose and to be aware of language use in a specific context (Thomas 1983 Cited in Marmaridou 2011).

Pragmatic competence is split into pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. While pragmalinguistics is the ability to identify the most suitable forms (especially the linguistic features/forms) and strategies to produce speech acts or pragmatic functions, sociopragmatics is the ability to use those strategies taking into account a given cultural context and the sociocultural conventions of a given social group.

Pragmatic competence necessitates developing the two above mentioned types of knowledge and to appropriately use them in daily communication. Additionally, a good mastery of grammar does not necessarily mean achieving pragmatic competence. Put it differently, although it is essential for a language user to be grammatically competent, knowledge about language use is necessary alike.

A longitudinal study was conducted by Taguchi in 2008 investigated learners’ development of two different aspects of pragmatic competence namely,

“pragmatic comprehension” and “pragmatic production”. While the former refers to the capacity of going beyond the literal meaning, the latter refers to the appropriate use of language functions (or speech acts). The study examined Japanese students of English language belonging to English –medium University in Japan. Results of the study disclosed that the development across pragmatic functions takes various orientations and paces. These variations hinge on factors like individual and contextual differences (Taguchi, 2008).

Within the field of pragmatic competence emerges two intrinsic components: pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. The following section highlights these two methodological approaches to pragmatic analysis, which are primarily discussed by Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983).

Pragmalinguistic vs. Sociopragmatic Competence

Raising the issue of pragmatics requires considering sundry requisite concepts for a better understanding of this vague scope. For this reason, this section briefly covers two main divergent but interrelated concepts, namely pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics.

Leech (1983) was the first scholar to clarify the distinction between pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics and their availability to be used as methodological approaches in pragmatics. According to him, pragmalinguistics is “the study of the more linguistic end of pragmatics – where we consider the particular resources which a given language provides for conveying particular illocutions” (p.11). In this sense pragmalinguistics deals with the linguistic

manifestations of language used or what leech (1983) refers to as “parole”. Leech (1983) concludes that while pragmalinguistics is language- specific and primarily related to grammar, sociopragmatics is culture-specific. According to him, the latter can be considered as the sociological interface of pragmatics (See. Figure: 1). By the same token, Marmaridou (2011) provides the following definition in which she distinguishes pragmalinguistics from sociopragmatics:

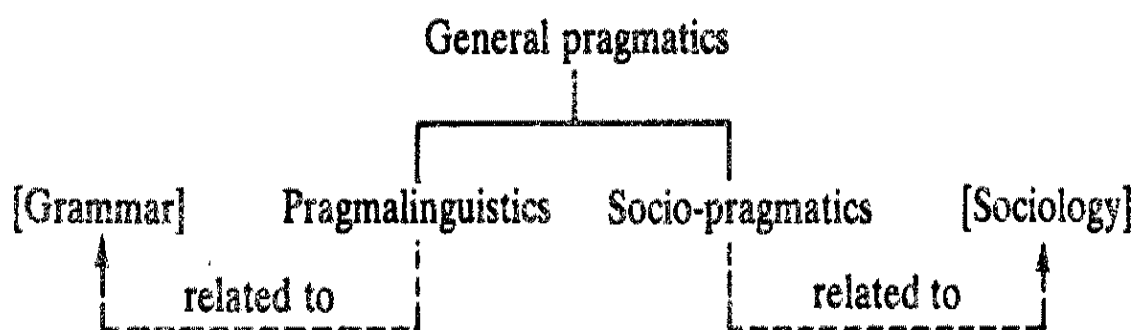
Pragmalinguistics typically concerns the study of the particular resources that a given language provides for conveying pragmatic meaning (illocutionary and interpersonal), whereas sociopragmatics relates pragmatic meaning to an assessment of participants’ social distance, the language community’s social rules and appropriateness norms, discourse practices, and accepted behaviours (p.77).

Marmaridou (2011) argues that the two components represent two end points of a continuum which makes it difficult to create a borderline between the two. To achieve a successful communication, it is essential to equip learners with the socio-cultural norms of expressing what they need to express, along with the linguistic and lexical choices that are available to convey effective and appropriate communicative goals.

For a better understanding of these two aspects of pragmatics, Taguchi (2012) provides the example of someone whose intention is to refuse somebody’s invitation. The speaker, in this respect, on the one hand, has to be able to identify

what exact and specific syntactic forms and lexis to employ. This is what is defined as pragmalinguistic competence. On the other hand, the speaker has to tell if refusing in such situation is appropriate in that social context (culture) or not, and if it is acceptable, they should be able to identify and choose what language to use to express refusal appropriately under those specific circumstances. This latter is an example of sociopragmatic competence.

Figure1: leech's (1983) distinction between pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics



3. Politeness Theory

Politeness is universal and it exists in every culture. However, it differs from one culture to another in that each culture considers politeness in a different way. It could be considered as the way in which individuals are socially behaving or interacting in a polite manner within a specific culture. Leech (2014) defines politeness as “a form of communicative behavior found very generally in human languages and among human cultures” (p.1). It represents both the verbal and the non-verbal communication including gestures, nodding and signs. Politeness is not innate but rather it is obtained through socially interacting with people.

Raising the issue of politeness necessitates going through the concept of “face” which is considered to be the basis of politeness. Face in this context refers to the individual’s public self-image in a social context. It is, according to Yule (1996), the “emotional and social sense of self that everyone has and expects everyone else to recognize” (p. 59). In any interaction, politeness is when individuals display consciousness of the other’s face. In other words, being polite indicates that the speaker is granting the hearer appreciation and value.

The distinction between positive and negative politeness has been widely discussed in the field of pragmatics. This great attention perhaps is due to the fact that these two types of politeness were the main elements in Brown and Levinson’s model of politeness (1978). These concepts were first introduced by Goffman (1956) where he provides an excessive explanation of the notion of “face”, and later on used by Brown and Levinson (1978).

Goffman (1956) in his widely known book “presentation of self in everyday life” highlights the significance of social face- to –face interactions. To make his points clear, he provides various forms of performance in the form of scenes. In other words, he relies on the imagery of theater and drama in order to analyze the management of the individual’s face in different social interactions.

Leech (2014), however, chooses to use these two technical terms differently. To avoid any sort of perplexity, he suggests to use “pos-politeness” and “neg-politeness. According to him, neg-politeness, which he regards as the most essential type, minimizes or mitigates causes of offense, embarrassments or

abuse. This type of politeness includes indirectness, hedging, and understatement, which he considers are among “the best-known and most- studied indicators of the polite use of language.” (P: 11) On the contrary, pos-politeness provides the receiver/ hearer with a sort of “positive value”.

Models of Politeness

The present section is an attempt to provide an overview of the different models of politeness. It introduces the cooperative principle which was generated by Grice, and then compares it to leech’s politeness principle (1983) which consists of six maxims, namely, the tact maxim, generosity maxim, approbation maxim, modesty maxim, agreement maxim and sympathy maxim. Finally, it highlights the four main politeness strategies (bald on-record, negative politeness, positive politeness, and off-record) as presented by Brown and Levinson (1978).

Cooperative Principle

Any conversation is controlled by certain rules and regulations and certainly not shaped arbitrary. Searle, Kiefer and Bierwisch (1980) claim that there are not only rules and conditions that control the smooth flow of communicative interactions but also rules and principles that determine all types of social interaction. The cooperative principle (CP) and its Maxims, which were developed by Paul Grice in 1975, are part of that. This principle is based on the assumption that within any social interaction, all individuals involved in the conversation are supposed to cooperate with each other to achieve successful

meaning. To attain this noble aim, the CP holds four cooperative maxims (maxims of conversation), which are elaborated in (see: Figure: 2).

The first maxim is referred to as the maxim of quantity. This one is based on the fact that speakers have to say or provide exactly adequate information. The second one is the maxim of quality in which individuals are required to state only what they believe to be true and avoid what they consider to be false. The third maxim is the one of relation. This maxim requires individuals to be relevant and answer correctly. Finally, the last maxim deals with manner. In this respect, participants have to provide their information in a comprehensible and ordinary way in order not to confuse the hearer.

There are four dimensions that the speaker can realize with maxims. The first one is to “observe” a maxim. That is what importantly needed to be abided by. That is to say, “to in fact say the right amount, to say only what you have evidence for, to be relevant, or to be brief, clear, and unambiguous (depending on the maxim in question)” (Birner, 2013, p:43).

The second thing that can be done is to violate a maxim without being disclosed or noticed by the other part. The speaker in this case is aware of his violating one of the maxims but presumes that the hearer will not discover that. In general, the main intention behind such procedure is to deceive and mislead the hearer. Maxims can also be violated deliberately, or intentionally not obeyed with the intention of making the hearer perceive or notice the violation. This kind of violation is called “flouting”. Lastly, participants may choose the strategy of

opting out where they prefer to withdraw or quit the conversation altogether. In this sense, the individual chooses to avoid or refrain from cooperation and, thus, opt out of all the maxims (Birner, 2013).

In addition to the cooperative principle (CP), Grice subjoins another subsystem, namely the Conversational Implicature. Conversational implicature is one of the main key elements in the field of pragmatics. Levinson (1983) affirms that “any definition of pragmatics that excludes one of its presumed focal phenomena, namely conversational implicature, is unlikely to be attractive” (p.10). Conversational implicatures, according to him, are inferences that are derived from general rules, specifically, “maxims of conversational behaviour.” In other words, the notion of implicature refers to the speech that can be deduced or inferred from what has been said. Hence, it goes beyond what has been said. Grice separates implicature into two main categories; conversational and conventional.

Conversational implicature can be classified into three parts. The first type is *Generalized conversational implicature*. These are defined as implicatures that “arise without any particular context or special scenario being necessary” (Levinson (1983); p.126). The second type is *particularized conversation implicature*. Unlike generalized conversational implicature which doesn't rely on the context, particular conversation implicature is context bound, and cannot be understood outside its context. The third type of implicature is *Scalar implicature*. This type of implicature requires that the information provided is “communicated

by choosing a word which expresses one value from a scale of values” (Yule: 1996, p: 41).

Figure (2): The cooperative principle; Grice (1975)

The cooperative principle: make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of talk exchange in which you are engaged.
<i>The maxims</i>
<p>Quantity</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purposes of the exchange). 2. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.
<p>Quality: Try to make your contribution one that is true.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Do not say what you believe to be false. 2. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.
<p>Relation Be relevant.</p>
<p>Manner Be <u>perspicuous</u>.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Avoid obscurity of expression. 2. Avoid ambiguity. 3. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity). 4. Be orderly.

Leech’s Politeness Principle

Leech developed politeness principle (pp) to complement Grice’s Cooperative Principle. While Grice’s model advocates four maxims, Leech enlarged the maxims from four to six maxims. According to him, politeness principle is necessary given that its absence affects the effectiveness of

cooperative principle negatively in the sense that without it the cooperative principle is not sufficient and might lead to flawed predictions. Therefore, this principle can be considered as another approach to enlighten and elucidate the way politeness functions (operates) in a conversational exchange.

Leech (1983) asserts that in any speech situation we can distinguish between two participants: *self* (s) and *other* (O) instead of the *speaker* and *hearer*; for participants may possibly demonstrate or show politeness to a third party who could either be present or not.

Figure (3): Leech’s politeness principle. From: Leech (1983) p. 132

(I)	Tact MAXIM (in impositives and commissives) (a) Minimize cost to other (b) Maximize benefit to other
(II)	GENEROSITY MAXIM (in impositives and commissives) (a) Minimize benefit to self (b) Maximize cost to self
(III)	APPROBATION MAXIM (in expressives and assertives) (a) Minimize dispraise of other (b) Maximize praise of other
(IV)	MODESTY MAXIM (in expressives and assertives) (a) Minimize praise of self (b) Maximize dispraise of self
(V)	AGREEMENT MAXIM (in assertives) (a) Minimize disagreement between self and other (b) Maximize agreement between self and other
(VI)	SYMPATHY MAXIM (in assertives) (c) Minimize antipathy between self and other (d) Maximize sympathy between self and other

The first maxim (*tact maxim*) tends to minimize cost and maximize benefit to the other. This Maxim is applied to Searle’s two categories of illocutionary acts namely, directives and commissives. Directives, according to Leech (1983) belong to the competitive category. To avoid any sort of perplexity, he labels this category under the name of “Impositives.” While directives are used to “produce some effect through action by the hearer (such as ordering, commanding,

requesting), commissives are intended to commit the speaker to some future action (e.g. Promising, vowing, offering)” (Leech, *ibid.* 106). The tact maxim is a “Cost-Benefit Scale” in the sense that there is an action that has to be performed either by the speaker or the hearer. This action may be estimated in terms of the speaker’s intention to either minimize cost or benefit to himself/herself or the hearer.

Unlike the first maxim which revolves around the other (or as Leech refers to as other-centered), *Generosity Maxim* locates the “self” in the spotlight (or what Leech calls self-centered). This could be better elaborated in the following two examples provided by Leech (1983):

a} You must come and have dinner with us.

b} We must come and have dinner with you. (p.133)

Example {a}, on the one hand, is an invitation which is considered to be polite since it abides by the rules of the generosity maxim in the sense that it implies benefit to the other (hearer) and cost to self (speaker). Example {b}, on the other hand, is inappropriate and impolite because it violates the principles of this maxim.

Approbation is the third maxim generated by Leech. This maxim necessitates minimizing dispraise of the other and maximizing praise to him/her. The speaker, therefore, has to evade uttering repulsive things to the hearer. Thus, compliments and congratulations in this case are highly recommended. Unlike the third maxim which is other-centered, the fourth maxim, *the modesty maxim*, is

self- centered. In this maxim, praise of self has to be minimized and dispraise of self should be maximized as much as possible. The status quo generally happens in the speech act of apologizing.

Agreement maxim is the fifth maxim in the politeness principle. This maxim is intended to minimize disagreement between interlocutors and maximize agreement between them. Disagreement can be reduced by regret, partial agreement which is desirable in such cases. Lastly, the *sympathy maxim* has a tendency to minimize antipathy between the speaker and the hearer, and maximize sympathy between them. This could be demonstrated in congratulations and condolences speech acts (See figure: 3).

Brown and Levinson's Model (1978)

As was mentioned earlier, « facework ¹» is the backbone of face-to-face interaction/conversation. In any social interaction, interlocutors traditionally interact in a way in which high value and respect is paid towards their public self-image. A face threatening act is likely to happen in case one participant discloses something that the other part considers as a threat or menace to his self-image. In case the speaker chooses to lessen a threat that might take place, it turns out to be considered as face saving act.

Brown and Levinson's interest or attention was restrained to concentrate on the linguistic connotations of the interlocutor face threatening speech acts,

¹ To compromise with the needs of the interlocutor by using multiple strategies to save his/her face; it includes both the verbal as well as the non-verbal acts. For more details see: Goffman (1967); Toomey, Cocroft (199).

particularly the ones used to lessen FTA. Though it has gained wide recognition, this model has been criticized by many researchers.

The following sub-sections will briefly sketch the different widely known politeness strategies that form the pillar of Brown and Levinson's model.

Politeness Strategies

The major function of politeness strategies is to address face threatening acts. Politeness strategies endeavor to protect or save the addressee's positive face especially when face threatening acts are unavoidable. Below is a discussion that briefly discusses the four different kinds of politeness strategies that were generated by Brown and Levinson which are: bald on-record, negative politeness, positive politeness, and off-record.

Bald on-record

This strategy allows the addressee to straightforwardly address the hearer. In other words, bald on record grants no attempt to mitigate or lessen a possible threat to the other's face. Imperatives, warnings or emergency situations present occasions in which this strategy might take place. Apart from some occasions where it is regarded as appropriate among social equals, the bald on record is frequently used in circumstances where the speaker has a sort of tremendous authority and power over the other part and thus is able to direct and command the other's actions. In military, the relationship between a general officer with a higher rank and a simple officer could provide a good example of this (Yule,

1996). It is, however, possible for a speaker to add some mitigating devices such as: can you, would you and please, to soften the request.

Off-record

Unlike the bald on record, the off record requires the speaker not to directly address the hearer if he intends to do a FTA. Brown and Levinson (1987) maintain that the communicative act is considered as off record if: “the actor leaves himself an ‘out’ by providing himself with a number of defensible interpretations; he cannot be held to have committed himself to just one particular interpretation of his act” (p. 211). In this case the hearer is granted more freedom in interpreting the meaning of an utterance. The speaker, however, can opt for various strategies (e.g. offering hints, be ironic, use metaphors...) to help the hearer deduce and reach his/her intention. The use of those strategies leads to violating the Gricean maxims.

Positive politeness

The main use of positive politeness is to satisfy the desires of the addressee and minimize FTA, with the use of intimate language. It often occurs in circumstances where speaker’s intention is to become closer to the hearer. It is also common among close friends and relatives. Brown and Levinson (1987) provide a number of strategies that belong to positive politeness. These strategies contain: exaggerating, seeking agreement (raising safe topics to highlight agreement between interlocutors), avoiding disagreement, being optimistic etc.

Negative politeness

Negative politeness is geared towards the receiver's negative face; meanwhile it calls attention to not generate any sort of burden, annoyance, or imposition on the addressee. It respects his "want to have his freedom of action unhindered and his attention unimpeded" (Brown and Levinson 1987; p: 129). Negative politeness, therefore, attempts at minimizing the possibility, for the hearer, of facing a face-threat. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), this strategy takes many forms, say, minimizing imposition, giving deference, apologizing, hedges on illocutionary force and many others.

4. Speech Acts

In view of the fact that this study revolves around two chief speech acts which are refusals and requests, it is necessary to shed lights on the matter. Therefore, this section aims at providing concise definitions and brief history of speech acts. In addition, it attempts to highlight Austin's taxonomies and Searle's classifications of illocutionary acts given that these two researchers are considered as pioneers in this field and both of them have largely contributed to the development of speech acts research.

Defining Speech Acts

It is unfeasible to mention the term "speech acts" without pointing at Austin's (1962) lectures that he succeeded to accumulate into one influential book *How to do things with words*. This work will be afterwards extended by Searle (1969). Austin (1962) distinguishes two major elements: constatives and

performatives. By constatives he refers to words that are intended to mean or describe something. These constatives are either true or false. Performatives, on the other hand, which are the main concern of Austin (1962), are actions performed through the use of words or utterances and are intended not to only provide information but to raise actions. In many occasions, interlocutors perform an action without the need to utter a single word; which refers to non verbal performatives.

To illustrate this, Austin (1962) provides the example of the utterance “I do” in the sentence: I do take this woman to be my lawful wedded wife. He maintains that by making this utterance in the course of a marriage ceremony under specific circumstances we are actually marrying; which is in reality doing something not just uttering words. We cannot consider speech acts as true or false but rather, they are either felicitous or infelicitous. For speech acts to be regarded as felicitous, they have to be: “Produced (and interpreted) in accordance with generalized felicity conditions, viz. normal input and output conditions, the essential and sincerity conditions, and with particularized felicity conditions, viz. proposition content condition” (Fetzer, 2011. p: 40).

In brief, speech act theory tries to provide a comprehensible explanation of how language is used to achieve intended actions, and how the addressee finds out that appropriate intended meaning. Speech acts, are therefore, utterances that intend or lead to perform actions. Put it simply, to speak is to act.

A number of different methods aim at reaching a suitable classification of speech acts taking into account their illocutionary effects (Katz (2015)). Austin (1975) and Searle (1976) taxonomies are considered as two of the most acknowledged taxonomies in the area of speech acts. Thus, the following two subsections provide a brief description of each of the taxonomies.

Austin's Taxonomy of Illocutionary Acts and Classification of Speech Acts

Austin (1962) divides speech acts into three focal taxonomies (locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts). The first taxonomy, **locutionary** act, also recognized as locution, is the actual and surface act of uttering. Within the locutionary act, there are two kinds of acts: the propositional act and the utterance act. The second taxonomy, **Illocutionary act**, refers to the act produced by speaking with the intention of interacting with the recipient.

Lastly, **Perlocutionary act** is to make an utterance with the sake of influencing the performance of the receiver. For instance, in a situation where a mother addressing her son who is getting ready to go beyond utters: "**the weather is getting worse; it looks like it's going to rain!**" the locutionary act is simply the basic utterance itself. It is the literal meaning of the utterances and words put together to form a meaning. Therefore, the locutionary act here is the literal meaning of the words: the + weather + is + getting + worse; + it + looks + like + it's + going + to + rain! The illocutionary act as mentioned earlier goes beyond the utterance, it includes the utterances, the purpose and the function in mind that

forces the hearer to produce that utterance (e.g. to make an offer, an invitation, an order...). It is as, Yule (1996), describes it “performed via the communicative force of an utterance” (p.48). If the example is reanalyzed, it can be interpreted that the mother might have the intention to advise her son to wear heavy cloths, to take his umbrella, or even wishes him to stay at home.

To conclude, Perlocutionary act depends on the effect of the mother’s words on her son (or the son’s reaction to his mother’s words). Did he take his umbrella? Did he cancel his journey and stay at home? Did he wear his coat? Etc. Thus, a number of scenarios might occur.

Based on his taxonomy of Illocutionary acts, Austin (1962) provides a classification system that includes five categories of speech acts classified according to their illocutionary force (1. verdictives 2. Exercitives 3. Commissives 4. Behabitives and 5. Expositive).

Verdictives are characterized by providing a verdict and appraisals. They are considered to be subjective judgments “it is essentially giving a finding as to something-fact, or value - which is for different reasons hard to be certain about” (Austin, 1962, p.150). Exercitives embrace the exercising of powers, rights and influence. They are typified by their powerful nature (e.g. ordering, advising warning...).

Commissives are characterized by obliging the speaker to perform an action, including promises, declarations and announcements of intentions. Austin relates the fourth category, Behabitives, with attitudes and social behavior. It

involves (apologizing, congratulating commending...). He considers this type as “miscellaneous”. Lastly, Austin (1962) finds a difficulty to provide a concrete definition to the last type, Expositives, because of its numerous forms and vagueness. Expositives are characterized by making “plain how our utterances fit into the course of an argument or conversation.” (p.151) Examples of this kind of speech acts are ‘I reply’, ‘I assume...’

Later on, Searle (1969) criticizes and labeled the weaknesses existing in Austin’s taxonomy that Austin himself confessed that they are problematic; he afterwards provided an alternative taxonomy. The following sub-section sheds lights on Searle’s (1969) taxonomy.

Searle’s (1969) Taxonomy

Based on Austin’s taxonomy of Illocutionary acts, Searle (1969) generates new classification of speech acts. Because of its prosperous and clear conceptual framework, Searle’s taxonomy is considered as a noteworthy progression in the study of speech acts (Cummings, 2010).

In terms of their functions, speech acts according to Searle (1969) are classified into five categories. The first type is referred to as **declarations**. These are speech acts which their utterances are intended to change the world (e.g. I hereby pronounce you husband and wife). Whereas **representatives** are utterances that represent the speaker’s beliefs (to be true or not), **expressive** speech acts allow speakers to convey their feelings. The fourth type of speech acts, **directives**, is the type in which speakers state what they want to be done. Commands,

requests, orders etc are tangible examples of this type. The last type of speech acts, namely **commissives**, are speech acts (e.g. refusals, promises) whereby speakers convey what they intend to do or their commitments to future actions (Yule, 1996).

Table (1) The five general functions of speech acts based on Searle (1979) (from Yule, 1996 p. 55)

Speech act type	Direction of fit	S= speaker; X= situation
Declarations	Words change the world	S causes X
Representatives	Make words fit the world	S believes X
Expressives	Make words fit the world	S feels X
Directives	Make the world fit words	S wants X
Commissives	Make the world fit words	S intends X

Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP)

Cross-cultural speech Act Realization Project is deemed one of the most exceptional projects in the area of speech acts. It was created by Blum-Kulka and Ohlstein in 1982. The project attempts at exploring intralingual variation of the speech acts of requests and apologies (Blum-Kulka, et al. 1989). The project assembles how both native as well as non native speakers realize and use the speech acts of requests and apologies. Also, their production was evaluated to discover how each group reacts to specific situations with different contextual variables (such as age, social power...). The instrumentation used to achieve that aim was a discourse completion test. The reason behind their choice and interest

of these two speech acts lies in the fact that those are face threatening acts that might cost the interlocutor lose face.

CCSARP investigates the realization of the two speech acts in various languages, cultures and, different social backgrounds. Put it differently, the project aims at investigating cross-cultural differences in speech act realization. Also, researchers and scholars who were engaged in the realization of this project were involved with various languages (such as German, Hebrew, British, Danish...). According to Culpeper and Archer (2008), CCSARP was designed to be applied across a variety of languages, cultures, and may even be expected to be applied to different historical contexts.

5. The Speech act of Requesting

This section provides a concise overview of one of the main speech acts that have been extensively investigated in the field of interlanguage pragmatics, requesting. This is due to the fact that the speech act of requesting is regarded as the most frequently used in everyday interaction. The section is divided into six major parts. The first one tries to briefly define requests as were introduced and viewed by researchers. The second part deals with the various requesting strategies namely, direct strategies, conventionally indirect strategies and Non-conventionally indirect strategies. The third part focuses on the verbal resources that could be employed to modify requests. Lastly, the section is closed by going through a number of previous studies related to the speech act of requesting.

Defining Requesting

As a speech act, requesting has been widely investigated in interlanguage pragmatics research (Fukushima, 2003; Jan et al., 2015). Achiba (2003) explains that this may be due to two main reasons. First, request is one of the most recurrent speech acts in language. Second, the urgent need for the learner to achieve successful communication in the target language community necessitates a good mastery of this speech act (Cited in: Taguchi 2009). This enormous attention that was given to the speech act of requesting has particularly increased after Blum-Kulka et al. (1989)'s speech act realization project: cross cultural speech Act Realisation Project (CCSARP) (in: Kogetsidis & Woodfield (2012)).

According to Trosborg (1995), requesting, as a speech act, could be described as “an illocutionary act whereby a speaker (requester) conveys to a hearer (requestee) that he/she wants the requestee to perform an act which is for the benefit of the speaker” (p. 187). In other words, Requests are regarded as illocutionary acts in which speakers ask the addressee to perform an act that they desire to be achieved. There are numerous reasons that lead to the use of requesting in everyday interactions. Trosborg (ibid.) explains that requests might be for verbal goods and services such as inquiring for information, or non-verbal goods or services like the case of asking for an object or for a specific service.

As mentioned earlier, the speech act of requesting belongs to “directives” speech act type. Brown & Levinson (1987) elucidate that requests are basically Face-Threatening Acts (FTA). Thus, to minimize the unavoidable imposition that

the FTA manifests, speakers have to use modifications to reach their desires, and avoid imposing concurrently. This explains the reason why most of the indirect requests are being fully conventionalized.

According to Searle (1969), the speech act of requesting is characterized by possessing a propositional content where, as it is shown in table (2), the intention is to get H (hearer) do future act referred to as (A). Huang (2012) defines propositional content condition as “A kind of felicity condition which relates in essence to what a speech act is about. It has to do with specifying restrictions on the content of what remains as the ‘core’ of the utterance after the illocutionary act part is removed” (P.252).

Searle (1969) summarizes the preparatory conditions into two essential conditions. The first one is the ability of the hearer to do something (A); the second condition is that it is not obvious to neither the speaker (S) nor the hearer (H) that the latter will do A in normal course of events of his own accord. Thus, here preparatory condition refers to the contextual requirements, mainly revolving around both the participants’ epistemic and volitional states (Verschueren & Ostman, 2009). Sincerity condition which focuses on the speaker’s psychological state (**ibid**), is simply identified in the speech act of requesting as: the speaker (S) wants hearer (H) to do something (A). The last condition which is the essential condition counts as an attempt to get hearer (H) to do something (A).

Table (2) Speech act of requesting: (Searle, 1969; from: Bowe & Martin, 2007)

Types of rule	Request
Propositional content	Future act A of H
Preparatory	1. H is able to do A. S believes H is able to do A. 2. It is not obvious to both S and H that H will do A in normal course of events of his own accord.
Sincerity	S wants H to do A.
Essential	Counts as an attempt to get H to do A.
Comment	Order and command have the additional preparatory rule that S must be in a position of authority over H. Command probably does not have the ‘pragmatic’ condition requiring non-obviousness. Furthermore in both, the authority relationship affects the essential condition because the utterance counts as an attempt to get H to do A in virtue of the authority of S over H.

Requesting Strategies

Direct, conventionally indirect and non- conventionally indirect are the three salient types of request strategies or levels of directness. Many researchers claim that direct requests seem to be intrinsically not polite in the sense that they are face-threatening, break into the receivers’ territory and limit their freedom

(Brown and Levinson, 1987; Leech, 1983; Jan et al. 2015). The use of requests in English in Middle age was characterized by its directness implying the desire of the speaker (Kohnen 2002, in: Taavitsainen and Jucker (2008). By the end of the Middle English period, however, things have changed and this was no longer considered as appropriate. According to Taavitsainen and Jucker (2008):

The wishes of the speaker alone were no longer seen as sufficient justification for a request, and the co-operation of the addressee was seen as an important factor giving rise to indirect requests indicating negative politeness, i.e. a consideration for, or at least a token acknowledgment of, the addressee's wish not to be imposed upon. Towards the end of the Early Modern period directives became more conventionalized through the use of expressions or "politeness markers" (Kohnen 2002: 173) such as pray, I beseech you, do me a favour or, later still, please (p.8).

Yet, it is undeniable that direct requests (or impositives) can be acceptable in many cases. In such cases the illocutionary force and the literal meaning are identical (Kess, 1992). Indirect requests, on the other hand, have an illocutionary force that varies from the literal meaning of the sentence. The hearer, therefore, has to detect the intended meaning of the speaker.

In the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP), Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) distinguished between the three levels of directness. In their study, direct requests were described as requests where the speaker's intention to

make a request that is expressed in a straight manner. The speaker aims at inviting the hearer to perform a specific action that will benefit the speaker in a way or another. The second level of directness is “conventionally indirect requests”. This type of requests refers to acts through which the speaker encourages the interlocutor's adherence to a desired act by prompting the willingness of the interlocutor (Rue & Zhang (2008) p.8). The third level, or non-conventional indirect requests, is identified as implicit expressions of the request on the part of the speaker, who controls the desired act by omitting particular act or stating relatively relevant acts (Rue & Zhang (2008)).

An indirect request is less likely to be thought of as a request at all (Brown and Levinson, 1978/1987). According to Bialystok (1993), within a conversation the more there is non-literal forms, (like the case of indirect requests), the more challenging is the conversation to be interpreted, for the receiver in such cases has to interpret the speakers' hidden intentions. Otherwise, the risks to break down the conversation are likely to occur. In such complicated cases and to achieve successful conversations, participants go through three chief aspects of language or abilities of pragmatic competence.

To start with, a speaker has to be able to use language for varied purposes. In this way the speech act of requesting is appropriately distinguished from other intended effects of language use. Speakers also have to be able to adjust the request forms in order to show social aspects of the context, assimilating the request in its necessary forms to indicate the social conventions of politeness. In

this way, interactions require the participant to be able to go beyond language and identify the speaker's buried intentions. Lastly, participants have to be able to adhere to the conventions of the conversation to appropriately make the request.

Table (3) The realization of request strategies (Trosborg, 1995: 205)

Category number	Categories	Request strategies	Illustration (Model)
Cat. I	Indirect request	Hints (mild) (strong)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ I have to be at the airport in half an hour. ➤ My car has broken down. ➤ Will you be using your car tonight?
Cat. II	Conventionally indirect (hearer-oriented conditions)	Ability	➤ Could you lend me your car?
		Willingness	➤ Would you lend me your car?
		Permission	➤ May I borrow your car?
		Suggestory formulae	➤ How about lending me your car?
Cat. III	Conventionally indirect (speaker-based conditions)	Wishes	➤ I would like to borrow your car.
		Desires/ needs	➤ I want/need to borrow your car
Cat. IV	Direct requests	Obligation	➤ You must/have to lend me your car.
		Performatives (hedged)	➤ I ask/require you to lend me your car.
		(unhedged)	➤ I would like to ask you to lend me your car.
		Imperatives	➤ Lend me your car.
		Elliptical phrases	➤ Your car (please).

The level of directness is likely to change depending on the social relationships between the speaker and the hearer. Many research studies have revealed that the closer is this relationship; the more speakers are likely to become less indirect and use direct requests (Reiter, 2000; Rue & Zhang (2008).

Based on many previous research studies (e.g. Austin 1962; Brown and Levinson 1978, 1987; Ervin-Trip 1976, 1977; Haverkate 1984; Blum-Kulka 1983) that investigate the realization of request strategies, Trosborg, (1995) divides request strategies into four essential categories ((i) indirect, (ii) conventionally indirect (hearer-based), (iii) conventionally indirect (speaker- based), and (iv) direct). Table (3) delineates the scale of directness level of request strategies as introduced by Trosborg (1995). The illustrations provide examples that could occur under the following situation: “the speaker asks to borrow the hearer's car”.

Requesting Modifications

As was mentioned before, requesting as a speech act refers to the act of expressing or conveying the speaker’s desire for something to be achieved or done by the addressee. In this sense, the hearer is exposed to a kind of imposition or obligation. The main intention of the speaker, therefore, is to require the addressee to perform something that would benefit the speaker. To avoid or at least minimize such burden or imposition, the speaker is required to use request modifications (Rue & Zhang 2008; Trosborg 1995).

Sbina (2014) states that modifications “precede or follow the head act and affect the context in which the actual act is embedded as they serve the purpose of either mitigating or aggravating the force of the request” (p.33). The head act was developed and defined in CCSARP (Blum-Kulka et.al. 1989) as the major and focal strategy implemented while making a request (In: Rue and Zhang

(2008)). Achiba (2003) regard it as the heart or the core of the request. In other words, the head act is the most essential part that cannot be omitted, while the other parts such as the modifiers are non-compulsory and could be avoided without changing the illocutionary function of the request. The following two sections present a concise overview of the two types of request modifications namely, internal and external modifications.

5.2.1. Internal Modifications

Internal modifications are classified into three main sub-categories (i.e. Syntactic downgraders, Lexical/Phrasal downgraders and lexical upgrades). According to Kasper (1995), syntactic downgraders are devices employed to internally modify the head act through reducing the impositive force of request throughout the use of syntactic choices. There are different syntactic downgraders such as tense, aspect, and conditionals.

The second sub-category, lexical downgraders, has the same purpose as syntactic downgraders. They are employed to diminish the impositive force of request. Lexical downgraders refer to a number of devices that are used in an attempt to “lower the requester’s expectations to the fulfillment or the outcome of the request” (Torsborg, 1994). This kind of strategies might be deemed optional additions to mitigate the illocutionary force of request by internally adjusting the Head Act through specific lexical and phrasal choices (Kasper, 1995). Politeness markers, hedges, appealers and cajolers are some of the devices that belong to the category of lexical downgraders.

Table (4) Defining Internal Modifications

		Name of the Internal modification	Definition
Downgraders	<u>Syntactic Downgraders</u>	Aspect	It refers to the use of the progressive form of the verb. According to many researchers (e.g. Savić, (2014) ; Latif, 2014) Thus, it Can be considered as softening only if it can be substituted by a simple form.
		Tense	Past tense counts as syntactic downgrading only if used with present time reference. (Savić, (2014)
		Conditional	The use of conditional clause “if” or using a conditional structure
	<u>Lexical/Phrasal Downgraders</u>	Politeness marker	“An optional element added to a request to bid for co-operative behavior” (Blum Kulka et al., 1989: 283)
		Cajolers	“conventionalized, addressee-oriented modifiers whose function is to make things clearer to the addressee and invite him/her to metaphorically participate in the speech act” (Sifianou, 1992: 180)
		Understatements/ Hedges	“adverbial modifiers by means of which the speaker underrepresents the state of affairs denoted in the proposition” (Blum Kulka et al., 1989: 283) -understatements include devices used by the requester to understate or minimize some aspects of his/her desired act.(Soler & Jorda, P.S.(2018) ; Trosborg (1994))
		Appealer	Addressee-oriented elements occurring in a syntactically final position. They may signal turn availability and “are used by the speaker whenever he or she wishes to appeal to his or her hearer’s benevolent understanding” (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989: 285)
		Downtoner	“modifiers which are used by the speaker in order to modulate the impact his or her request is likely to have on the hearer” (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989: 284)
	Consultative Device	“expressions by means of which the speaker seeks to involve the hearer directly bidding for co-operation” (BlumKulka et al., 1989: 283)	
Upgraders	<u>lexical upgrades</u>	Adverbial modifiers	Elements employed to “ intensify certain elements of the proposition of the utterance” (Dressler, Barbaresi, (1994: 420)

Finally, unlike downgrades which are, on the one hand, used to lessen imposition on the hearer, upgraders, on the other hand, function in a way that will

Table (5) Examples of Internal modifiers

		Name of the Internal modification	Examples/Devices
Downgraders	<u>Syntactic Downgraders</u>	Aspect	(e.g. “ I was wondering if I could join your study group.”)
		Tense	e.g. I wanted to ask you...
		Conditional	(e.g. “. . . if you have time.”)
	<u>Lexical/Phrasal Downgraders</u>	Politeness marker	(e.g. “Can I please have an extension on this paper?”) Do you think you could present your paper
		Cajolers	this week? ‘You know’, ‘You see’
		Understatements/ Hedges	(e.g. “If you have a minute , could you help me with this stuff?”) ‘a bit’, ‘a little’, ‘sort of’, ‘kind of’, ‘ a second’, ‘more or less’, ‘somehow’...
		Appealer	e.g. “I need your computer to finish my assignments, okay? Clean up the kitchen, dear, will you? We’re going in the same direction, aren’t
		Downtoner	we? (e.g. “Is there any way I could get an extension?”)
		Consultative Device	‘possibly’, ‘perhaps’, ‘just’, ‘rather’, ‘maybe’ (e.g. “Would you mind lending me a hand?”) would you mind’, ‘do you think’, ‘would it be all right if’, ‘is it/would it be possible’, ‘do you
		Adverbial intensifiers	think I could’, ‘is it all right (e.g. “I would be most grateful if you could let me use your article.”)
Upgraders	<u>lexical upgrades</u>		

augment the impact that an utterance might have on the hearer (Torsborg, 1994).

In other words, upgraders are intended to increase the influence of the request

(Dressler, Barbaresi, (1994). Table (4) provides brief definitions of the different internal modifications. These definitions were taken from various resources (Soler & Jorda, 2018; Trosborg, 1994; Dressler, Barbaresi, 1994; Sifianou, 1992: 180; Savić, 2014; Latif, 2014; Blum-Kulka et al., 1989).

Table 5 provides examples that illustrate each element of the internal modification. The examples were collected based on a number of resources (Sifianou, 1992: 180; Trosborg, 1994; Dressler, Barbaresi, 1994: 420; Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Savić, 2014; Latif, 2014; Soler & Jorda, 2018).

5.2.3. External Modifications

External modifications or supportive moves are different from internal modifications given that while the latter is used within the head act or the request itself, external modifiers either go after or precede requests. Accordingly, Leech (2014) emphasizes that this type of modifiers:

are not part of the request utterance itself (the head act), but can be added to a request, either before or after it, to make it more polite, friendly, or persuasive. As a piece of discourse, they are loosely attachable to the request utterance, but they can also stand on their own and can even do the job of the request without the head act (p.171).

The following table (6) offers definitions and illustrations of some kinds of external modifications. The definitions as well as the examples were retrieved from different resources (Rue & Zhang, 2008; Blum-Kulka et al., 1989)

Table (6) External modifications

Name of the External modification	Definition	Examples/Devices
Preparator	The speaker prepares the hearer for the ensuing request.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ ‘I really need a favour...’ ➤ “Hey, you had this management
Grounder	A clause which can either precede or follow a request and allows the speaker to give reasons, explanations or justifications for his or her request	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ class, right? ➤ ‘I would like an assignment extension because I could not deal with the typing time ➤ “I wasn’t in class the other day
Disarmer	A phrase with which “a speaker tries to remove any potential objections the hearer might raise upon being confronted with the request” (Blum-Kulka et	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ because I was sick.” ➤ e.g. “I know this is short notice” ➤ ‘I know that this assignment is important but could you ...?’
Promise of Reward	al., 1989: 287) The speaker makes a promise to be fulfilled upon completion of the requested act	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ “I’ll buy you dinner.” ➤ ‘Could you give me an extension? I promise I’ll have it
Imposition Minimizer	“The speaker tries to reduce the imposition placed on the hearer by this request.” (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989: 288)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ ready by tomorrow.’ ➤ ‘I would like to ask for an extension. Just for a few days.’ ➤ “I will return them in an orderly
Sweetener	Sweeteners are used to flatter the hearer and to grant a positive mood. Schauer (2007): Kogetsidis &	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ fashion.”) ➤ (e.g. “Today’s class was great.”)
Self introduction	Woodfield, (2012), Especially used to lead up to a request to someone	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ (e.g. “Hey, I’m in your politics
Getting a pre-commitment	not previously known” Rue, & Zhang (2008) p.102) The speaker checks on a potential refusal before performing the request by trying to get the hearer to	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ class.”) ➤ “Could you do me a favor?
Apology	commit. The speaker apologizes for posing the request and/or for the imposition incurred.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ ‘I’m very sorry but I need an extension on this project.’ ➤ I’m sorry I can’t give you the

lesson on Monday.”)

Previous Studies related to Requesting Speech Act

Many researchers, whose main intention was to investigate the speech act of requesting, focused on either its linguistic realizations, or on the socio-cultural

norms that determines it. Thus, their research studies stressed the examination of the pragmalinguistic and/or sociopragmatic realizations of the speech act of requesting.

Najafabadi & Paramasivam (2012) conducted a study which aimed at investigating how EFL Learners perform the speech act of request and their use of both External and Internal supportive moves. The participants of the study belong to three different levels: low, intermediate, and advanced. The main instrument that was employed in the study was DCT that was administered to Iranian English learners and American native speakers. The findings of the study revealed that unlike American native speakers, Iranian English Learners tend to overuse external modifications and rarely use internal modifications. On the other side, learners whose level is advanced have approximately equivalent frequency of employing external modifications.

Another study was conducted by Yang (2009) explores the use of one of the widely employed speech acts, requesting, by Chinese graduate learners in English. The focus of the study was on how they apply English request strategies in diverse social and cultural contexts. To collect the data, a modified Discourse Completion Task and interviews were employed as the main instruments to achieve the abovementioned goals. The results of the study showed that there is a huge divergence between the Chinese and American use of requests in terms of directness, imposition and social distance in some social contexts.

In the same vein, Alzeebaree and Yavuz (2017) conducted a study with the intention of examining Kurdish EFL undergraduate student (KEFLUS) linguistic and pragmatic competence in producing requests and apologies. Participants of the study belong to two categories. The first category includes Kurdish EFL Undergraduates Students from five different universities and the second one includes native speakers of English language whose origin is from different countries (US, UK, Canada and Ireland).

The instrument that was used in this research was a Discourse Completion Task that contains six conversational situations. The situations require the respondent to make one of the above mentioned speech acts. Findings of the study show that while KEFLUS prefer to overuse conventionally indirect (hearer-based) strategies the most, NSE tend to vary and use all the different requesting strategies. Put it differently, KEFLUS were more direct and explicit. However, results show that there were no significant differences between KEFLUS males and females.

Another study was conducted by Latif (2014) aimed at examining Moroccan EFL learners' strategies in performing the speech act of requesting.

The study also attempted to investigate the effect of the first language on the realization of their requests. The participants of the study were Moroccan EFL learners and American native speakers. Discourse completion task was the main instrument of the study. The results of his study revealed that although both of the groups (i.e. American natives and Moroccan EFL learners) prefer the use of

indirectness, but Moroccan EFL learners' performance differ in the sense that they are more direct compared to the native speakers. Furthermore, unlike Americans who tend to use external modifications, Moroccans were noticed to favor the use of lexical downgraders. Concerning the effect of the first language, and apart from very few cases, Moroccan EFL learners, according to Latif's study (2014), did not seem to be affected by their mother tongue in performing the speech act of requesting.

6. The Speech Act of Refusal

The following sections focus on the speech act of refusal, one of the speech acts that are frequently used in the everyday social interactions and also one of the most complicated speech acts (Beebe, 1990; Stavans & Shafran, 2017; Wannaruk, 2008). This part is divided into three main subdivisions. The first section intends to define refusal which is considered as a sophisticated speech act since, it is affected by different features. The second part deals with the various refusal strategies that are implemented to avoid harming the addressee. This part is separated into two sub-sections. The first one focuses on the three different refusal classification or categorization (direct refusals, indirect refusals and adjuncts to refusals). The second one highlights the range of factors that are likely to affect performing the speech act of refusal. The last part introduces refusal sequences or phases which are pre-refusal, main refusal and post-refusal.

Defining Refusal

Refusal is one of the most sophisticated speech acts where communication is likely to collapse or breakdown. This speech act was described as a chief cross-cultural sticking point for several nonnative speakers. Beebe (1990) relates this complexity to the fact that in any authentic conversation refusals,

Often involve a long negotiated sequence, and the risk of offending one's interlocutor is so much a part of the speech act that some degree of indirectness usually exists. Second, refusals are interesting in that their form and content vary according to the eliciting speech act (e.g., invitation, request, offer, or suggestion). They are also sensitive to other sociolinguistic variables, such as status of the interlocutor (P.56).

Another definition provided by Chen, Ye, and Zhang (1995) describes refusal as the speech act which enables the speaker to deny or refute engaging in an action offered by the interlocutor (Cited in Taguchi, 2009).

According to Searle and Vandekerken (1985), refusals or rejections could be simply described as "The negative counterparts to acceptances and consenting A refusal is the illocutionary denegation of an acceptance" (p.195). This speech act occurs when the addressee rejects to take part in a situation (for example the interlocutor might decline offers or invitations).

Similar to the speech act of requesting, refusals are also considered as face-threatening acts and both of them can create a threat to the speaker's face (see

Brown & Levinson, 1987). The two speech acts, however, differ in their nature. While requests might threaten the receivers face by interrupting their freedom of action and space, refusals could be represented through disapproving the addressee's request (Stavans & Shafran, 2017). Eslami (2015) affirms that performing the speech act of refusal inevitably entails a high level of pragmatic competence. Another characteristic that distinguishes refusals are their nature given that refusals take many forms and the content may also differ depending on the nature of the flow of the conversation (e.g. invitation, offer, request...) (Abed, 2011).

Refusal Strategies

Because of the difficulty and complexity that could be encountered while performing refusals, it was necessary to generate strategies to politely evade hurting the addressee's feelings. This heading has two major sub-headings. The first one draws attention to Refusal categorization/Classification along with concrete examples as presented by Beebe et al. (1990). The second sub-heading raises a very critical issue highlighting the factors affecting refusal strategies.

Refusal categorization/Classification

Beebe et al. (1990) assert that refusals can be classified into three major categories. The first category, direct refusals, includes the use of (1) performative verbs (e.g. I refuse), (2) non performative verbs (No) or (3) negative willingness/ability (e.g. I can't, I won't, I don't think so). The second category, namely, indirect refusals, takes many forms such as wishes, statements of regrets,

providing an excuse, reason or explanation etc. (see table (7) which presents all the forms along with the examples as presented by Beebe, 1990).

The third group is referred to as adjuncts to refusals. This category is composed of four major sets. The first set is statement of positive opinion, feeling or agreement (e.g. that's a good idea...; I'd love to...). The second part is statement of empathy (e.g. I realize you are in a difficult situation). The third part includes pause fillers such as "uhh"; "well"; "oh"; uhm". Lastly, refusals can be also accompanied by adjuncts that show gratitude or appreciation.

Factors affecting Refusal strategies

As mentioned earlier, refusals can take various forms ranging from direct to indirect strategies and differ in the degree of politeness depending on the circumstances of each situation. Additionally, what is deemed to be suitable and right refusal in one culture may not be regarded as appropriate in another culture. In other words, being direct might be measured or considered polite in a culture and rude in another. Accordingly, respondents have to look for an appropriate alternative when they are obliged to refuse, taking into account the different factors that might affect their responses (Yuliani, 2010; Eslami, 2015). According to Félix- Brasdefer (2008), there are numerous factors that affect the production of refusals. These factors are age, gender, and the relationship between the interlocutors (close/distant, power) (Cited in: Yuliani, 2010).

Table (7) Indirect Refusals classifications (Beebe et al. (1990))

Indirect refusal		Example
Statement o regret		I'm sorry..... I feel terrible...
Wish		I wish I could help you....
Excuse, reason, explanation		My children will be home that night. I have a headache.
Statement of alternative	I can do X instead of Y	I'd rather, I'd prefer....
	Why don't you do X instead of Y	Why don't you ask someone else?
Set condition for future or past acceptance		If you had asked me earlier, I would have.....
Promise of future acceptance		I'll do it next time./ I promise I'll...
Statement of principle		I never do business with friends.
Statement of philosophy Attempt to dissuade interlocutor	1. Threat or statement of negative consequences to the requester. 2. Guilt trip	One can't be too careful. "I won't be any fun tonight" to refuse an invitation.
	Criticize the request/requester (statement of negative feeling or Opinion ; insult/ attack	Waitress to customers who want to sit a while: "I can't make a living off people who just order coffee." Who do you think you are? That's a terrible idea!
	Request for help, empathy, and assistance by dropping or holding the request.	
	Let interlocutor off the hook	Don't worry about it.
	Self-defense	That's okay. Yu don't have to I'm trying my best
		I'm doing all I can do. I no do nothing wrong.
Acceptance that functions as a refusal		1. unspecified /indefinite reply 2. Lack of enthusiasm
Avoidance	Verbal	a. Topic switch b. Jock c. Repetition of part of request, etc.(Monday?) d. postponement (I'll think about it)
	Nonverbal	e. Hedging (Gee, I don't know./I'm not sure.) a. Silence. b. Hesitation. c. Do nothing.

d. physical departure.

Social distance can be identified as the “degree of shared group membership and/or acquaintanceship” (Paltridge, Phakiti, 2010, p. 244). Social distance exists between speakers and considered to have an immense effect on how the interlocutors interact and talk with each other. As a matter of fact, people are commonly well-mannered and polite to strangers.

Social power is another factor that was also mentioned by Brown and Levinson and considered as one of the factors that play a role in influencing the choice of politeness strategies. Within the broad framework of social power, there are numerous aspects that are included. The factor of age among interlocutors is one of the examples of such aspects. (e.g. when interacting with elderly (Coupland, Coupland & Giles 1991); and kids (Kwarciak, 1993). Gender is also an important factor (Fasold 1990).

Finally, authority or the different positions in social hierarchies (e.g. Morand 1991) can also be considered as one of the factors affecting the preference of using one alternative rather than the other (Cited in: D’hondt, Verschueren, Östman (2009)). Moreover, it is understood that people have the intention to convey politeness in a way which is manipulated by a variety of socio-cultural variables such as “power relationships, degrees of solidarity, intimacy, social distance, the level of formality of the interaction or speech event, gender, age, ethnicity, and social class backgrounds of participants, and so on” (Mey, 2009; p.719).

Linde's study (2009) assumes that Moroccans' two first languages (Arabic and Amazigh) have great influence on responding to speech acts compared to Spanish participants. This might be attributed to the fact that unlike Spanish language which shares several features and characteristics with English language, as they are both considered as European languages, Moroccan Arabic /Arabic and/or Amazigh might have distanced sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic settings.

Refusal Sequences (phases)

Refusal sequences, also called refusal sequential organization (Megumi, 2009), are explicitly recognized as a mixture of semantic formulae in conversational discourse (Megumi, 2009). Beebe et al. (1990) claim that refusals may be found in the form of sequences. These sequences belong to one of the following groups (pre-refusal strategies, main refusal strategies and finally post-refusal strategies) (Yuliani, 2010).

The first sequence, pre-refusal strategies, intends to prepare the receiver for an upcoming refusal. In other words, when the addressee hears it, he/she predicts that what is coming is refusal. The second sequence, the main refusal, is the head act in the sense that it conveys the main refusal. The third and last sequence, post-refusal strategies, occurs after the head act whose function revolves around emphasizing, justifying, mitigating, or concluding the refusal response. The Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition CARLA

(2015) provides a detailed explanation to refusal sequences through the following situation:

A boss asks an employee to stay at work two extra hours by saying:

Boss: “I was wondering if you might be able to stay a bit late this evening, say, until about 9:00 pm or so.”

The employee could not do that so he had to refuse the request, taking into account the social distance, power and many factors he answered in the following way:

Employee: Uh, I’d really like to but I can’t. I’m sorry I have plans. I really can’t stay.

The employee could have simply responded the request by uttering the word “No” or an expression like: “I won’t do that” but, he preferred to opt for that stretched answer that includes the entire above mentioned three refusal sequences. The following table (8) presents a detailed clarification of the refusal sequences presented on the employee’s reply.

Table: (8) refusal sequences

Response	Refusal-sequences	Strategy
Uh, I'd really like to	PRE-REFUSAL	Willingness
but I can't	HEAD ACT	Direct refusal
I'm sorry	POST-REFUSAL	Apology/Regret
I have plans	POST-REFUSAL	Reason/Explanation
I really can't stay	POST-REFUSAL	Direct refusal

Previous Studies on Refusals in the Moroccan context

Despite the existence of a number of research studies related to speech acts in general and refusals in particular, the relevant literature on Moroccan use of

refusals in English as a foreign language remains not as prosperous as other countries. This does not mean that the Moroccan research in this field is not precious, however; it is still in its infancy and this issue must receive additional attention.

Kahtani (2005) maintains that using identical linguistic code (here he refers to the English Language) does not necessarily mean that the language performance would be the same either. On the contrary, he assumes that the different cultural backgrounds affect the use of language in general and refusals as speech act in specific. The participants in his study belong to different cultures and nations. He divides his participants into three major groups namely, Americans, Arabs speaking English and Japanese speaking English. The Arab's group includes participants from different countries of the Arab world (Syria, Saudi Arabia, Morocco, Jordan, and Egypt).

The data is analyzed in terms of (1) the order of the semantic formulas, (2) the frequency of the semantic formulas and (3) the content of semantic formulas. With regards to these three dimensions of semantic formulas, results of the study show that participants in most of the situations performed refusals in different manners. Although it is worth mentioning that the respondents were noticed to share identical results in few circumstances (such as request/offer situations), but still in most of the cases they responded in different ways. Each of the participants is found to be following his/her own semantic strategies that are borrowed or affected by his/her own culture and language.

Linde (2009) conducts a study in which she investigates the differences and similarities of the performance of requests and refusals made by Moroccan and Spanish university learners. This comparative study also sheds lights on a number of factors namely age, gender (male, female), first language, years of English study and living in an English-speaking country.

Participants of this study belong to Mohamed 1 University in Oujda and the University of Granada. The participants of both universities that are enrolled in this study are studying English Language. The study focused on five categories which are *correctness of linguistic expressions, amount of information, levels of formality, directness, and politeness*. The first two elements are more likely related to language correctness, and the three others correspond to the social aspects of language.

Results of the study show that Spanish and Moroccans' performance of refusals, requests and apologies varies from one group to another. Surprisingly; Moroccans as well as Spanish agreed that the speech acts of refusals as being the hardest and the most complicated speech act to be used. Finally, results of the study also indicate that Moroccan and Spanish participants use different indirect distracter choices, but there is no difference in their direct strategy and direct choices.

Another study by El Hiani (2015) investigates Moroccan EFL advanced learners' performance of speech acts. Participants in his study belong to two main groups. The first group includes one-hundred undergraduate students who study

in the English department in Meknes. The second group includes American native speakers. The study tends to compare the performance of 15 speech acts of both groups. The instrument used in the study is Discourse Completion Task (DCT).

Results of the study demonstrate that native speakers (in this context Americans) tend to employ mitigating strategies when performing refusals. This ability requires high level of proficiency of pragmatic competence. The study also sheds light on a number of examples in which participants fail to express speech acts appropriately. Such problems were most of time due to the influence of L1 or L2 on their performance. In other words, respondents' performances in many cases were interfered by their mother tongue (Moroccan Arabic) and in some cases were affected by French language.

7. Interlanguage pragmatic transfer

Interlanguage pragmatics reflects the study of how nonnative language learners use /acquire and understand the target language. Different from other fields of second language learning studies, which revolve around “inquisitional patterns of interlanguage knowledge over time”, are Interlanguage pragmatic studies which spotlight on the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge differences between native and non-native speakers.

Linguistic and cultural divergence are at the heart of such studies (e.g. Kasper and Schmidt, 1996; Marmarido, 2011; Kasper, 1992). Pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competences are two abilities that go underneath the term pragmatic competence. Being able to effectively understand language within its

context and to appropriately use a language to reach a definite objective is referred to as pragmatic competence (e.g. Thomas, 1983; Nelson et al. 2002). Many ILP studies have tried to investigate pragmatic competence by underlining pragmatic failure cases (e.g. Kwon, 2004; Luo & Gao, 2011; Cruz, 2013; Nouichi, 2015).

Pragmatic failure is a branch of cross-cultural communication breakdown that refers to the lack or the inability to understand the speaker's words. According to Thomas (1983), a situation where the hearer (H) perceives the speaker's force utterance in a way that is different from the speaker's intention leading to miscommunication (pragmatic failure). Thus, pragmatic failure is failure to reach the needed communicative outcome in an interaction.

Pragmatic transfer is one of the major causes of pragmalinguistic failure. It occurs when non-native speakers use first language speech act strategies that cannot be used in the L2 setting. Within the area of SLA, numerous pragmatic transfer studies underline the pragmalinguistic / sociopragmatic distinction. Studies of these concerns maintain the L1's influence on non-native speakers' use of second language (Jianbin & Lihui, 2010; Marmarido, 2011; Majetic, 2013).

Pragmatic transfer is defined as non-native speakers' use of their mother tongue language when speaking/writing in second language (Kasper, 1992). The transfer phenomenon takes place due to some linguistic and functional differences and /or similarities between ones' own language and the target language. The degree of transfer is immensely affected by the commonality or affinity between the different languages (Odlin, 1989; Kasper, 1992). Furthermore, it should be

taken into account that there are two types of transfer: negative and positive transfer.

Negative pragmatic transfer, on the one side, hinders the effectiveness of communicative situations. In EFL context, learners borrow expressions from their L1 and use them inappropriately in L2 and/or L3. Similarly, learners might borrow expressions from the TL and use them inappropriately in their L1. For example, the expression “I’m waiting you, which is a common mistake among many Moroccan EFL learners especially in early stages of learning English (EL Hiani, 2015), is influenced by the direct translation and use in Moroccan Arabic ‘Darija’ “ana kantsennak”. Another example can be highlighted from the French word “nerveux / nerveuse”, which is misinterpreted with the same meaning in English “nervous”. In a similar vein, the word ‘sensible’ in English presupposes that the speaker has reasonable judgment, while the same word in French refers to the emotional characteristic of a given person (sensitive).

Positive pragmatic transfer, on the other side, is considered as an impact positively helping EFL learners express their communicative needs in a very important degree of appropriateness. The use of interjections is probably one of the common features of positive pragmatic transfer because of the universality of some expressive interjections. For instance, ‘Wow!’ expresses the feeling of being surprised in a number of languages and cultures throughout the world. Accordingly, the abovementioned expression can be interpreted in contexts of

similar meaning in English and Arabic and Moroccan Arabic/‘Darija’². In addition, some nonverbal expressions such as ‘high five’ and ‘thumbs up’ refer to positive feelings of encouragement and satisfaction in Moroccan culture, on the one hand, and British and American cultures, on the other hand.

8. Data Collection Methods in Interlanguage pragmatics

Since the early 1980’s, the time that remarked the infancy of cross-cultural speech acts studies, grew a debate arguing about the most favored method to elicit data on speech acts. Although some researchers were convinced that spontaneous speech in ordinary and natural settings, where participants are unconscious of them being involved in an experiment, is an exceptional and a superlative approach (e.g. Olshtain & Kulka, 1985; Potter, 2002; Golato, 2003; Shively, 2011), the adoption of Discourse Completion Tests had been and still is a preferable option that is used lengthily to collect speech act data (e.g. Houck & Gass, 1999; Billmyer & Varghese, 2000; Nelson, Carson, Al Batal and El Bakary, 2002).

Also, Kasper and Dahl (1991) constricted the term Interlanguage pragmatic to include non-native speakers’ (a) comprehension and (b) production of speech acts, and how their L2 related to speech act knowledge is acquired. They draw attention to data collection methods used in interlanguage pragmatics rather than analysis for two main reasons. First, data collection methods precede the analysis

² Darija and Moroccan Arabic are used interchangeably to refer to the common uses of language and expressions in Moroccan daily life communicative situations.

step. Second, they are more influential and have a decisive role in shaping the final product. Nurani (2009) also argues that the issue of the way in which data, in pragmatic research, is collected appropriately is essential and decisive in determining the accuracy and reliability of representing the authentic performance of a linguistic action.

Kasper and Dahl (1991) label data collection methods applied in Interlanguage Pragmatic (ILP) research into two dimensions. Procedures, such as multiple choice questionnaires, interviews and the various types of rating tasks (paired comparison, card sorting, rating scales), tend to offer information about participants' comprehension/ perception of alternative speech act realizations. Unlikely, procedures like discourse completion tasks, role plays and observation of authentic discourse are production based methods. The following sub-sections try to provide with an overview of the different methods used in Interlanguage Pragmatic research to collect data.

Perception or Comprehension- Based Methods

As mentioned earlier, interviews, scaled and multiple choice questionnaires are classified beneath the category of perception or comprehension-based methods. These kinds of methods appear to be more appropriate for a preliminary/ exploratory investigation than for a hypothesis-testing study (Kasper and Dahl, 1991). The next parts afford a general synopsis of the different types of these methods.

Multiple Choice Questionnaires and Scaled Response Instruments

Acceptability rating instruments were adapted to analyze speech act behavior by reaching the participants' judgments on the appropriateness of certain replies for an already given situation. In such method, respondents are provided with not only the situations but also certain responses. Participants have to either choose the most appropriate response or classify the possible answers from the most to the least appropriate. While other instruments that aim at investigating the use of speech acts (like: DCTs, role plays) underline the speaker's perspective and hence focus and analyze the participants' performance data, acceptability rating instruments draw attention to the adequacy and acceptability taking another aspect, the hearer's perspective, into account (Olshtain & Kulka, 1985; Cohen 1996).

One of the main aims behind adopting the awareness test (or scaled-response questionnaire) as an instrument is its contribution to the understanding of learners' metapragmatic awareness. Metapragmatics is, according to Geethi (2018), the edge that links the three different abilities namely: linguistic, social and cognitive. Supplying learners with metapragmatic information is proved to be beneficial and of great help in developing their pragmatic competence in the second (target) language (Takahashi, 2010).

Metapragmatic awareness (MPA) represents the fundamental force in producing and generating meaning of language in use (Verschueren, 2000). It is the ability to identify and be aware of different changeable forms of the target

language's conventions, as well as being conscious of the means that shape different aspects of social contexts. To assess the learners' metapragmatic awareness, two kinds of assessment data were developed. The first type assesses the learner's pragmalinguistic aspects. This type highlights the linguistic features and strategies employed to realize and convey a pragmatic meaning and their appropriateness.

The second kind of assessment evaluates the sociopragmatic perception in order to check interactional factors that influence their choices of strategies. This might be achieved by inquiring learners to evaluate related factors that may affect the options of realizing a specific speech act (in this research requests and refusals). Kasper (1999) represents four main purposes that may lead researchers obtain metapragmatic assessment (as a research issue in its own right; as an additional resource to help interpret performance data; as a preliminary step towards developing the instrument for the main study; or as a combination of the above) (p.87).

In their study, whose main aim is to investigate the extent to which intermediate and advanced adult learners of English as a second language are able to comprehend the different syntactic forms conveying indirect requests, Carell and Patricia (1981) provide respondents with ten pairs of requests (to color a circle blue or not to color a circle blue) that take different forms on a tape recording. Most of the requests are indirect and each pair involves both the positive and its negative corresponding. The requests are presented in a way that allows

researchers to analyze participants' comprehension of the polarity of literal meaning (surface polarity) and polarity of conveyed meaning. Respondents have to listen to the requests and then choose (circle) the colored circle they think the requester wants them to circle.

Similarly, and to investigate learners' pragmatic performance when using request strategies, Cook and Liddicoat (2002) use multiple choice questionnaire to evaluate second language learners' ability to deduce native like ability to choose the exact meaning of the produced request. A written questionnaire includes 15 situations followed by four potential answers are administered to 50 native speakers and 100 non-native language learners. Kasper (1999) describes multiple-choice questionnaires as an easily adaptable questionnaire format since it enables researchers to obtain information on several aspects (production, comprehension and metapragmatic judgments).

In an attempt to examine the nature of transferability of indirect request strategies realized by Japanese learners of English language, Takahashi's (1995) study uses a five-point scale of acceptability judgment task which comprises of two parts. In the first part respondents have to read the situations and rate the acceptability of the Japanese indirect requests strategies used, in the second part they have to rate the acceptability of the same request strategies translated into English.

Interviews

The research data elicitation methods such as multiple choice questionnaires and Likert scales require owning detailed background information (origins, mother tongue, level, age, social status...) about the participants. If it is not the case, it is desirable to adopt tools that are considered as “open ended and more participant directed” such as interviews.

Interviews are one of the research methods used to collect data across social sciences. There are different types of interview data (structured, semi-structured and unstructured). Structured interviews revolve around ready-made questions. Unstructured interviews grant a chance for topics to be investigated. Semi-structured interviews combine the two abovementioned types. Interviews are used to enlighten peoples’ thoughts instead of their actions. They may even be affected by a number of aspects such as the interview situation, relations between interviewer and interviewee, social values etc. (Bednark, 2011).

In addition to natural observation, where researchers record spontaneous interactions, Miles’s (1994) survey relies on interviews as a complementary tool. The interview revolves around a list of eleven open-ended questions. The interviewer had the ability to add /restate questions when necessary. Although the process of interviewing and analyzing the product is found to be challenging and time consuming. According to Miles (1994), matching numerical or quantitative data with interview data is really productive and beneficial. Interview was helpful

in this study in the sense that it gave insights into the causes or the reasons why such patterns were used.

The introduction of interview data allowed us to ask more interesting questions, to delve beneath surface behavior and explore the motivations prompting it. The feelings and attitudes reported by the interviewees offered a new dimension to the numerical findings with the result that the two types of data significantly enhanced each other (p.132).

Al-Qahtani (2009) highly recommends implementing interview as a data collection method because this tool enables researchers to control the questions and, hence, gather the information needed. Also, through these instruments researchers can avoid the risk of misinterpretation of questions by respondents and make sure that they answered all the questions without skipping any.

Production-Based Methods

The second category of methods focuses on obtaining and eliciting production data. It involves methods such as observation, discourse completion tasks and role plays. The next sub-sections seek to give a theoretical overview of each of those data collection method.

Observation of authentic Discourse

Ethnographic observation allows researchers to gradually accumulate naturally occurring data. Thus, it enables them to discover different situations and interactions that are characterized by different variables (Cohen 1996; Olshtain &

Kulka 1985). Potter (2002) asserts that through this type of data collection method researchers do not elicit data from participants in a direct way; alternatively, the data is obtained through observation. Naturally occurring data takes many forms but the most frequently used are field notes and audio/video recordings (Kasper, 1999; Golato 2017).

Shively's (2011) study investigates second language learners' development in studying abroad. The study adopts naturalistic audio recordings recorded by participants themselves in service encounters in Toledo as major data elicitation method. Along with audio recordings, participants are observed through other instruments. Respondents are required to write one journal each week (reflective journals; where they have to report and reflect on their learning process), they participate in interviews, and complete a background questionnaire.

Golato (2003) compares between naturally occurring data and DCTs. First, naturally occurring data are well-documented and analyzed. Afterwards, DCTs that attempt to reflect the situations occurred in natural data are submitted. Results show that there are differences between the two research instruments and thus researchers will have to select the appropriate research instruments depending on the objectives of their study.

Accordingly, if the researcher's intention is to notice the speakers' reactions to a given speech act in real life interactions and distinguish the basic interactional 'rules' and patterns of actual language use then it is advisable to use natural occurring data collection. Put it differently, Golato (2003) assumes that authentic

observation is more reliable and DCTs stimulate what respondents ‘*think*’ they would say in a certain situation rather than what they actually say. There are a number of other studies that compared between natural occurring data and other instruments. Felix-Brasdefer (2007), Bataller & Shively (2011) and Bataller (2013) compared between role plays and natural speech as research instruments for data collection.

In their study, Beebe and Cummings (1996) investigate the differences and similarities between two data collections namely, DCT and telephone conversation data tape – recorded and transcribed. Compared to the participants’ talk in the phone, they found that the number of words used on the written questionnaire is far fewer. Authentic data is found to be “longer, more repetitive, and more elaborated, they were more varied in terms of the number of different formulas and strategies resorted to” (P. 75). In terms of content, it was concluded that both of data collection instruments reflect almost the same content. Yet, natural data is characterized by revealing the psychological factors (emotions/feelings).

Though collecting natural data guarantees obtaining spontaneous speech, it is still not systematic. Like any other elicitation data, natural data have numerous shortcomings. First, the participants’ social characteristics (e.g. ethnic group, age, socioeconomic status) remain absent. Second, applying this instrument requires making use of recording devices, thus, the feeling of being watched lead participants to feel a little discomfort. Third, sometimes it is hard for researchers

to get data related to their study, when participants barely produce the strategy being studied. For instance, many participants in Beebe and Cummings' study (1996) avoid the use of the speech act studied (refusal) though their numerous attempts to make them use the refusal act. Fourth, eliciting natural data can be a very exhausting task since it necessitates researchers to transcribe data as it is. This could be in fact a time consuming task. Fifth, it is still a problematic issue when it comes to the number of participants that should participate in a study, and this raises other issues related to whether they are representative or not.

Kasper (2000) claims that authentic discourse can represent human's interaction in actual life. Based on her classification, which exhibits that authentic discourses and role play have identical characteristics, Kasper (2000) concludes that role-play is the best alternative for authentic discourse.

Discourse Completion Tasks

Discourse completion task (DCT)³ is a tool developed to assess pragmatic knowledge. It is a written questionnaire that holds brief descriptions of a number of specific situations. These situations are planned to disclose the techniques and procedures applied when using the investigated speech act such as complaining, inviting, refusing... (e.g. Kasper & Dahl, 1991; Cohen, 1996; Nurani, 2009; Nelson, Carson, Al Batal and El Bakary, 2002; Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1993; Billmyer & Varghese, 2000).

³ DCT: discourse completion tasks are described in the literature sometimes as tests. That is to say, discourse completion tasks and discourse completion tests are used interchangeably.

DCTs can take many forms. Nurani (2009) asserts that there are five forms of DCTs. While in the first format, the classic format, the interlocutors' response (rejoinder) is provided by the end of the prompt, the second is initiated by the speaker's initiation but lacks the rejoinder. Both of the third and fourth types are open DCTs. While one is open item-verbal response only where respondents have no restrictions, the only condition that they have to abide by is to give a verbal response, in the fourth type respondents can react by either verbal, non-verbal replies and they are even permitted not to react. The last type is an extension of open-item verbal response. This type was enhanced by Billmyer & Varghese (2000). This adaptation provided includes more details (Nurani (2009)).

DCT is a very popular and widely used instrument in the field of Interlanguage Pragmatics (e.g Houck & Gass, 1999; Nelson, Carson, Al Batal and El Bakary, 2002; Billmyer & Varghese, 2000). Through this instrument, researchers are able to gather a larger amount of data in a short time. It is considered as an apt tool for interlanguage pragmatic research.

Also, DCTs create a prosperous occasion for researchers to direct and manage different variables “and thus establishing statistically which variables are particularly significant intralinguistically as well as crossculturally” (Olshtain & Kulka, 1985) p.27). Moreover, though it is unauthentic and spotlights only on a single reply and lacks one side of interaction namely “negotiation and sequential moves”, still it generates a form or model responses that simulate what might happen in spontaneous situations.

In his study, which aims at examining how Korean speakers use the speech act of refusals compared to American English Speakers when interacting with people with different social statuses (higher, equal, lower), Kwon's (2004) main data collection instrument is DCTs. According to him, DCTs provide Participants with the chance to cautiously respond to the situations through the details provided which help them differentiate the various statuses they may encounter in their daily life (lower/higher/ equal). Also, this data collection method is a good choice for many other reasons, he points out that DCT is:

a controlled elicitation method which meets the demand for cross-cultural comparability (Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper 1989; Rintell and Mitchell 1989; Trenchs 1995; DeCapua 1998), and it allows researchers to control the variables of the situation (e. g., status of interlocutors) thereby providing a consistent body of data. Furthermore, it has been proved to be quick and efficient in gathering a large amount of data (Cohen and Olshtain 1981; Beebe and Cummings 1996; Wolfson 1989; Beebe et al. 1990)Another advantage of controlled techniques like the DCT is that they provide prototypical responses (p.342).

Nelson et al. (2002) also support the use of DCT as a research instrument in the field of ILP. They assert that this data elicitation method (a) can be practical for participants who belong to a community with diverse status and cultural backgrounds (b) makes it easier for researchers to directly compare and detect the

similarities/differences of the strategies used by the groups compared and (c) allows larger data in relatively short time.

Similarly, Beebe and Cummings (1996) support the use of DCTs because of a number of reasons. They affirm that DCTs are very effectual as research instruments through which researchers can generate preliminary classification of semantic formulas and strategies that are likely to happen in ordinary speech. They also confirm that this tool helps researchers investigate the conventional, perceived requirements for a socially apt reply, and assists them to deepen their investigation on social and psychological factors that may influence the speakers' speech act realizations.

DCTs determine how speech acts are standardized and shaped in the speakers' brain. In the same vein, Billmyer & Varghese (2000) maintain that adopting DCT as an elicitation data instrument grants certain privileges compared to other instruments. They introduced an upgraded version of DCTs which is content-enriched for the aim of eliciting more vigorous data. This updated version includes situations where subjects are offered excessive social and contextual information to help subjects fully be aware of the different aspects of the situation.

Despite the popularity that is given to DCT for its efficiency, it wasn't sufficient to prevent this tool from receiving criticism. One of the inadequacies which hinder some researchers from relying on DCTs is that this data elicitation method doesn't allow collecting some types of information like "the prosodic and nonverbal features of oral interaction" (Cohen, 1996: p.25).

Also, the time allotted in writing may be longer compared to the time given in oral/real life interaction. Thus, participants' answers in such unauthentic situations do not necessarily correspond with their answers in oral interactions. In written discourse tasks participants have the chance to carefully think, adapt or modify their replies (Olshtain & Kulka 1985). Accordingly, answers provided in DCTs may be shorter compared to oral ones (Cohen, 1996; Brown and Levinson, 1987; Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1993).

Role Plays

Unlike DCT, the use of role plays is an opportunity for a researcher to have oral data rather than written data (Houck & Gass, 1999). According to Olshtain and Kulka (1985) role play is a semi-ethnographic technique that tries to stimulate authentic interaction. The elicited data through this tool hold entire conversation created by participants and therefore it is less controlled and focused.

There are two types of role-play (open /closed). In closed role-plays informants are required to react to a situational prompt without receiving a response from an interlocutor. An example that demonstrates this instrument is Walters' (1980) study where his subjects were children. The aim of the study is to investigate the relationship between one aspect of grammatical ability and another one aspect of socio-cultural ability in many groups of bilingual and monolingual children. Closed role-plays were used to elicit request data from children. To achieve this aim, six groups of children were required to make a

request to a puppet. The puppets were different in terms of gender (male/female), age (older/younger) and race.

Yet, Houck & Gass (1999) assume that any data method that is classified as “closed” and thus does not tolerate a variety of answers, “will suffer from the possibility of non-symmetry with naturally occurring data” (p. 47).

Open role-play differs from closed role-play in that it permits researchers to create situations that enable informants to an extended number of turns rather than one, and therefore; allow researchers to attain larger corpus and monitor greater number of discourse features of the speech act in study. In such data elicitation methods researchers can record or video- tape.

In their study which aims at investigating refusals’ interaction between an English native speaker and Japanese English Language Learners, Houck & Gass (1999) implemented open role-plays as data elicitation method for their study. Participants were provided with contextual details revolving around each of the given situations. Based on results from this study, Houck & Gass (1999) assume that though it is time consuming, data drawn from open role-plays is characterized by its dynamic and lengthy interactions. They also conclude that data elicited through Open role-plays are closer to replicate data retrieved from authentic discourse.

Liddicoat and Crozet study (2001) hinges on three samplings that represent learners’ performance in a role-play task. In this task, a group of ten students of 2nd year university, who have just completed one year of studying French as

foreign language in Australia, participate in a role–play where they have to answer the question “*T’as passé un bon week-end?*” The role-plays are videotaped and transcribed later. This data is collected before the instruction in order to evaluate learners’ performance on responding to such question. According to them, opting for role-plays, though not flawless for the study of interaction, is the most appropriate for their study since they allow accumulate a corpus of reasonably comparable spoken language texts.

In another study, which aims at examining indirectness and politeness in the speech act of requests among Mexican Spanish, Félix-Brasdefer (2005) employs an open-ended role-play instrument as data elicitation method. The reason for this choice is back to the fact that role-plays were theoretically and empirically found to approximately embody real-life interaction. Role-plays were first video-taped and transcribed afterwards.

Combined data collection Methods

Given the fact that each elicited and ethnographic data method has both strengths and shortcomings, it is desirable for a researcher to apply more than one data collection method. By combining different data collection methods in one study researchers increase their opportunity of boosting the value and quality of the findings of their study. Cohen (1996) claims that it is essential to combine various approaches to investigate the same speech act rather than relying on one data collection instrument. Adopting such view will allow researchers attain valuable and reliable conclusions of the speech act in study.

As was demonstrated in Beebe and Takahashi (1989) study, which aims at exploring American and Japanese performance of face-threatening speech acts in English, the use for one data collection method wasn't sufficient. Thus, the data of the study was collected through two main instruments. The first one was natural speech collected data where researchers transcribed the interactions word-for-word. The data collected through this tool, however; wasn't highly satisfactory for a number of reasons: "(1) Every situation is totally different sociolinguistically, (2) the number of interactions gathered is insufficient to make generalizations, and (3) word-for-word recall can be absolutely accurate only when the core speech is very short" (p.201). For those reasons they used DCT as a second instrument.

Olshtain and Kulka (1985) assert that adopting acceptability studies should be preferably pursued by a DCT to assist researchers ascertain a number of different acceptable strategies. Accordingly, Bardovi-Harlig, and Do'nyei (1998) choose to precede the judgment test (situations followed by potential responses) with a discourse completion task (DCT); where respondents had to write their replies to the given scenarios as a preliminary step to make sure that participants and researchers agreed on the appropriate types of speech acts to the scenarios.

Numerous studies rely on more than one research instrument in the field of interlanguage pragmatics. Each of them has its own purposes. Miles (1994) for instance choose a mixed method research design, merging quantitative and qualitative data. In her study she combines between natural occurring data and

interviews. Similarly, Yang (2009) opts for DCT followed by in-depth interview questions and recorded on a digital recorder for the sake of evading the flaws of using one approach (quantitative/qualitative).

Correspondingly, Al-Momani (2009) uses a multi-method data collection approach to achieve research objectives. First, respondents have to fill in a background questionnaire to elicit demographic data. Then, they are exposed to Discourse completion task (DCT) to obtain performance data or pragmalinguistic knowledge, and finally, scaled-response questionnaire (SRQ) is used to draw out perception data namely sociopragmatic knowledge.

9. Conclusion

This chapter dealt with the issue relative to the two speech acts of requesting and refusals and thus aimed at locating the study within its theoretical framework. Therefore, it focused on bringing to light various issues related to the field of pragmatics. Next, the strategies that are adopted to diminish the potential of face damage were introduced. Thus, for the speech act of requesting, the chapter highlighted the different requesting strategies mainly modifications (internal and external). Concerning refusals, the different strategies within the three categories (direct refusals, indirect refusals, adjuncts to refusals) were provided with detailed description. The section also aimed at shedding light on previous studies that were strongly relative to this thesis.

Also, special attention was given to research studies which are contextualized in Morocco. Although this field still is at its infancy in Morocco,

many research studies and papers have attempted to consider the issue from its different angles. The following chapter describes research methodology.

Chapter Two

The Research Methodology

Research Methodology

This chapter sheds light on the major aspects of research methodology that were adopted for the sake of attaining the objectives of this thesis. It highlights the adopted research design and describes setting and participants. It also goes through the major instruments of data collection taking into consideration the role of each instrument in speech acts of this research. Next, the chapter brings to the fore validity and reliability as two valuable criteria of research quality followed by procedure, which goes through some interesting aspects of the process of distributing and collecting data. Last, the chapter describes the major methods and statistical measurements used in this study.

The central aim of the study is to explore the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic realization patterns of speech acts of requests and refusals by Moroccan EFL learners. Also, it compares Moroccan EFL learners' use of strategies and the effect of social variables on performing the speech acts of request and refusals, to native speakers' performance. Finally, the study investigates the impact of students' level in their awareness of the appropriate realization patterns of the speech acts studied in this study.

1. Research questions & Research Hypotheses

In light of what have been previously mentioned on the review of the literature, and the urgent need to filling the gap in research regarding the speech acts of requests and refusals, and based on the purposes which have been discussed

earlier, this study attempted to answer the following four major research questions:

1. To what extent do Moroccan EFL learners use the pragmalinguistic strategies appropriately in performing the speech acts of requesting and refusal?
2. To what extent are Moroccan EFL learners familiar with the appropriate sociopragmatic strategies used in the target language?
3. Does negative pragmatic transfer impede Moroccan EFL learners' performance to use the appropriate strategies in performing the speech acts of requesting and refusal?
4. Does students' academic level affect Moroccan EFL learners' awareness of the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic strategies used in performing the speech acts of requests and refusals?

This research attempts at testing the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1:

Moroccan EFL learners don't vary their strategies in performing the speech acts of requesting and refusal.

Hypothesis 2:

Moroccan EFL learners' performance the speech acts of requests and refusals is not affected by the different social variables.

Hypothesis 3:

Pragmatic transfer impedes Moroccan EFL learners' performance to use the appropriate strategies in performing the speech acts of requesting and refusal.

Hypothesis 4

Students' level has a huge impact on the students' performance on the speech acts of requests and refusals.

2. Research Design

As is the usual case of any study, research design is chosen based on the central objective of the study, the adopted instruments and participants. Therefore, it is of paramount importance to state that the study at hand seeks primarily to find out and describe the pragmatolinguistic and sociopragmatic strategies used by Moroccan EFL learners in performing the speech acts of requests and refusals.

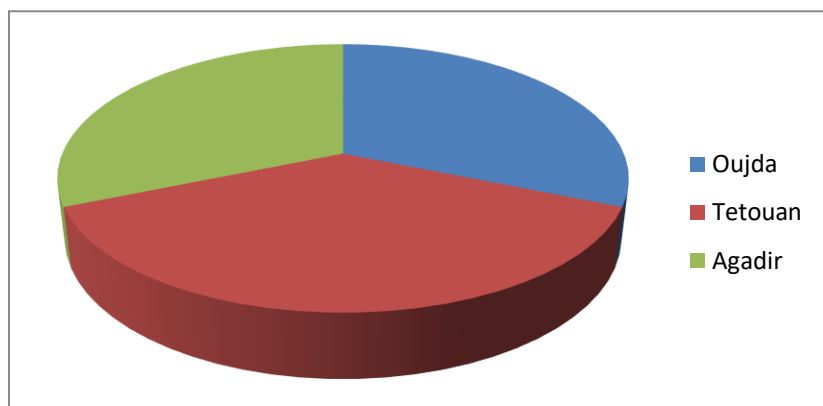
Therefore, and given the nature of the study, the latter adopted a descriptive design as the aim is to describe the preferred characteristics/strategies of learners and their percentages. In addition, the study provided evidence on how some variables affect the production of speech acts (e.g. social power, rank of imposition...). Hence, a correlational dimension was included to examine the possible effects of these variables.

3. Setting & Participants

The study at hands was conducted in three Moroccan universities within different cities. Data was collected from Abdelmaled Essadi University in *Tetouan*, Mohammed First University in *Oujda*, and Ibn Zohr University in

Agadir, some of the data were collected online due to Covid 19 protocol. The three universities belong to different settings, in the sense that Tetouan is a city that is situated in the North of Morocco, Oujda is in the East and Agadir is in the South of the country.

Figure 4: The distribution of participants according to their university



Participants of the current study belong to two main groups. The first group includes 180 Moroccan learners of English as a control group, and the second group consists of 30 native English speakers.

Moroccan Learners of English:

80 Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs) were addressed to Moroccan university students belonging to three different universities. All students are English department students. Their variables differ in terms of their gender, age and educational level. Table 9 provides with Moroccan EFL learners' background information. As the table shows 24% of the EFL learners were males and 58% were females.

Table 9: Background information of Moroccan EFL learners who took part of DCTs

Gender	Female	58%
	Male	42%
Age	18-20	32%
	21-25	66%
	26 - above	2%
Educational Level	1 st year	40%
	3 rd year	60%

Another 100 participants took part in the study by answering the Awareness Tests and Multiple Choice Questionnaire which were distributed separately to get the data. 55 of the participants were 1st year students, and the other 45 were 3rd year students. Thus the total of the whole participants who contributed in the present study were 180 participants.

Native speakers of English Language:

For the sake of achieving objectives of this research, it was also essential to collect data from speakers who speak English as first language. 30 native speakers participated in the study and completed the DCTs. The major aim behind this step is to be able to compare between their realizations of the speech acts of request and refusal to Moroccan EFL learners' performance.

4. Data Collection Instruments

As mentioned in the review of the literature, one of the challenges that face researchers is choosing the most appropriate data collection methods. In this study

and in order to respond to the four above mentioned research questions, and to test the hypotheses that were originated from those research questions, three research instruments were adopted in the present study. The first one is awareness test (rating scale questionnaire), which is used to attain metapragmatic data from learners.

The second instrument is a multiple choice questionnaire; which as a tool proved its efficiency at categorizing learners' preferences about some pragmatic differences of the speech acts studied. The last instrument is a Discourse Completion Task (DCT), a widely recommended instrument to collect data in the field of Cross-Cultural and pragmatic studies (For more details about the different data collection methods implemented in the field of interlanguage pragmatics check the review of the literature). The following sub-sections are aimed at providing an in depth overview of the instruments used to fulfill the purposes of this research.

Awareness test

After being exposed to a number of questions that aim at gathering basic information about their background (Age, Level of education, Gender and place of birth), respondents are exposed to the first instrument adopted in this research, the Awareness test. This technique suggests an exhaustive depiction of a specific situation where certain information like social status, social distance, location and other variables are provided.

Subsequently, a reaction/response to that situation and a rating scale are offered, and learners are required to evaluate or judge that given response by selecting one of the options on the given scale. Participants have to determine whether the response is appropriate or inappropriate. Bellow is an instance of the awareness test task.

You and your friend were having fun in the park when another little boy/girl interrupted you and asked you to let him/her join you. **You refuse by saying:**

- **Let it for another time.**

Appropriate

Inappropriate

The awareness test part includes 18 situations. 9 of the situations were intended to focus on the speech act of requests and the other 9 situations were concerned with the speech act of refusals. All of the statements that have to be evaluated were grammatically correct. In terms of pragmatics, however, some of them were pragmatically appropriate, others were pragmatically inappropriate. The situations vary in terms of the environment (university, park, gym...), the participants' role (university student, kid, scholar...), social distance (high, low, equal), and social distance (stranger, acquaintance, intimate). Table 10 provides a detailed description of each of the situation.

Table10: Awareness test situations (requests/refusals)

Situation's Number	Environment/ location	The participants' Role	Social Status	Social distance
1	University	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> University student asks one the greatest scholars to take a picture with him/her. 	High	Stranger
2		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A foreign scholar refuses to take a picture with some students. 	Low	
3	Park	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ≈A little kid asks two other kids to allow him/her join them playing. 	Equal	Stranger
4		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ≈Little kids refuse to let a third kid join them playing 		
5	Clinic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ≈ An old man asks a very young man to take his/her turn in a clinic. 	Low	Stranger
6		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ≈ Young man refuses to switch turns with an old man in a clinic. 	High	
7	Theater club	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ≈ A new member of a theater club asks his/her coach to allow him/her attend an interesting comedy show. 	High	Acquaintance
8		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ≈A coach and a leader of a theater club refuses to let newcomer attend a comedy show 	Low	
9	Neighborhood	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ≈ A neighbor asks her/his neighbor to look after his/her kid. 	Equal	Acquaintance
10	Home	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ≈ A neighbor refuses to look after his/her neighbor's kid. 	Equal	Acquaintance
11		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ≈ A director asks his/her employee to change his/her gym by another one. 	Low	
12	Gym	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ≈ An employee refuses to change his/her gym and start training at a new gym. 	High	Intimate
13	Home	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ≈ A very old lady asks her grandson/granddaughter to stay with her and take her to hospital. 	Low	
14		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ≈ A grandson/granddaughter refuses to stay with his/her grandmother 	High	
15	--	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ≈ A friend asks his/her best friend to meet and prepare for the exams. 	Equal	Intimate
16		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ≈ A friend refuses to prepare for the exam with his/her best friend. 		

17	Home	≈ A minor asks his/her father drive his new car.	High	Intimate
18		≈ A father refuses to let his/her minor kid drive his car.	Low	

Multiple Choice Questionnaire

The awareness test is preceded by a multiple choice questionnaire. This instrument provides an opportunity to gain an overview of the participants' preferences and choices when it comes to the speech acts of requests and refusals. In this task, respondents were introduced to different situations and each of the situations is followed by three choices. They had to read the situations and select the option they think is the most appropriate among the choices presented.

The questionnaire included nine situations, classified into many categories. The first category has some choices which were pragmatically appropriate but grammatically incorrect. Others have choices that involve items that were grammatically correct but pragmatically incorrect. There were also options that were pragmatically appropriate and at the same time grammatically correct.

Finally, there were choices which were both pragmatically inappropriate and grammatically inappropriate. The situations vary in terms of the location (street, university...), participants' role (student, friend, professor...), social distance (equal, high, low) and social distance (acquaintance, intimate, stranger). Four of the situations were designed to check the speech act of refusals, and five situations

to check the speech act of requests. Table 11 shows a detailed description of each of the situations.

Table 11 : Multiple Choice Questionnaire situations (requests/refusals)

Sit. N	Environment/ location	The participants' Role	Social Status	Social distance
1	University	≈ A student asks a classmate to let him/her make a copy of the school year planning.	Equal	Acquaintance
2		≈ A student refuses his/her classmates request of borrowing his/her notebook to make a copy of the year planning.		
3		≈ A student asking a university professor to supervise his/her work	High	
4	Street in a new country	≈ Asking a person for famous shopping places in a city that he/she visits for the 1 st time.	Equal	Stranger
5	Street heading for work	≈ Refusing a stanger's request to guide him/her and giving him/her directions		
6	University	≈ Student asking a professor to extend the deadline for submitting an assignment	High	Acquaintance
7		≈ A professor rejecting a student's request to extend the assignment deadline.	Low	
8	picnic	≈ Asking a friend to join him/her in a picnic	Equal	Intimate
9		≈ A friend refuse to join his/her friends on a picnic		

Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs)

The third part of the questionnaire was a DCT. To achieve the aims of this research the written discourse completion task (WDCT) used in this study consists

of eighteen different situations. The situations are categorized into two groups.

The first one includes nine communicative situations which require the use of the speech act of requests (see table 12), while the second one involves other nine scenarios where there is a need to use the speech act of refusals (see table 13).

Those situations vary in terms of their social status (Low, Equal, High), social distance (Stranger, Acquaintance, Intimate), environment location (University, Shop, Home, Restaurant, Train...) and the participants' roles (client, friend, professor...). The following two tables (12 & 13) briefly present the details of each of the situations used in this research. Participants have to read the situations and react to them by writing their responses in the space allotted for each situation.

Table 12: Scenarios for the speech act of requesting

Sit. Num.	Environment/ location	The participants' Role	Social Status	Social distance	Ranking of imposition
1	Shoe shop	A client asks the shop assistant to bring his/her size as soon as possible.	Low	Stranger	Low
2	Restaurant	Asking a friend to pay lunch for him/her.	Equal	Intimate	high
3	Street	A father/mother calls his/her son/daughter to come to repair the car.	Low	Intimate	high
4	University	A friend asks a hard-working student to help him/her with his/her assignment.	Equal	Stranger	low
5	High School	A high school student who asking the headmaster to allow him/her attend his/her morning.	High	Acquaintance	low

6	Home	A Ph.D student asks his/her nephew to invite his friends so that he/she can interview them and collect the data.	Low	Acquaintance	high
7	Antique shop	A student asks his/ her classmate to join him/her to visit a larger antique shop.	Equal	Acquaintance	low
8	University	A new graduate university student makes a request to the dean of university asking him/her to for his/her diploma.	High	Stranger	low
9	Home	A child asking his older brother/sister let him/her go with him/her on trip to the beach.	High	Intimate	low

Table 13: Scenarios for the speech act of refusals

Situation Number	Environment/ location	The participants' Role	Social Status	Social Distance
1	Street	Student refuses to help an old lady carry the bags home.	High	Stranger
2	Workplace	A babysitter refuses to accept one of the work conditions.	High	Intimate
3	Home	Parents who refuse that their son/daughter goes on a journey.	Low	Intimate
4	Train	A Phd student who is about to defend his/ her thesis refuses to lend his/her laptop to another Phd student.	Equal	Stranger
5	Library	University student refuses to help him/her prepare his/her presentation.	Equal	Acquaintance
6	Teacher's office	A teacher who refuses that his/her student retakes the exam.	Low	Acquaintance

7	Home	Married couple celebrating their wedding anniversary refuse to lower the volume of the music	Low	Stranger
8	University	Student refuses to accept a professor's offer to be the leader of a reading club.	High	Acquaintance
9	Park	Refusing a friend's request to lend him/her his/her car.	Equal	Intimate

5. Validity & Reliability

Validity and reliability are two fundamental criteria to determine the quality of any empirical study (Gipps, 1994; Dörnyei, 2007). They provide evidence on the extent to which the study has respected the important aspects of the research process, stressing the central role of the research topic and data collection instruments.

Validity, on the one hand, usually is restricted to two fundamental types: content validity and construct validity. The former stresses the adequacy of the involved items on data collection instruments. Therefore, this study adopted discourse completion tasks (DCTs), multiple choice questionnaire and awareness test to allow the use of different sources to get insights into students' strategies in the speech acts of request and refusal. The status quo has immensely contributed to the richness of data, and a solid content validity. A study is considered poor in terms of its content validity when it adopts a single data instrument with limited situations of reaction.

Concerning construct validity, which deals mainly with the theoretical dimension of the variable being investigated, the study used framework that is very popular in interlanguage pragmatics: the cross cultural speech act realization project framework. Additionally, DCTs are very valuable in eliciting data on speech acts.

Reliability, on the other hand, aims at assuring the consistency of the results and their replicability. In this respect, Gipps (1994) names certain criteria to consider the study reliable and suggests that “the standard ways of assessing reliability of a test include-giving the same test a few days apart (test-retest procedure) ... there is also consistency of marking to be considered” (p. 67). Hence, the instruments of this study were distributed a month before the final distribution. It should be noticed here that participants had difficulties to react to all instruments. Accordingly, they were divided into separate sections.

6. Pilot study & Data analysis

Prior to the data collection, a pilot study was necessary. 10 research instruments were addressed to 10 participants in order to check the accessibility of the questions along with the instructions, and to ensure that the research instruments elicit the speech acts under study (Requests and refusals). Additionally, participants were required to provide their impression about the clarity of the instructions and the situations given to check if there was any sort of ambiguity. The first version of the research instruments was proved to be too long, therefore, it was necessary to separate the instruments. That is to say, the

data of each instrument (DCTs, Awareness Test and Multiple Choice Questionnaire MCQ) was collected separately.

The study relies mainly on the use of SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) as a statistical platform of analysis. This program enables researchers to study quantitative analysis. Moreover, it assists them to introduce the data's output in a manner that makes data accessible and easier to be interpreted. SPSS was used to investigate the four research questions and analyze the data collected through the three research instruments namely, DCTs, Awareness test and Multiple Choice Questionnaire.

To achieve the objectives of the study at hand, SPSS cross-tabulation measures for descriptive statistics were relied on. Frequencies and percentages were also calculated through the use of SPSS to attain clear details. Also, multi-dimensional Chi-square test and Spearman Rho correlations were adopted to identify the significance of dissimilarities between groups and detect any significant relationship between social factors and the choice of strategies used.

Chapter three:
Interpretation and Data Analysis

Chapter 3: Interpretation and Data Analysis

This chapter intends at providing an overview of the major findings of this thesis. It composes three major parts. The first part sheds light on Moroccan EFL learners' pragmalinguistic realizations of the speech acts of requests and refusals. The second part focuses on the impact of social factors on Moroccan EFL learners' performance of the speech acts of requests and refusals. The third part spotlights on pragmatic transfer. The main aim of the last part is to compare between native speakers and Moroccan EFL learners' use of the two speech acts studies in this thesis.

Part 1: Moroccan EFL learners' Pragmalinguistic Realizations of the Speech Acts of Requests & Refusals

To meet the first objective of this research, the first part of this chapter is concerned with Moroccan EFL learners' **pragmalinguistic realizations** of the speech acts of requests & refusals. This part is an attempt to investigate the first research question of this study.

Question 1:

What pragmalinguistic strategies do Moroccan EFL learners use in performing the speech acts of request and refusal?

Hypothesis 1:

Moroccan EFL learners prefer the use of specific pragmalinguistic strategies rather than others in performing the speech acts of requesting and refusal.

The part is divided into two main sections. Section one is devoted to analyzing the pragmalinguistic realization of requests, while section two is concerned with pragmalinguistic realizations of refusals.

I. Pragmalinguistic Realizations of Requests

This section examines the different pragmalinguistic realizations of Moroccan EFL learners of the speech act of request. Therefore, it covers a number of linguistic resources that are essentially used to convey particular illocutions. It includes three main sub-sections (Categories of Requesting Strategies/ request strategies/ modifications: internal & external).

Categories of Requesting Strategies (Directness Degree) and Request Strategies

This section attempts at identifying the major categories of request strategies used by Moroccan EFL learners. The scale which the study was based on is (Trosborg, 199:205) distinction of the four major categories (For more details see chapter one).

To identify the category and the frequency of the use of request strategies used by Moroccan EFL learners, the data in table (14) were analyzed.

Moroccan EFL learners overused the category of “conventionally indirect (hearer-oriented conditions)” with (81%), while the most underused category, with only (2.6%), was the third category namely, “Conventionally indirect (speaker-based conditions)”. Direct request category was also underused (3%), and finally (11%) was left for the first category which is indirect request.

Table (14) Moroccan EFL learners' choice of request categories

DCTs THE SPEECH ACT OF REQUESTING/Categories					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Indirect request	84	11,0	11,3	11,3
	Conventionally indirect (hearer-oriented conditions)	617	81,0	82,9	94,2
	Conventionally indirect (speaker-based conditions)	20	2,6	2,7	96,9
	Direct request	23	3,0	3,1	100,0
	Total	744	97,6	100,0	
Missing	System	18	2,4		
Total		762	100,0		

The following table (15) provides a detailed description of the requesting strategies that participants preferred to use. As mentioned earlier, the most desired category used by participants of the study was “conventionally indirect (hearer-oriented conditions)”. This category includes four main requesting strategies: Ability, willingness, permission and suggestory formulae. (46.6%), which represents the majority, of the participants who opted for this category used “Ability” requesting strategies to make their request. (28.2%) of them used the willingness strategies, while the minority is left for suggestory formulae strategies with only (1.4%) and permission with (4.6%).

Also, (11%) of the participants preferred the use of hints, which is beneath the category of indirect requests. However, out of 744 only 21 of the participants' choice went to “conventionally indirect (speaker-based conditions)”. (1.8%) of these participants preferred the use of desires/needs requesting strategies, and

(0.9%) preferred the use of wishes requesting strategies. For the fourth category, direct requests, Imperatives was the only used requesting strategy used by participants with a total of (3%).

Table (15) Moroccan EFL learners' use of request strategies

DCTs THE SPEECH ACT OF REQUESTING/Strategies					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Hints	84	11,0	11,3	11,3
	Ability	355	46,6	47,7	59,0
	willingness	215	28,2	28,9	87,9
	permission	35	4,6	4,7	92,6
	suggestory formulae	11	1,4	1,5	94,1
	wishes	7	,9	,9	95,0
	desires/needs	14	1,8	1,9	96,9
	Imperatives	23	3,0	3,1	100,0
	Total	744	97,6	100,0	
Missing	System	18	2,4		
Total		762	100,0		

Modifications

Given that avoiding or at least reducing the weight of the imposition that a speaker may impose on the hearer plays a prominence role in the process of making a request, this section sheds light on the request modifications used by the participants. These modifications can precede or follow the head act.

As provided in table (16), (32, 7%) of the participants' choice went to external modifications alone, and (11.5%) to internal modifications alone. In other words, external modifications are overused compared to internal modifications. The majority (35.7%) preferred the use of both (internal and external

modifications) in their realizations of the speech act of request. Finally, (17.7%) chose not to use any requesting modifications.

Table (16) Moroccan EFL learners' choice of request modifications

Requesting modifications					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	none	135	17,7	18,1	18,1
	internal modifications	88	11,5	11,8	30,0
	external modifications	249	32,7	33,5	63,4
	both	272	35,7	36,6	100,0
	Total	744	97,6	100,0	
Missing	System	18	2,4		
Total		762	100,0		

Internal Modifications

The aim of this sub-section is to exhibit the various internal modification devices performed by Moroccan EFL learners. Thus, the use of the three sub-categories of internal modifications (i.e. Syntactic downgraders, Lexical/ Phrasal downgraders and Lexical upgrades) was observed.

As shown in table (17), the majority of internal modification strategies that were used by the participants belong to the category of downgraders. Within the category of downgraders, there are two sub-categories syntactic and lexical /phrasal. Syntactic downgraders category includes three types of internal modifications (Aspect, conditional and tense). Lexical/ phrasal downgraders category consists of six types of internal modification (politeness marker, cajolers, understatements/hedges, appealer, downtoner and consultative device).

Results showed that around (11.8%) of the participants preferred the use of syntactic downgraders. (6.4%) used the “conditional” “.... if...”, while (5.4%) used “Aspect”, which refers to the use of the progressive form of the verb. All the participants who used this latter opt for the following device “I was wondering if....”.

Table (17) Moroccan EFL learners’ use of internal modifications

		Internal Modifications			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Aspect	41	5,4	5,5	5,5
	conditional	49	6,4	6,6	12,1
	politeness marker	195	25,6	26,2	38,3
	cajolars	5	,7	,7	39,0
	understatements/ hedges	1	,1	,1	39,1
	appealer	2	,3	,3	39,4
	consultative device	65	8,5	8,7	48,1
	adverbial modifiers	5	,7	,7	48,8
	none	381	50,0	51,2	100,0
	Total	744	97,6	100,0	
Missing	System	18	2,4		
Total		762	100,0		

The second category, lexical /phrasal downgraders, represented (35.9%). In addition, (25.6%) of the participants favored the use of “politeness marker”. Out of 195 frequencies only one used the following politeness marker: “do you think you could.....?”, while the others without any exception used the politeness marker: “please”. (8.5%) of the participants used consultative devices. The most

frequently consultative devices were: “would it be possible for you to.....” and “would you mind...?” Lastly, (50%) of the participants chose not to use any internal modification device. Concerning the use of the third category, Lexical upgrades, was very rare with only (0.7%) who used adverbial intensifiers.

External Modifications

This sub-section aims at examining the use of supportive moves /external modifications by Moroccan EFL learners. The frequencies of using nine types of external modifications (preparatory, grounder, disarmer, promise of reward, imposition/minimizer, sweetener, self-introduction, getting a pre-commitment and apology) were investigated.

Table (18) Moroccan EFL learners’ use of external modifications

External Modifications					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	preparator	83	10,9	11,2	11,2
	grounder	250	32,8	33,6	44,8
	DISARMER	9	1,2	1,2	46,0
	promise of reward	126	16,5	16,9	62,9
	imposition/minimizer	3	,4	,4	63,3
	sweetener	4	,5	,5	63,8
	getting a pre-commitment	5	,7	,7	64,5
	apology	22	2,9	3,0	67,5
	none	242	31,8	32,5	100,0
	Total	744	97,6	100,0	
Missing	System	18	2,4		
Total		762	100,0		

Compared to the use of internal modifications, it is noticed that most of the participants preferred to use external modifications in their realizations of

requests. About (70%) of the overall participants used at least one or more type of supportive moves. Table (18) shows that the highest percentage (32.8%) was for “grounder”. Most of the participants allowed themselves to provide the hearer with explanations and justifications to clarify the reasons behind their requests.

The percentage of the supportive move “promise of reward” was the second highest percentage after “grounder” (16.5%). Many Moroccan EFL learners offered “promises to accomplish” after the completion of the request.

Also, the use of “preparator” as an external modification was remarkably used by many participants. About (11%) of the participants tended to prepare the hearer for the coming request, while about (3%) chose to start their request with apologies for the imposition they had to impose on the hearer upon making the request. The use of the other types of supportive moves such as Disarmer (2.1%), imposition/minimizer (0.4%), sweetener (0.5%), getting a pre-commitment (0.7%), was very infrequent.

II. Pragmalinguistic Realizations of Refusals

The present section explores diverse pragmalinguistic realizations of Moroccan EFL learners of the speech act of refusal. Consequently, it sheds light on linguistic forms/ features that are used to produce this speech act. The section is split into four sub-sections; the first one introduces the different categories of refusal strategies. The second sub-section highlights the pragmalinguistic realization of direct strategies. The third one deals with the indirect refusal strategies used. The last one considers the use of adjuncts to refusals.

Refusal is a face threatening act par excellence, it disapproves the addressee's intention. Because of the threat this speech act creates, it was necessary to generate strategies to politely avoid or at least minimize the strength of this interruption. Refusal strategies are classified into three major categories (direct/indirect/adjuncts).

Table (19) depicts that the majority (30.6%) of the participants opted for indirect strategies in performing the speech act of refusals. Furthermore, (16, 7%) opted for both direct and indirect strategies. Yet, the lowest percentage goes to adjuncts to refusals (8.3%).

Table (19) Moroccan EFL learners' choice of Refusal Categories

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Direct Refusals	143	16,6	19,4	19,4
	Indirect Refusals	226	26,2	30,6	50,0
	Adjuncts to Refusals	61	7,1	8,3	58,3
	direct and adjuncts	123	14,2	16,7	74,9
	direct and indirect	123	14,2	16,7	91,6
	indirect and adjunct	62	7,2	8,4	100,0
	Total	738	85,4	100,0	
Missing	System	126	14,6		
Total		864	100,0		

Direct and Indirect Strategies

Direct strategies include three focal types (performative verbs, Non-performative verbs and Negative willingness/ability). Performative verbs refer to the use of verbs such as I refuse, I decline/reject.... The minority (15.7%) of respondents used it, while the majority (63,2%) opted for "Negative

Willingness/Ability” (such as the use of: I can’t, I won’t....). (21.1%) used Non-performative verbs (like: No) (see: Table (20)).

Table (20) Moroccan EFL learners’ use of Direct Refusals

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Performative verbs	61	7,1	15,7	15,7
	Non- Performative verbs	82	9,5	21,1	36,8
	Negative Willingness/Ability	246	28,5	63,2	100,0
	Total	389	45,0	100,0	
Missing	System	475	55,0		
Total		864	100,0		

For indirect strategies, Beebe et al (1990) framework and classifications of indirect refusal strategies was adopted. Table (21) shows that Most of respondents (23, 4%) used “Excuse, reason, explanation” to make their refusals. The second most used strategy was, as shown in table 21, “wish” with a percentage of

Table (21) Moroccan EFL learners’ use of Indirect Refusals

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Statement of regret	63	7,3	14,6	14,6
	Wish	83	9,6	19,3	33,9
	Excuse,reason, explanation	101	11,7	23,4	57,3
	Statement of alternative	41	4,7	9,5	66,8
	Set condition for future or past acceptance	62	7,2	14,4	81,2
	Promise of future acceptance	40	4,6	9,3	90,5
	Attempt to dissuade interlocutor	41	4,7	9,5	100,0
	Total	431	49,9	100,0	
Missing	System	433	50,1		
Total		864	100,0		

(19.3%). “Statement of regret” and “set condition for future or past acceptance” percentages were very close (The former with (14.6%) and the latter with

(14.4%). The lowest use went to the use of “promise of future acceptance” with a percentage of (9.3%).

Within the strategy of “Attempt to dissuade interlocutors” which was the choice of about (9.5%), (51.2%) of the respondents who used this strategy opted for “Let interlocutor off the hook” with expressions like (don’t worry about it...), and (48.8%) “Criticize” (table 22).

Table (22) Moroccan EFL learners’ use of Attempt to dissuade interlocutor

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Criticize	20	2,3	48,8	48,8
	off the hook	21	2,4	51,2	100,0
	Total	41	4,7	100,0	
Missing	System	823	95,3		
Total		864	100,0		

Adjuncts to Refusals

Concerning the last strategy, Adjuncts to refusal, contains four major types.

As table (23) indicates the majority which represents (50%) were respondents

Table (23) Moroccan EFL learners’ use of Adjunct to Refusal

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	statement of positive opinion/feeling/agreement	41	4,7	19,9	19,9
	Statement of empathy	103	11,9	50,0	69,9
	Adjuncts that show gratitude/appreciation	62	7,2	30,1	100,0
	Total	206	23,8	100,0	
Missing	System	658	76,2		
Total		864	100,0		

who chose “Statement of empathy”. These respondents tend to show that although they refuse for a specific reason, they have empathy. However, (30,1%) went to participants who opted for “Adjuncts that show gratitude/appreciation” and finally, (19.9%) went to “Statement of positive opinion/feeling/agreement”.

Part 2: Moroccan EFL learners’ Sociopragmatic Realizations of the Speech Acts of Requests & Refusals

While the first part dealt with Moroccan EFL learners’ pragmalinguistic choices vis à vis the functions of requests & refusals, this part is concerned with Moroccan EFL learners’ **sociopragmatic realizations** of the speech acts of requests and refusals. Therefore, this part tries to examine the second research question of this study.

Question 2:

To what extent do social variables affect Moroccan EFL learners’ performance of the speech acts of request and refusal?

Hypothesis 2:

Moroccan EFL learners’ performance of the speech acts of requests and refusals is affected by the different social variables.

I. Sociopragmatic Realizations of Requests

This section focuses on the impact of social variables namely, social status, social distance and rank of imposition, on the realizations of Moroccan EFL learners’ performance of the speech act of request. It is divided into two main sub-sections. The first sub-section describes the relation between those variables and

the choice of request strategies, and the second one investigates the effect of the three above-mentioned variables and the use of modifications.

The Effect of Social Variables on the Use of Request Strategies

This part focuses on the relationship between the different uses of requesting strategies, and three main variables which are social status, social distance and ranking of imposition. To investigate these associations, crosstabs and chi-squares were examined through the use of SPSS.

Table (24) Chi-Square Test for request strategies across different variables

Request Strategies	<i>Social power</i>	<i>Social Distance</i>	<i>Rank of Imposition</i>
Sig.(2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
N	744	744	744

Table (24) reveals that chi-square is (**.000**), which indicates that there is a very strong evidence of a relationship between Moroccans' use of categories of request strategies and the three different variables namely, social power, social distance and rank of imposition.

Table (25) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and request categories

Request Categories	Social power/Status		Social Distance		Rank of Imposition	
	High		Acquaintance		Low/Small	
Indirect Requests	High	57%	Acquaintance	28.6%	Low/Small	1.2%
	Equal	14.3%	Stranger	67.9%	High/Big	98.8%
	Low	28.6%	Intimate	3.6%		
Conventionally Indirect (hearer-oriented conditions)	High	29.5%	Acquaintance	32.7%	Low/Small	38.1%
	Equal	34.4%	Stranger	29.5%	High/Big	61.9%
	Low	34.4%	Intimate	37.8%		

Conventionally Indirect (speaker-based conditions)	High	30%	Acquaintance	50%	Low/Small	20%
	Equal	55%	Stranger	30%	High/Big	30%
	Low	15%	Intimate	20%		
Direct Requests	High	43.8%	Acquaintance	32.8%	Low/Small	34.8%
	Equal	26.1%	Stranger	33.6%		
	Low	39.1%	Intimate	33.6%	High/Big	65.2%

As shown in table (25), within the category of indirect request, when it comes to *social power* the participants made use of indirect request (57.1%). That is to say when speakers were addressing a person of higher social status, they avoided using direct strategies on performing the speech act of requesting. However, when there is an equal social power between interlocutors, only a few participants (14.3%) opted for indirect strategies to perform the above mentioned function.

The second category, which highlights “Conventionally Indirect (hearer-oriented conditions)”, reveals that the majority of the participants (36.1%) resorted to this category when they had equal status with the hearer.

Within the category of “Conventionally Indirect (speaker-oriented conditions)”, (55%) of the participants opted for it when they were in an equal position with the requestee and only (15%) when they were in a lower position.

Concerning the category of direct request, it was noticed that the majority of the participants (i.e. about 40%) who opted for this category use direct requests when their relationship with the interlocutor is lower.

As for the next variable that was examined is *social distance*⁴. The evidence gathered in Tables (25) & (26) point out that within the category of indirect request (the use of hints), about 70% of the participants who opted for it use it when the hearer is stranger to them, while the minority with only 3.6% use it when the relationship between the two is very intimate.

When it comes to the category of direct request strategies (the use of Imperatives), the majority (43.5%) decided to use this category when their relationship with the interlocutors is intimate. (34.8%) of them used this type of strategies with acquaintances. Lastly, the minority (21.7%) used it even if their relation with the other party is strangers.

As far as the category of “Conventionally indirect (hearer-oriented conditions)” is concerned, (37%) of the participants who used strategies of this category used them when the social distance is intimate. (32.7%) preferred these strategies when the relation between interlocutors is acquaintance and (29.5%) when it is between strangers. A total of (47.7%) of the participants who contributed to this study used “ability” as a request strategy. Moreover, (48.2%) of the participants who used “ability” requesting strategies used them when their relationship with the other party is intimate and (29%) when the relation is with acquaintances.

⁴ Refers to the varied levels of familiarity between the speaker and the hearer. Put it differently, the degree of intimacy and closeness of relationship between interlocutors take many forms (Acquaintance (-SD)/ Stranger (+SD)/ Intimate

On the other hand, a total of (28.9%) of the participants opted for “willingness” as a requesting strategy. While (41.4%) of those who opted for “willingness” used it when the requestee is an acquaintance, (38.1%) when the relation is between strangers.

Finally, although the use of “suggestory formulae” was very rare compared to “ability” and “willingness” with only a total of (1.5%), the majority of these participants (63.6%) preferred using it when the other party is a stranger.

Table (26) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and request strategies

Request Strategies	Social Distance		Rank of Imposition	
	Acquaintance	Stranger	Low/Small	High/Big
Hints	28.6%	67.9%	1.2%	98%
	3.6%			
Ability	29%	22.8%	45.4%	54.6%
	48.2%			
Willingness	41.4%	38.1%	32.6%	67.4%
	20.5%			
Permission	20%	34.3%	11.4%	88.6%
	45.7%			
Suggestory Formulae	27.3%	63.6%	0.0%	100%
	9.1%			
Imperatives	34.8%	21.7%	35%	65%
	43.5%			

*Ranking of imposition*⁵ is another very prominent variable that might affect the realization of the speech act of request. Tables (25 & 26) demonstrate that within the category of indirect requests “Hints”, (98%) of the participants who opted for this category used it when the high/big rank of imposition exists, while (1.2%) used it when there is low/small imposition.

Additionally, (61.9%) of the participants within the second category “Conventionally indirect (hearer-oriented conditions)” preferred using strategies of this category when the rank of imposition was high/big, and (38.1%) used it when the imposition was low/small. Table (26) also points out that within the category of “willingness”, (67.4%) used it as a request strategy when the rank of imposition is high/big. Within the strategy of “permission”, (88.6%) opted for it when the imposition is high/big. Interestingly, all the participants (100%) who opted for “suggestory formulae” as a request strategy preferred to use it when the rank of imposition is high/big.

Moreover, tables (25 & 26) reveal, and within the ranking of imposition, that only a total of (3.1%) of the participants chose direct strategy (imperative). (65%) among these participants who choose it use it when the imposition is high/big and about (35%) opted for it when the rank of imposition is low/small.

⁵ As its name indicates, it refers to the level of impositions enforced on the requestee’s freedom of doing something. It is either high/big or low/small.

The Effect of Social Variables on the Use of Modifications

The Pearson Chi-Square on Table (27) depicts that there is a significance relationship between the use of Modifications and social status, social distance and rank of imposition.

Table (27) Chi-Square Test for request modifications across different variables

Modifications	<i>Social power</i>	<i>Social Distance</i>	<i>Rank of Imposition</i>
Sig.(2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
N	744	744	744

While examining the relationship between *social status* (higher, equal, and lower) and the use of modifications, table (28) shows that in situations where participants had to deal with interlocutors who are in a higher position, (40, 2%) used both internal and external modifications, while (11.9%) opted for “none”. that is to say, in such situations the majority used both types of modifications in their realizations of the speech act of request, and the minority didn’t use any one. (29.1%) opted for external modifications only.

However, in situations where the social status between interlocutors is equal, the majority (34.1%) preferred the use of external modifications and (31.3%) used both types of modifications. (52.3%) of the participants who used internal modifications used this type when interacting with people with higher social distance. (34.5%) of the participants who used external modifications only

in their requests used it in situation where participants are on equal social status. (36%) of the participants who preferred the use of “both” used it in situations where the interaction is with a person of a higher social status.

Table (28) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and request Modifications

Request Modifications	Social power/Status		Social Distance		Rank of Imposition	
	None	High	11.9%	Acquaintance	27.5%	Low/Small
Equal		25%	Stranger	12.8%	High/Big	18.3%
Low		16.9%	Intimate	14.4%		
Internal modifications	High	18.9%	Acquaintance	6.1%	Low/Small	7.7%
	Equal	9.1%	Stranger	16.4%	High/Big	13.9%
	Low	7.7%	Intimate	12.8%		
External modifications	High	29.1%	Acquaintance	32.4%	Low/Small	43.1%
	Equal	34.1%	Stranger	24%	High/Big	
Both	Low	37.1%	Intimate	44%	Low/Small	28.6%
	High	40.2%	Acquaintance	34%		
	Equal	31.3%	Stranger	46.8%		31.5%

Low 38.3% Intimate 28.8% High/Big 39.1%

Also, table (28) depicts that within the situation in which the *social distance* between participants was “Acquaintance”, the majority (34%) used both external and internal modifications, followed by (32.4%) who used external modifications alone. As for situations in which the speaker is addressing a “Stranger” (46.8%)

of the requests; that represents the majority, were realized with the use of both.

Concerning situations in which the relation between speaker and requestee is

“Intimate” (44%) of the requests were realized with the use of external modifications.

Finally, within situations in which the *rank of imposition* was “High/Big” the majority (39.1%) preferred to use both external and internal modifications. (28.6%) used merely external modifications and (13.9%) used internal modifications. However, within situations in which the rank of imposition is “Low/Small” the majority (43.1%) opted for the use of external modifications alone, and (7.7%) chose the use of internal modifications.

Concerning the Impact of *social status* on the use of internal modifications, the majority of the participants (57.4%) who used politeness marker as an internal modification chose to employ it when the requestee is in a higher position. (23.1%) use it in situations where interacts are in equal social status. For participants who preferred the use of conditional clause “if” or conditional structures, (55%) of them used it in situations where the requestee is in lower social power. As for participants who used understatements, all of them (100%) used it in dealing with people of higher social status (see table 29).

As for the Impact of *social distance* on the use of internal modifications, within participants who used “Aspect”, or the progressive form of the verb, (39%) used it in situations where the other party is a “stranger”, and (36, 6%) where the social distance belongs to the category of “acquaintance”. Also, within the use of the internal modification “conditional”, (49%) of the participants used it in

situations where their relations with the other is “stranger” and again (49%) in “Acquaintance”.

Table (29) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and internal modifications

Internal modifications	Social power/Status		Social Distance		Rank of Imposition	
	<i>Aspect</i>	High	26,8%	Acquaintance	36.6%	Low/Small
	Equal	68,3%	Stranger	39%	High/Big	80.5%
	Low	4,9%	Intimate	24,4%		
<i>Conditional</i>	High	32,7%	Acquaintance	49%	Low/Small	44.9%
	Equal	12,2%	Stranger	49%	High/Big	55.1%
	Low	55%	Intimate	2,0%		
<i>Politeness maker</i>	High	57.4%	Acquaintance	28,2%	Low/Small	32.3%
	Equal	23.1%	Stranger	25,6%	High/Big	
	Low	19,5%	Intimate	46.2%		
<i>Understatements</i>	High	100%	Acquaintance	100,0%	Low/Small	0%
	Equal	0,0%	Stranger	0,0%	High/Big	100%
	Low	0,0%	Intimate	0,0%		
<i>Appealer</i>	High	0,0%	Acquaintance	0,0%	Low/Small	0%
	Equal	0,0%	Stranger	100,0%	High/Big	100%
	Low	100%	Intimate	0,0%		
<i>Consultative device</i>	High	4.6%	Acquaintance	3,1%	Low/Small	1.5%
	Equal	35.4%	Stranger	95,4%	High/Big	98.5%
	Low	60%	Intimate	1,5%		

As for politeness marker, the majority (46.2%) of the respondents who opted for this type of internal modification use it when the social distance is “intimate” (see: Table (29)).

Lastly, Table (29) displays that within participants who picked “consultative devises” (98.5%) used it when *the rank of imposition* is “High/big” and only (1.5%) used it when the imposition is “Low/small”. Within participants who chose “politeness marker” as an internal modification, (67.7%) used it when the imposition is “High/big”, and (32.3%) when the imposition is “Low /small”. Also, within respondents who favoured “Aspect” as a modification (80.5%) use it when the imposition is “High/big” and (19.5%) when the imposition is (Low/small).

Table (30) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and external modifications

External modifications	Social power/Status		Social Distance		Rank of Imposition	
	Preparator	High	9,4%	Acquaintance	7,8%	Low/Small
Equal		11,9%	Stranger	7,2%	High/Big	7.7%
Low		12,1%	Intimate	18.4%		
Grounder	High	39.8%	Acquaintance	36%	Low/Small	39.6%
	Equal	28,6%	Stranger	29.4%	High/Big	30.4%
	Low	32,7%	Intimate	35.6%		
Disarmer	High	33.3%	Acquaintance	1,2%	Low/Small	1.2%
	Equal	44.4%	Stranger	1,2%	High/Big	1.2%
	Low	22,2%	Intimate	1,2%		
Promise of reward	High	14.8%	Acquaintance	11,9%	Low/Small	12.1%
	Equal	13,9%	Stranger	24.4%		
	Low	22,2%	Intimate	1,2%		
Getting a precommitment	High	0,0%	HighEqual	22,2%	1,6%	Intimate Acquaintance Stranger
	Equal	0,0%		0,0%		
	Low	0,0%		0,4%		

AcquaintanceStranger	14,4%	High/Big	19.4%		
	0,4%	Low/Small	1.6%		
	0,4%				
	1,2%	High/Big	0.2%		
	2,5%		0.4%		
	6,0%	Low/Small			
	Low	63,6%	Intimate	0,4%	High/Big 4.2%

Concerning the use of external modifications, within situations where participants interacted with a person of a higher social status (39.8%) of the requests included “grounder”, (14.8%) used “promise of reward”. As for “disarmer”, (33.3%) used it when the social distance is higher and (44.4%) in equal social status (see: Table (30)).

Furthermore, table (30) demonstrates that (36%) used “grounder” as an external modification in situations where the relation with the other is “Acquaintance”. Also, within situations where the relation between interlocutors is “stranger” the majority of participants (29.4%) used “grounder” followed by “promise of reward” (24.4%). As for situations where the social distance between informants was “intimate”, (35.6%) of the participants opted for “grounder”, followed by (18.4%) for “preparator”.

In terms of the impact of imposition on the use of external modifications, a close look at table (30) illustrates that within situations in which the imposition is “High/big”, (19.4%) of participants preferred the use of “promise of reward” as an external modification, and (30.4%) chose “grounder” and only (4.2%) opted for “Apology”. However, within situations in which the rank of imposition is “Low/small”, (12.1%) of the participants opted for “promise of reward”, while (39.6%) for “grounder” and only (0.4%) for “Apology”.

Sociopragmatic Realizations of Refusals

This part deals with the sociopragmatic realizations of refusals. It deals with three main issues. First, it examines the relationship between three variables (social status, social distance and gender) and direct refusal strategies. Second, it investigates the effect of the three above mentioned variables on the use of indirect refusal strategies. lastly, it studies the effect of social status, social distance and gender on the realization of adjuncts to refusal.

The Effect of Variables on the Use of Direct & Indirect Refusal Strategies

As mentioned earlier, each of the following sub-sections deal with the impact of one of three variables (social status, social distance and gender) on Moroccan's use of direct refusal strategies.

Table (31) Chi-Square Test for direct refusal strategies across social variables

Direct refusals	<i>Social power</i>	<i>Social Distance</i>	<i>Gender</i>
Sig.(2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
N	389	389	389

Table (31) indicates that there is a high significance between the three studied variables and the use of direct refusal strategies (Pearson Chi-Square equals .000). This significance is demonstrated in details on table (32). Within the situation where the *social status* between the interlocutors is (low to high), the

majority of respondents (50.6%) used the third type “Negative Willingness/Ability”, while about (24.7%) was a percentage of performative verbs and the same percentage for Non performative verbs. Within the situation where the interaction is between parties that have equal status, (75%) which is also the majority used “Negative Willingness/Ability”. The same result is within situations in which the respondent is in an interaction with someone who is in lower position. The majority (56.9%) used “Negative Willingness/Ability”.

Within situations in which the *social distance* between interlocutors is strange respondents chose not to use performative verbs nor non performative verbs. The percentages of both is as shown in Table (32) is (0.0%). Remarkably, all the respondents (100%) preferred to use “Negative Willingness/Ability” as a direct refusal strategy. However, within situations in which the relationship is intimate, (30.4%) of the respondents used Non performative verbs and (20.1%) used performative verbs. Still, the majority (49.5%) preferred “Negative Willingness/Ability”. Finally, within acquaintance’ situations, most of respondents (75.8%) choose “Negative Willingness/Ability”.

Within *gender*, it is noticeable from table (32) that female respondents’ use of performative verbs was (17.8%) compared to male with (12.8%). However, in the use of Non performative verbs males’ use was (37.8%), while females’ use of this strategy was only (8.9%). Concerning the choice of using “Negative Willingness/Ability”, Females’ percentage (73.3%) overused the use of males’ (49.4%).

Table (32) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and direct refusals

Direct refusals	Social power/Status		Social Distance		Gender	
	<i>Performative verbs</i>	High	24.7%	Acquaintance	12,1%	Male
Equal		12,2%	Stranger	0%	Female	17.8%
Low		14,6%	Intimate	20.1%		
<i>Non- Performative verbs</i>	High	24.7%	Acquaintance	12,1%	Male	37.8%
	Equal	12,8%	Stranger	0%	Female	8.9%
<i>Negative Willingness/Ability</i>	Low	28,5%	Intimate	30.4%	Male	49.4%
	High	50.6%	Acquaintance	75.8%		
	Equal	75%	Stranger	100%	Female	73.3%
Low		56.9%	Intimate		49.5%	

As for the impact of the variables (social status, social distance and age) on the realization of indirect refusal strategies, results would be demonstrated below.

Table (33) Chi-Square Test for indirect refusal strategies across social variables

Indirect refusals	<i>Social power</i>	<i>Social Distance</i>	<i>Gender</i>
Sig.(2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
N	431	431	431

The Pearson Chi-Square on Table (33) demonstrates that there is a solid evidence of relationship between social variables and the use of indirect refusal strategies (Pearson Chi-Square equals .000).

Table (34) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and indirect refusals

Indirect refusals	Social power/Status		Social Distance		Gender	
Statement of regret	High	18.6%	Acquaintance	33.3%	Male	33,3%
	Equal	0,0%	Stranger	66.7%	Female	66.7%
	Low	17.2%	Intimate	0,0%		
Wish	High	27.4%	Acquaintance	25.3%	Male	74.7%
	Equal	0,0%	Stranger	74.7%	Female	25,3%
	Low	17.2%	Intimate	0,0%		
Excuse,reason, explanation	High	35.8%	Acquaintance	16,4%	Male	19,8%
	Equal	0,0%	Stranger	24.2%	Female	80.2%
	Low		Intimate			
Statement alternative of	Low	16,4%	Intimate	28.5%		
	High	9.3%	Acquaintance	0,0%	Male	51.2%
	Equal	24.1%	Stranger	0,0%	Female	48,8%
Set condition for future or past acceptance	Low	0,0%	Intimate	100%		
	High	0,0%	Acquaintance	16.4%	Male	100%
	Equal	50.6%	Stranger	12.7%	Female	0,0%
Promise of future acceptance	Low	16.4%	Intimate	14.6%		
	High	8,8%	Acquaintance	16,4%	Male	50,0%
	Equal	0,0%	Stranger	0,0%	Female	50,0%
Attempt to dissuade interlocutor	Low	16%	Intimate	13,9%		
	High	0,0%	Acquaintance	16,4%	Male	48,8%
	Equal	25.3%	Stranger	0,0%	Female	

Low 16% Intimate 14,6% 51.2%

As table (34) shows within situations in which the *social status* is High, the

majority (35.8%) used “Excuse, reason or explanation” as a strategy followed by

a percentage of (27.4%) for “Wish” and (18.6%) for “Statement of regret” and finally, by (9.3%) for “Statement of alternative”.

Yet, within situations in which the interaction occurs between interlocutors of “Equal status”, it was noticed that participants avoided the use of “Excuse, reason or explanation”, “Statement of regret”, “Wish” and “Promise of future acceptance”. Instead they opted for “Set condition for future or past acceptance” as an indirect refusal strategy with a percentage of (50.6%) followed by “Attempt to dissuade interlocutor” with a percentage of (25.3%) and “Statement of alternative” with (24.1%).

Lastly, within situations where the speaker is addressing a person of “Low” status, the use of “Statement of regret” and “Wish” was equal with a percentage of (17.2%). And an equal use of “Promise of future acceptance”, “Set condition for future or past acceptance”, “Attempt to dissuade interlocutor” and “Excuse, reason or explanation” with a percentage of about (16%).

As for the effect of **social distance** and the use of indirect refusal strategies, within participants who opted for “Statement of regret”, (66.7%) used it when they are interacting with a “stranger”, and (33.3%) when they are “Acquaintances”. The same thing for “Wish”, the majority (74.7%) used it when the other party is a “stranger”, and (25.3%) in a situation when participants are “Acquaintances”. As for the indirect strategy of “Excuse, reason or explanation” and within social distance, the majority (28.5%) preferred using it when the participants are intimates and (24.2%) when the participants are strangers.

Concerning the strategy of “Statement of alternative”, all participants (100%) opted for it when the interaction is with intimates. However, and within situations in which the participants are acquaintances (16.4%) used the strategy of “Set condition for future or past acceptance”, and (14.6%) opted for it when the interaction is between intimates, while the minority (12.7%) used it in situations where the interaction is between strangers. Finally, the strategies “Attempt to dissuade interlocutor” and “Promise of future acceptance” were avoided to be used by all participants when the interactions were between strangers.

Also, table (34) elaborates the abovementioned significance of relationship between gender and the use of indirect strategies. To start with, within the strategy of “Statement of regret”, most of the participants who decided to use it were females with a percentage of (66.7%). Females’ use of “Attempt to dissuade interlocutor” (51.2%) and “Excuse, reason or explanation” (80.2%) also surpasses males’ use of these indirect strategies. Yet, males’ choice of indirect refusal strategies revolved around other strategies namely, “Wish” with a percentage of (74.7%), “Statement of alternative” with (51.2%) and “Set condition for future or past acceptance” with (100%).

The Effect of Social Variables on the Use of Adjuncts to Refusals

This part is devoted to investigating the effect of social variables such as social status (High/Equal/low), social distance (Strange, Intimate/ Acquaintance)

and gender (Male/ Female) on the use of Moroccan EFL learners' use of adjuncts to refusals.

Table (35) Chi-Square Test for adjunct to refusals across social variables

Adjuncts to refusals	<i>Social power</i>	<i>Social Distance</i>	<i>Gender</i>
Sig.(2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
N	206	206	206

According to the Pearson Chi-Square on table (35), it can be deduced that there is a significant relation between the three variables under study and the use of adjuncts to refusals.

Table (36) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and adjunct to refusals

Adjuncts to refusals	Social power/Status		Social Distance		Gender	
statement of positive opinion / feeling/ agreement	High	51.2%	Acquaintance	0.0%	Male	100%
	Equal	48,8%	Stranger	50%	Female	0,0%
	Low	0.0%	Intimate	0.0%		
Statement of empathy	High	0.0%	Acquaintance	25.3%	Male	20.4%
	Equal	59.2%	Stranger	50%	Female	79.6%
	Low	40.8%	Intimate	100%		
Adjuncts that show gratitude/appreciation	High	33.9	Acquaintance	74.7%	Male	33.9%
	Equal	66.1%	Stranger	0.0%	Female	66.1%
	Low	0.0%	Intimate	0.0%		

For a concise elaboration of what has been deduced from the previous table (35), table (36) provides exhaustive details of these associations. Within the first type of adjuncts to refusals which is “Statement of positive opinion/feeling/agreement”, the majority of participants (51.2%) preferred using it when they are interacting with someone who is in a higher social status. However, when interacting with someone who is in lower social status this type was avoided (0.0%). Concerning the second type, within “statement of empathy”, the majority (59.2%) opted for this type of adjuncts in situations in which the interaction is between participants of equal social status. Also, when the interaction was with interacts of lower social status (40.8%) opted for “statement of empathy”, yet, no participant chose to use it when the interaction is with a person of higher social rank.

As for “adjuncts that show gratitude/appreciation”, the majority who opted for this strategy (66.1%) used it when the interaction is with equal interacts, and (33.9%) when they had to refuse the request of someone who is in a higher position than them. Yet, in situations where respondents are in an interaction with someone of a lower social status they never (0.0%) use “adjuncts that show gratitude/appreciation”.

Table (36) also shows that within *social distance*, all situations in which the social distance between participants is “intimate”, “Statement of empathy” with a percentage of (100%) was the only adjunct used by participants. In situations in which the social distance is “Acquaintance” the majority (74.7%)

opted for the use of “adjuncts that show gratitude/appreciation”, followed by (25.3%) for “Statement of empathy” and (0.0%) for “statement of positive opinion/feeling/agreement”. Lastly, within situations in which the social distance between speakers is “stranger”, respondents preferred the use of “statement of positive opinion/feeling/agreement” with a percentage of (50%), and “Statement of empathy” with the same percentage.

Moreover, table (36) elaborates the relation between *gender* and adjuncts to refusals. Within the strategy of “statement of positive opinion/feeling/agreement”, all participants (100%) who opted for it were male. However, within “statement of empathy”, most of the respondents who used this strategy were female with a percentage of (79.6%), and only (20.4%) were male. Finally, within “adjuncts that show gratitude/appreciation”, the majority of participants who preferred the use of this strategy were female with a proportion of (66.1%) and the minority were males with (33.9%).

Part 3: Pragmatic Transfer

The third part of this chapter attempts at investigating the third research question of this thesis. The part is split into two main parts. The first part compares between Moroccan EFL learners’ and native speakers’ performance of the speech act of request, and the second one investigates the similarities and differences between Moroccan EFL learners’ and native speakers’ use of the speech act of refusal. Each part is composed of a number of sections and sub-sections.

Question 3:

Does pragmatic transfer impede Moroccan EFL learners' performance to use the appropriate strategies in performing the speech acts of requesting and refusal?

Hypothesis 3:

Pragmatic transfer impedes Moroccan EFL learners' performance to use the appropriate strategies in performing the speech acts of requesting and refusal.

I. Pragmatic Transfer in the Speech Act of Request

This part is divided into two main sections. Section one is devoted to analyzing and comparing the pragmalinguistic realizations of requests between Moroccan EFL learners and native speakers. Section two is concerned with comparing sociopragmatic realizations of requests between the two previously mentioned groups. This section is divided into two major sub-sections. The first one provides a general view of the impact of social variables and native speakers' use of the speech act of requests, while the second one summarizes the similarities and the differences between Moroccan EFL learners and native speakers' on their realizations of requests.

A Pragmalinguistic Comparison of Moroccan EFL Learners' and Native Speakers' Realizations of Requests

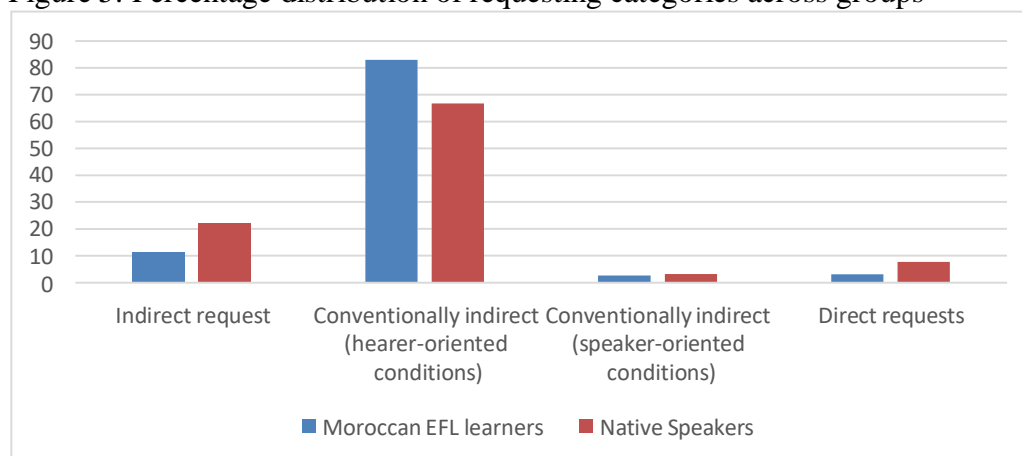
The current section aims at presenting the results which compare between Moroccan EFL Learners and native speakers' performance of request as a speech

act. The comparison between the two groups was in terms of request categories, request strategies, and modifications.

Requesting Categories

Figure 5 demonstrates that there are a number of differences between Moroccan EFL learners and native speakers in their choices of requesting categories. However, in terms of order they were identical. That is to say, for both groups the highest percentage was for “Conventionally indirect (hearer-oriented conditions)” with (66.71%) for native speakers, and (82.9%) for Moroccan EFL learners, followed by the use of “Indirect requests” with (11.3%) for the former and (22.25%) for the latter. The lowest percentage belonged to “Conventionally indirect (speaker-oriented conditions)” (used by (2.7%) of Moroccan EFL learners and 3.3% by native speakers).

Figure 5: Percentage distribution of requesting categories across groups



The Pearson Chi-Square on Table (37) shows that there is significant relationship between informants’ nationality and the choice of request strategies’ categories. (The Pearson Chi-Square= .006 < 0.05).

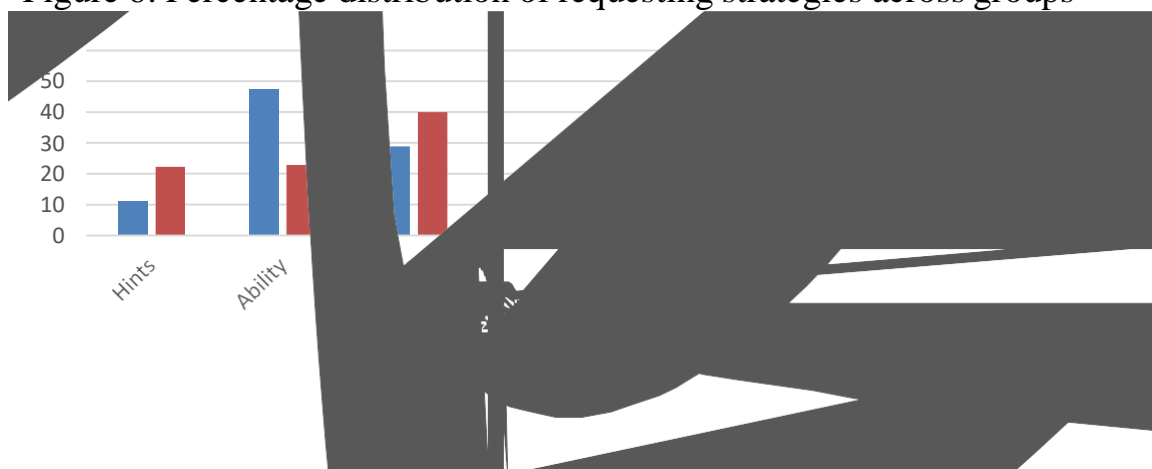
Table (37) Chi-Square Test for request categories across informants' first language

	value	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pearson Chi-Square	8,697 ^a	9	,006

Request Strategies

As mentioned before, the four request categories include about eleven request strategies. Hints is within the category of “Indirect request”, “Conventionally indirect (hearer-oriented conditions)” includes four request strategies: Ability, Willingness, Permission and Suggestory formulae. “Conventionally indirect (speaker-oriented conditions)” contains two request strategies: Wishes and Desires/Needs. The last category, “Direct requests” involves performatives and imperatives. Figure 6 reviews the use of these strategies by the two groups.

Figure 6: Percentage distribution of requesting strategies across groups



“Ability” and “willingness” were the most request strategies used by both groups, but it was clear that native speakers favored the use of “willingness” (40%) and Moroccan EFL learners favored the use of “ability” (47.7%). Though the use of “hints” was ranked the third most frequently used strategy by both

groups, the percentage of Native speakers' use of this strategy (22.2%) overcome the Moroccans' use (11.3%).

On the one hand, "Desires/needs" and "Suggestory formulae" were the two request strategies that were avoided by native speakers; however, they were slightly used by Moroccan EFL learners. On the other hand, Native speakers' use of "Imperatives" and "Wishes" exceeded the use of the other group.

Modifications

This part handles the issue of modifications. It is divided into two sub-sections. The following sub-sections deal with the various modification categories used by Moroccan EFL learners and Native speakers. Sub-section one focuses on the distribution use of internal modifications across the two groups, while sub-section two sheds light on the use of external modifications across groups.

Internal Modifications

Based on Figure 7 a number of remarks concerning the use of internal modifications by the two groups could be deduced. Internal modifications as mentioned before are divided into three levels (syntactic downgraders, Lexical/phrasal downgraders and Lexical upgraders). The first most regularly used internal modifications by Moroccan EFL learners which are politeness marker (26.2%) and consultative device (8.7%) which belong to the category of "Lexical downgraders", while the first most two used modifications used by native speakers, namely: Aspect (29.4%) and conditional (29.4%) belong to the category of "Syntactic Downgraders". Although consultative device was the

second most used modification used by Moroccan EFL learners, native speakers' use of this modification was higher (21%). Also, unlike Moroccan EFL learners who used politeness marker extensively, native speakers preferred to rarely use this strategy with a percentage of only (5%).

In addition, the least used internal modifications by Moroccan EFL learners were the use of Appealer, Cajolers and Understatements/Hedges. On the other side, native speakers avoided the use of Cajolers and Understatements/Hedges, and hardly ever use Appealers.

For the use of “lexical upgraders” which includes adverbial modifiers, native speakers' use (10.9%) surpasses Moroccan EFL learners' use (0.7%).

Figure 7: Percentage distribution internal modifications across groups

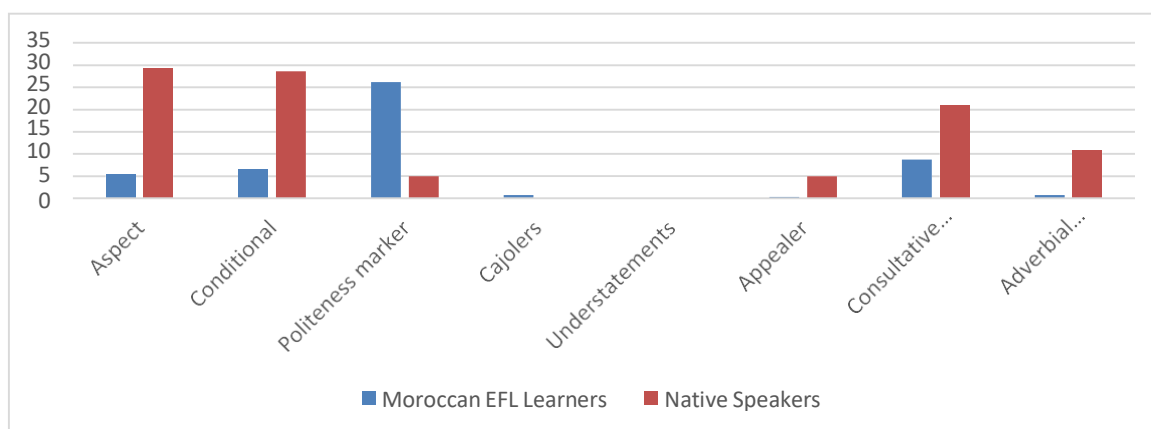


Table (38) Chi-Square Test for internal modifiers across informants' first language

	value	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pearson Chi-Square	29.285	1	-.058

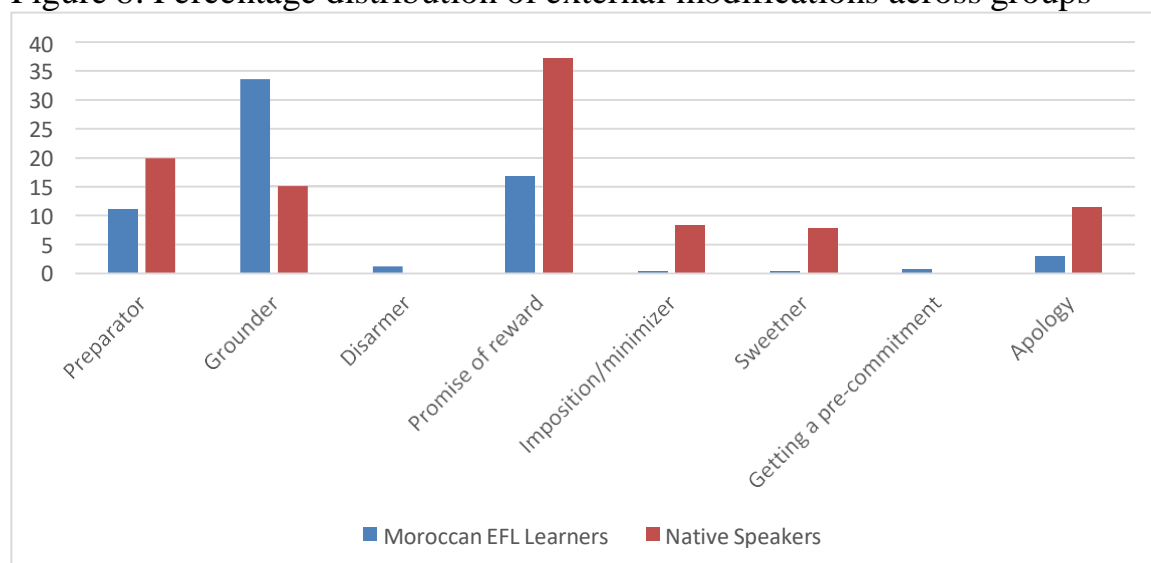
The Pearson Chi-Square on Table (38) depicts that there is no significant relationship between participants' nationality and the choice of internal modifications (The Pearson Chi-Square= 0.058 >0.05).

External Modifications

Promise of reward was the most useful external modification used by Native speakers with the highest percentage (37.3%), followed by the use of preparator (19.9%) then grounders (19.9%). As for Moroccan EFL learners, they overuse grounder (33.6%) followed by the use of promise of reward (16.9%) then preparator (11.2%).

Results on Figure 8 also reveal a very limited use of disarmer, and getting a pre-commitment by both groups. Concerning the use of apology for both groups was ranked the fourth; however, the use of this modification by native speakers (11.4%) exceeds its use by Moroccan EFL learners (3%).

Figure 8: Percentage distribution of external modifications across groups



The Pearson Chi-Square on Table (39) shows that there is significant relationship between informants' nationality and the choice of external modifications (The Pearson Chi-Square= 0.038 <0.05).

Table (39) Chi-Square Test for external modifier across informants' first language

	value	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pearson Chi-Square	38.157	40	.038

A Sociopragmatic Comparison of Moroccan EFL Learners' and Native Speakers' Realizations of Requests

The present section seeks to demonstrate the results which compare between the impact of social variables on Moroccan EFL Learners and native speakers' performance of request as a speech act. This section is divided into two major parts. The first one draws attention to the effect of social variables on native speakers' realizations of requests. The second one compares between the result of the effect of social variables on both Moroccan EFL learners and native speakers' realizations of the speech act of requests.

1.2.1. The Effect of Social Variables on Native Speakers' Realizations of Requests

As mentioned earlier, this section involves three sub-sections. Each one of them deals with the impact of social factors on native speakers' realization of requests. The first sub-section deals with native speakers' choice of request

categories. The second one focuses on their use of request strategies, and the last section treats the issue of modifications.

The following table (40) attempts at investigating the effect of the three variables (social status, social distance and rank of imposition) on native speakers' choice of requesting categories.

When it comes to the effect of social status and native speakers' choice of request categories, results on Table (40) show that within situations in which informants had to interact with someone of a lower social status, the majority (56.7%) preferred the use of "Conventionally indirect (hearer- oriented conditions)", followed by the use of "Indirect request" (21.7%). Only few informants used "Conventionally indirect "speaker- oriented conditions" and "direct requests".

Within situations in which participants are of equal social status, the majority (65%) used "Conventionally indirect (hearer- oriented conditions)", and (23.3%) used "Indirect request". Finally, "Conventionally indirect "speaker- oriented conditions" was avoided by all participants.

As for situations in which participants had to interact with someone of higher social status, the lion's share (78.3%) went to "Conventionally indirect "hearer- oriented conditions", the second one was "Indirect request" with a percentage of (21.7%) and the other two categories, "Conventionally indirect "speaker- oriented conditions" and "Direct requests" were totally ignored.

As for the impact of social distance on native speakers' choice of request categories, it is noticed that in situations in which the social distance between interlocutors is "Acquaintance", most of the participants (78.3%) opted for "Conventionally indirect "hearer- oriented conditions", and (11.7%) preferred the use of "Direct requests", while only (10%) used "Indirect requests".

However, within situations in which the social distance is between "strangers", it turns out that there is an equal percentage of (45%) for both "Indirect requests" and "Conventionally indirect "hearer-oriented conditions". Only (10%) used "Conventionally indirect (speaker- oriented conditions)", and all informants avoided direct requests. In situations in which the social distance is "intimate", (76.7%) used "Conventionally indirect "hearer- oriented conditions", while "Conventionally indirect (speaker- oriented conditions)" was avoided (Table: 40).

Within situations in which the *rank of imposition* is "High/big", the majority of participants (88.3%) used "Conventionally indirect "hearer- oriented conditions", and completely avoid the use of "Conventionally indirect "speaker-oriented conditions" and "Direct requests". Within situations in which the rank of imposition is "Low/small", (55.8%) used "Conventionally indirect "hearer-oriented conditions" Table (40).

Table (40) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and native speakers' use of request categories

Request Categories	Social power/Status		Social Distance		Rank of Imposition	
	Indirect Requests	High	21,7%	Acquaintance	10%	Low/Small
Equal		23.3%	Stranger	45%	High/Big	11,7%
Low		21.7%	Intimate	11,7%		
Conventionally Indirect (hearer-oriented conditions)	High	78.3%	Acquaintance	78.3%	Low/Small	55.8%
	Equal	65%	Stranger	45,0%	High/Big	88.3%
	Low	56.7%	Intimate	76.7%		
Conventionally Indirect (speaker-based conditions)	High	0,0%	Acquaintance	0,0%	Low/Small	5,0%
	Equal	0,0%	Stranger	10%	High/Big	0,0%
	Low	10%	Intimate	0,0%		
Direct Requests						
	High	0,0%	Acquaintance	11.7%	Low/Small	
	Equal	11,7%	Stranger	0,0%		11,7%

Low 11,7% **Intimate** 11,7% **High/Big** 0,0%

The next table (41) attempts at investigating native speakers' preference of requesting strategies and whether there is a relationship between the realization of the speech act of requesting and the different social variables (social status, social distance and rank of imposition).

Concerning the impact of social status and native speakers' use of requesting strategies, it seems that in situations in which the interaction is between speaker and receiver of a higher rank, the majority (23.3%) opted for "Willingness", followed by "Hints" and "Ability" with an equal proportion of (21.7%), and the lowest rank was for "wishes" with (10%). Also, of all the participants who preferred the use of "Wishes" and "Permission" use it (100%) within high

situations table (41).

Within situations of participant of equal social power, most of the participants used “willingness” (53%), followed by (23.3%) for “Hints”, then (11.7%) for “Imperatives”. In such situations there were a total ignorance of the use of both “Wishes” and “Permission”. Similarly, and within situations that participants interact with lower interacts, the majority preferred the use of “Willingness”, followed by “Ability” and “Hints”, and again the use of “Wishes” and “Permission” as well as “Imperative” were excluded.

As for the effect of social distance and native speakers’ use of requesting strategies, when the social distance between interacts is “Acquaintance”, the preferred request strategy was “Willingness” (55%), then “Ability” (23.3%) and finally, “Imperative” (11.7%). Yet, there was a complete ignorance of the other strategies.

As for situations in which participants’ performance was in “Intimate” social distance, most of them (45%) opted for “Ability” and (20%) for “willingness”, followed by an equal use of “Imperative”, “Hints”, and “permission” with a percentage of (11.7%) for each. Lastly, within situations in which participants are “strangers”, there was an equal use of “Hint” and “Willingness” with (45%) followed by the use of “wishes” (10%), and a complete avoidance of “Imperative”, and “Ability” (see table 41).

Table (41) also suggests that in situations in which the rank of imposition was “High/big”, “Ability” and “Willingness” were used extensively, followed by

the use of “Hints”. Yet, there was an avoidance of “Permission”, “Wishes”, and “Imperative”. On the other hand, and within situations in which the rank of imposition was “Low/small”, “Willingness” was used by (39%), “Hints” by (27.5%) and on the third rank (11%) for “Imperative” and finally (10.8%) for “Ability”. Also, the other strategies were infrequently used with very low percentages ranges between (5%).

Table (41) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and native speakers’ use of request strategies

Request Strategies	Social Power		Social Distance		Rank of Imposition	
	Hints	High	21.7%	Acquaintance	10,0%	Low/Small
Equal		23.3%	Stranger	45%	High/Big	11,7%
Low		21.7%	Intimate	11.7%		
Ability	High	21.7%	Acquaintance	23.3%	Low/Small	10.8%
	Equal	11,7%	Stranger	0,0%	High/Big	46,7%
	Low	35,0%	Intimate	45%		
Willingness	High	23.3%	Acquaintance	55%	Low/Small	39%
	Equal	53%	Stranger	45%	High/Big	41,7%
	Low	43,3%	Intimate	20%		
Permission	High	100%	Acquaintance	0,0%	Low/Small	5,8%
	Equal	0,0%	Stranger	0,0%	High/Big	0,0%
	Low	0,0%	Intimate	11.7%		
Imperatives	High	11.7%	Acquaintance	11.7%	Low/Small	
	Equal	11.7%	Stranger	0,0%	High/Big	11%
	Low	0,0%	Intimate	11.7%		
Wishes	High	100%	Acquaintance	0,0%	Low/Small	5,0%
	Equal	0,0%	Stranger	10%	High/Big	0,0%
	Low	0,0%	Intimate	0,0%		

As for the effect of social variables on the use of native speakers’ use of Modifications, and while examining the relationship between *social status* and the

use of *internal modifications*, it was noticed that most of the respondents equally

opted for both “Aspect” and “conditional”, within situations of “High” social status. Also, it was remarked, from table (42), that “politeness marker” (12.8%) was used only in this type of situations, and no use of “Appealer” and “Adverbial intensifiers”.

Within situations of “Equal” interlocutors’ social status, the majority used “Aspect” (35.9%), followed by (33.3%) for “Adverbial modifiers”. “Consultative device” and “Appealer” were in third rank with (15.4%). As for the use of “politeness marker”, it was ignored.

Within situations in which informants were interacting with someone of “Lower” social status, the majority preferred “Conditional” (60%) followed by “Aspect” (21.2%), and (18.2%) for “consultative device”. Also, there was no use of “politeness marker”, “Appealer” nor “Adverbial modifiers”.

Concerning the investigation of the effect of social distance on the use of native speakers’ use of internal modifications, results indicate that more than half of participants within “acquaintance” opted for syntactic downgraders, (52.5%) used “conditional” and (17.55%) “Aspect”, followed by (15%) for each of “Consultative device” and “Appealer”. However, the use of “Politeness marker” and “Adverbial modifiers” were absents. Within situations in which participants were “stranger”, the highest percentage was taken by the use of “Aspect” (44.5%), then by the use of “Adverbial modifiers” (27.7%). Also, there was no use of “Appealer” and “Politeness marker”. Within situations in which the interaction between informants were “Intimate”, the highest percentage went to “consultative

device” (40.6%), followed by (21.9%) for “Aspect”. Surprisingly, of all the participants who used “politeness marker” use it only when interacting with intimate people. However, of all participants who used “Adverbial modifiers” (100%) use it with strangers. As for “Appealer”, was used only when participants were addressing someone of higher rank.

Table (42) reveals that within situations of “High/big” imposition the use of “Conditional”, was strongly present followed by “Consultative device”, whereas there was a complete avoidance of the use of “Politeness marker” and “Appealer”. Within situations of “Low/small” imposition, the highest percentage went to the use of “Aspect” (32%), followed by the use of “Conditional” (24.1%) and then “Consultative device” (14.9%).

Table (42) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and natives’ use of internal modifications

Internal modifications	Social power/Status		Social Distance		Rank of Imposition	
<i>Aspect</i>	High	29,8%	Acquaintance	17,55%	Low/Small	32%
	Equal	35,9%	Stranger	44,5%		
<i>Conditional</i>	Low	21,2%	Intimate	21,9%	High/Big	21,9%
	High	29,8%	Acquaintance	52,5%	Low/Small	24,1%
	Equal	0,0%	Stranger	14,9%	High/Big	40,6%
	Low	60,6%	Intimate	18,8%		
<i>Politeness maker</i>	High	12,8%	Acquaintance	0,0%	Low/Small	6,9%
	Equal	0,0%	Stranger	0,0%	High/Big	0,0%
	Low	0,0%	Intimate	18,8%		
<i>Appealer</i>	High	0,0%	Acquaintance	15%	Low/Small	
	Equal	15,4%	Stranger	0,0%		6,9%

	Low	0,0%	Intimate	0,0%	High/Big	0,0%
<i>Consultative device</i>	High	27,7%	Acquaintance	15%	Low/Small	14,9%
	Equal	15,4%	Stranger	12,8%	High/Big	37,5%
	Low	18,2%	Intimate	40,6%		
Adverbial modifiers	High	0,0%	Acquaintance	0,0%	Low/Small	14,9%
	Equal	33,3%	Stranger	27,7%	High/Big	0,0%
	Low	0,0%	Intimate	0,0%		

In analyzing the effect of *social status* on the use of *external modifications*, table (43) shows that the majority of participants preferred the use of “Promise of reward”, followed by “Grounder” and “Sweetener”, whereas they avoid the use of “Preparator” and “Imposition/minimizer”, within situations in which they had to interact with a person of “Higher” social status. Within situations in which participants have “Equal” social status, “Preparator” was ranked as the first external modification used by participants followed by “Promise of reward” and “Imposition/minimizer”. “Sweetener” and “Apology” were hardly used in such case.

Within situations in which the interaction is between the participant and a person of a “lower” social status, the use of “Promise of reward” with a proportion of (45%) was the most modification used, followed by “Preparator” with (21%). Lastly, there was no use of “Imposition/minimizer” and “Sweetener”.

Table (43) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and native speakers' use of external modifications

External modifications	Social power/Status		Social Distance		Rank of Imposition	
Preparator	High	0,0%	Acquaintance	11,3%	Low/Small	17,9%
	Equal	33,3%	Stranger	24,5%	High/Big	23,3%
	Low	21%	Intimate	11,3%		
Grounder	High	26,1%	Acquaintance	11,3%	Low/Small	11,3%
	Equal	0,0%	Stranger	11,3%	High/Big	21,7%
	Low	21,7%	Intimate	21,7%		
Sweetener	High	15,2%	Acquaintance	0,0%	Low/Small	12,3%
	Equal	10,0%	Stranger	24,5%	High/Big	0,0%
	Low		Intimate	0,0%		
Promise of reward		0,0%			Low/Small	39,6%
	High	45,7%	Acquaintance	52,8%		
	Equal	23,3%	Stranger	26,4%		
Imposition/Minimizer	Low	45%	Intimate	33,3%	High/Big	33,3%
	High	0,0%	Acquaintance	13,2%	Low/Small	6,6%
	Equal	23,3%	Stranger	0,0%	High/Big	
Apology	Low		Intimate	11,7%	Low/Small	12,3%
	High	0,0%	Acquaintance	11,3%		
	Equal	10,0%	Stranger	13,2%		

Low 11,7% **Intimate** 10,0% **High/Big** 10,0%

As for the effect of *social distance* on native speakers' use of external modifications, results show that within situations in which there is a kind of acquaintance between interlocutors, again "Promise of reward" was first ranked

with (52.8%), followed by the use of “Imposition/minimizer” and finally, with an equal percentage for “Apology”, “preparator” and “Grounder”.

It was also noted that “Promise of reward” was the most frequently used external modification in three different social distances whereas, there was an absence in the use of “Sweetener” in both situations of acquaintance as well intimate relationship (See: Table (43)).

Finally, table (43) reveals that “promise of reward” was the most frequently used external modification in both situations of “High/big” *rank of imposition* as well as “Low/small” rank of imposition. The second most used modification was “preparator” in a less percentage for both cases. However, “Apology” was the least frequently used in situations of “High/big”. Besides, the use of “Imposition/minimizer” took the least percentage for situations of “Low/small”.

I.2.2. A Comparison of the Results of the Effect of Social Variables on both Moroccan EFL learners’ and Native Speakers’ Realizations of the Speech Act of Requests

The current section aims at exploring any potential effect of the different social variables such as social distance, social status/power and the rank of imposition on the realizations of the speech act of requests by Moroccan EFL learners and native speakers. The following sub-sections present the results of chi-square tests.

To achieve the objectives of this research, it was necessary to investigate the impact of social variables on the users' choice of request categories, strategies, as well as request modifications, including internal and external modifications.

Table (44) indicates that there is a significant positive association between the choice of the category of request strategies (the level of directness) and social status/power, social distance and the rank of imposition for Moroccan EFL learners. It seems that Moroccan EFL learners use direct requests only when addressing a person of a lower social power. Put differently, the degree of directness in performing the speech act of request is determined by the power that the speaker owns. Furthermore, the use of indirect strategies (hints) was mostly used between strangers. Thus, the more the social distance between interlocutors is intimate the more direct the request become.

Table (44) Chi-Square Tests for MEFL and NS' choice of the category of request strategies across social variables

	Categories	<i>Social Distance</i>	<i>Social Power</i>	<i>Rank of Imposition</i>
<i>Moroccan EFL learners</i>	Spearman correlation	.074*	.092*	-.177
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.043	.012	.000
<i>Native speakers</i>	N	744	744	744
	Spearman correlation	-.006	.161*	-.825
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.934	.031	.017
	N	180	180	180

Also, in terms of rank of imposition, it sounds that the more the level of imposition imposed on the receiver's freedom acting was high/big the less direct the speaker become. Suggestory formulae and permission were mainly used when the hearer was in a higher social status and was avoided when he/she was in lower social status.

There is a huge gap in the use of direct strategies between native speakers and Moroccan EFL learners, given that native speakers' use of these strategies is far more less than Moroccan EFL learners. However, still like Moroccan EFL learners, the less power the speaker had, the more indirect the request become. Also, speakers tended to use wishes and permissions when they are addressing a person of higher social status.

Table (45) Chi-Square Tests for MEFL and NS' use of internal modification across social variables

	Internal modification	<i>Social Distance</i>	<i>Social Power</i>	<i>Rank of Imposition</i>
<i>Moroccan EFL learners</i>	Spearman correlation	.017	.151**	-.082*
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.639	.000	.025
	N	744	744	744
<i>Native speakers</i>	Spearman correlation	.690	.073	.813
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.037	.429	.022
	N	180	180	180

For Moroccan EFL learners, results on table (45) demonstrate that there was a strong evidence of a relationship between both social power and rank of imposition on the use of internal modifications. Similarly, there was a significant correlation between imposition and native speakers' choice of internal modifications. Whereas social power was found not to be significant, instead there was a significant correlation between the use of internal modifications and social distance.

At the level of the use of external modifications, as presented in table (46), social distance as well as rank of imposition appear to statistically correlate with Moroccan EFL learners' use of external modifications when realizing the speech act of request. On the contrary, native speakers' reactions were found to be insignificant to the different social variables in the use of external modifications.

Table (46) Chi-Square Tests for MEFL and NS' use of external modification across social variables

	External modification	<i>Social Distance</i>	<i>Social Power</i>	<i>Rank of Imposition</i>
<i>Moroccan EFL learners</i>	Spearman correlation	-.128**	-.012	.184**
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.000	.744	.000
	N	744	744	744
<i>Native speakers</i>	Spearman correlation	-.002	-.100	.087
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.981	.200	.263
	N	180	180	180

II. Pragmatic Transfer in the Speech Act of Refusal

This part compares Moroccan EFL learners' and Native Speakers' realizations of refusals. It embraces three sections. The first section provides an overview of the differences and similarities between Moroccan EFL learners' and native speakers' pragmalinguistic choices in performing refusals.

The second section aims at generating the impact of social factors (social status/social distance/gender) on native speakers' realizations of refusals. The preceding section paves the way for the next section in which the focus is on the sociopragmatic comparison between Moroccan EFL learners' and native speakers' realizations of refusals.

A Pragmalinguistic Comparison between Moroccan EFL Learners' and Native Speakers' Realizations of Refusals

This section tries to compare between Moroccan EFL learners' and native speakers' use of the speech act of refusals. It compares the two groups' preferences of the different refusal strategies, direct strategies, indirect strategies and adjuncts to refusals.

Figure 9 demonstrates that there are numeral dissimilarities between Moroccan EFL learners and native speakers in their choices of refusal categories. Native speakers' highest proportion with (60%) went to joining between the use of two categories, that is they mix between "Indirect refusals" and "Adjuncts to refusals, whereas Moroccan EFL learners' of this category was very low with a mere percentage of (8.4%). The majority (30.6%) of Moroccan EFL learners

preferred the use of “Indirect refusals”, however, still the use of this type was superior within native speakers (36.1%).

“Direct refusals” was the second privileged category chosen by Moroccan EFL learners, followed by an equal use of both “Direct and adjuncts to refusals” and “Direct and indirect refusals”. Yet, Native speakers avoided the use of “Direct refusals”, and “Direct and adjuncts to refusals” as well as “Adjuncts to refusals”.

Figure (9): Percentage distribution of refusal categories across groups

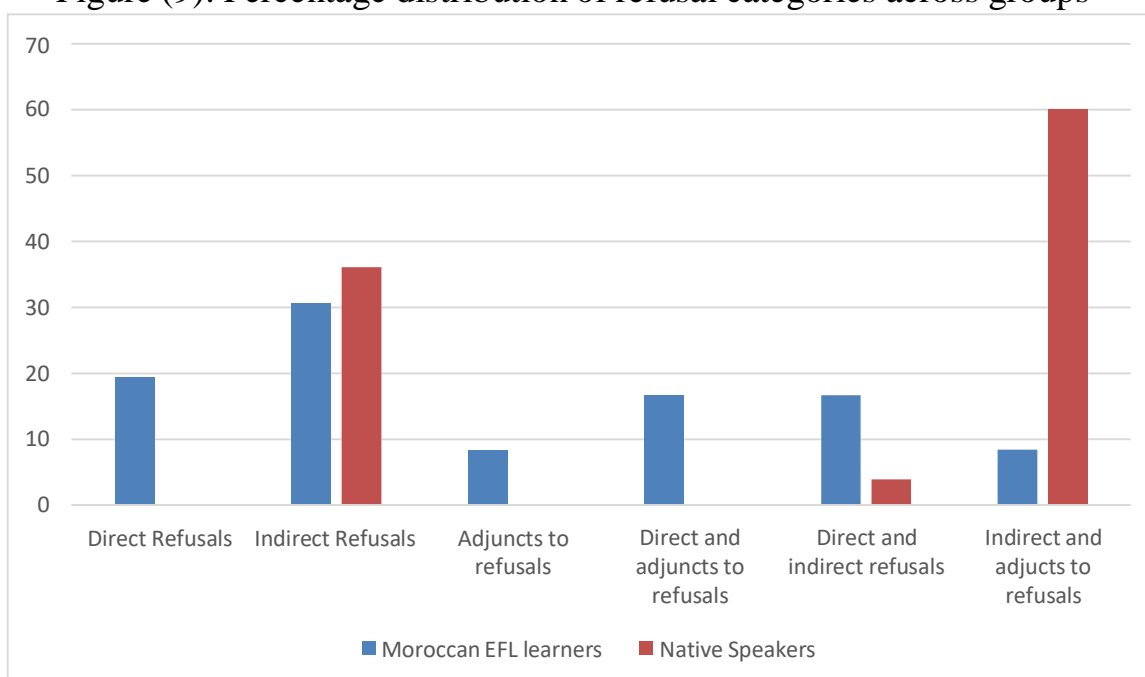
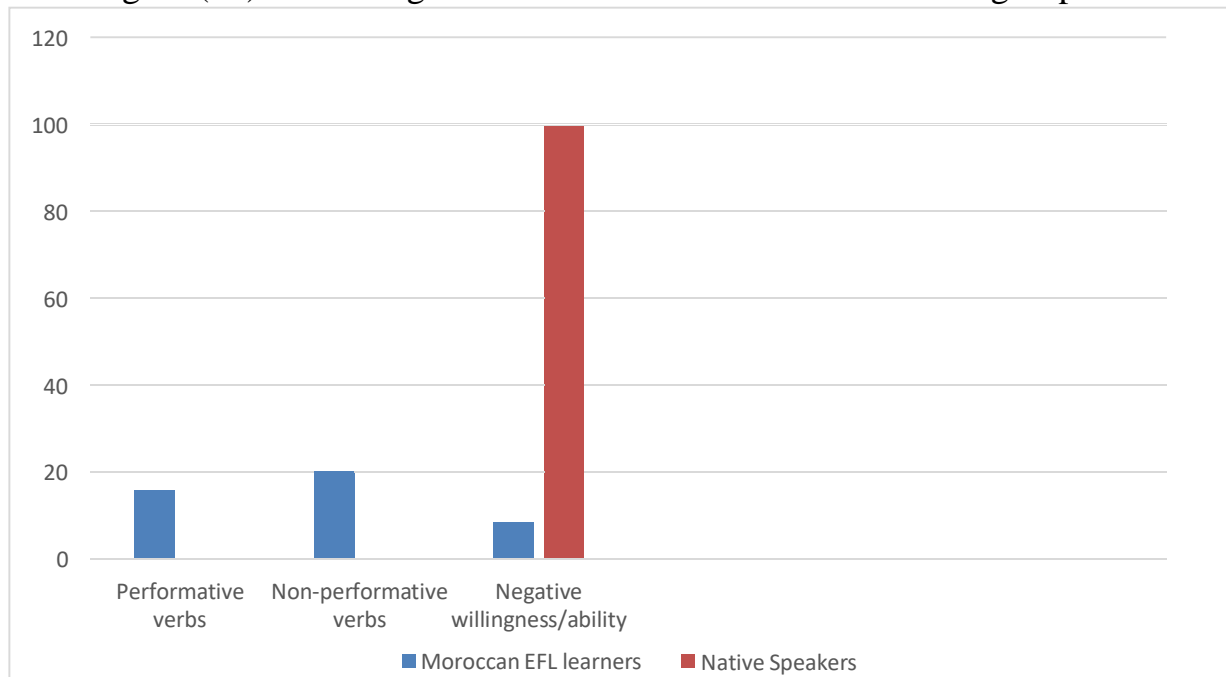


Figure 10 compares between the use of Moroccan EFL learners and Native speakers’ use of the first category, namely, “Direct refusals”. This category contains three major types (performative verbs, non-performative verbs and negative willingness/ability). Results show that compared to native speakers who preferred the use of only “negative willingness/ability”, Moroccan informants’ use of direct refusals has witnessed a variety of uses. Nevertheless, the use of “negative willingness/ability” took the highest percentage (63.2%), followed by

(21.1%) for “non-performative verbs”, and lastly (15.7%) for “performative verbs”.

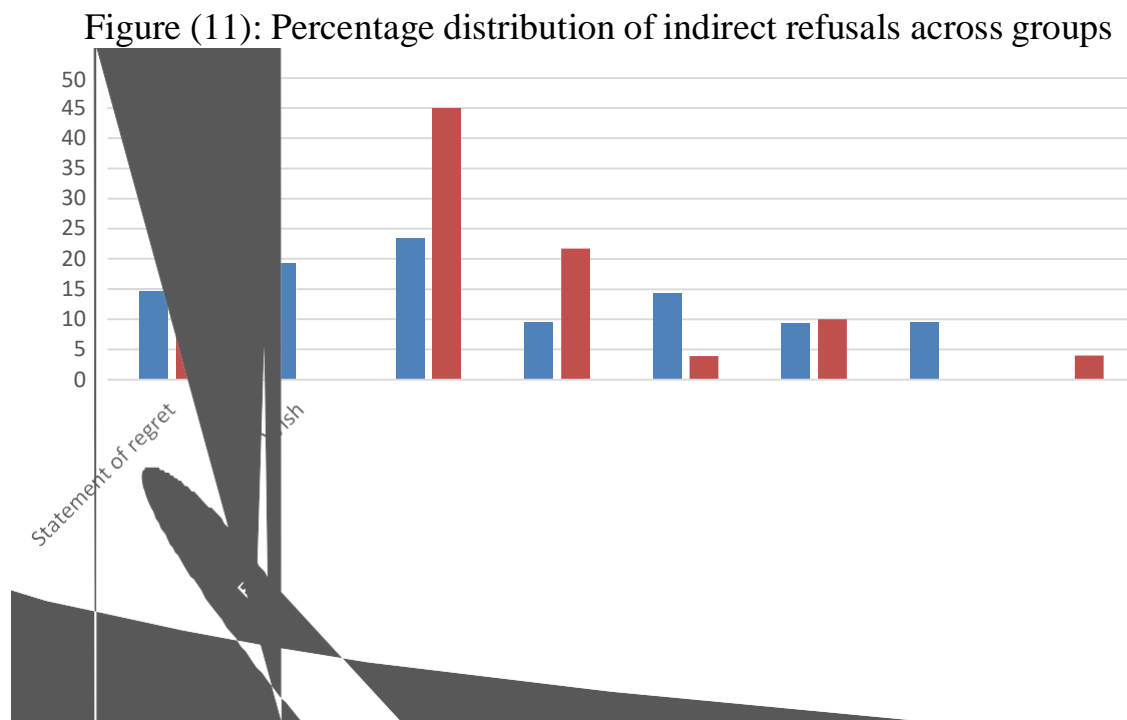
Figure (10): Percentage distribution of direct refusals across groups



The following figure 11 shows significant differences as well as a kind of affinity between the use of indirect strategies between Moroccan EFL learners and native speakers. The use of “Excuse, reason, explanation” was ranked first in both groups. While (4.5%) of the native speakers use it, (23.4%) of Moroccan EFL learners opted for this strategy.

Also, there was a complete avoidance of the use of both “Wish” and “Attempt to dissuade interlocutor” by native speakers, whereas for Moroccan participants “Wish” took the second highest percentage with (19.3%) and (9.5%) for “Attempt to dissuade interlocutor”. On the contrary, “Statement of alternative” was overused by native informants (21.7%) and rarely used by Moroccan

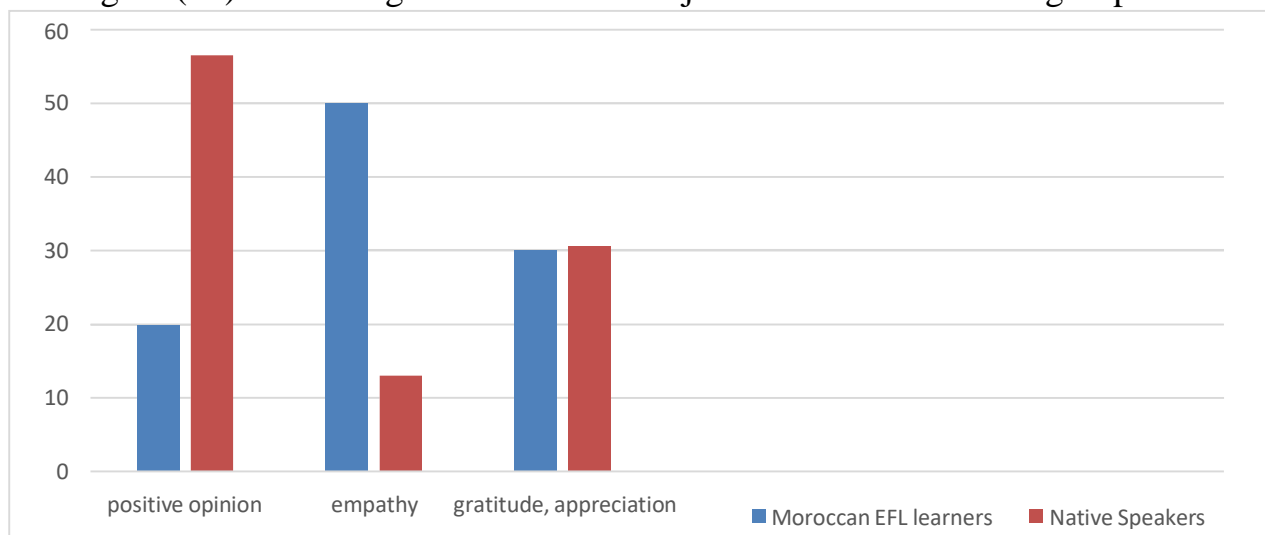
informants (9.5%). Also, Moroccan EFL learners ignored the use of “Statement of principle”, while native speakers tend to occasionally use it.



As for the use of “Adjuncts to refusals”, more than half of Moroccan participants preferred the use of “Statement of positive opinion/feeling/agreement”, whereas native speakers’ use of this strategy was the lowest compared to their use of refusal strategies.

On the contrary, “Statement of empathy”, half of Moroccan informants preferred to use it whereas it was the least frequently used by native participants. Finally, the use of “Show of gratitude/appreciation” was almost equally used by both groups.

Figure (12): Percentage distribution of adjuncts to refusals across groups



A Sociopragmatic Comparison between Moroccan EFL Learners' and Native Speakers' Realizations of Refusals

This part attempts at investigating the extent to which certain different social patterns impact performing the speech act of refusal by both Moroccan EFL learners and native speakers. It is split into two sections. The first one presents the results of analyzing the effect of social factors (social status/distance and gender) on native speakers' choices and preferences in performing refusals. The second section attempts at comparing between the results of the two groups.

The Effect of Social Factors on Native Speakers' Realizations of Refusals

This section is intended to investigate the effect of variables (social status, social distance and gender) on the choice of refusal categories and refusal strategies opted by Native speakers.

The Effect of Social Variables on the Use of Refusal Strategies

This section sheds light on the effect of the various social factors on native speakers' choice of the refusal categories (Direct refusal, indirect refusal, and adjuncts to refusals). The section is divided into three main sub-sections each of them deals with one of the above mentioned factors.

Table (47) depicts that within all situations with different *social status*, native speakers' use of categories took the same ranking which is: the use of "Indirect and adjuncts", followed by "Indirect" and finally "Direct and indirect".

However, there were slight dissimilarities in the percentages within each social status. Within situations in which participants were interacting with a person of "High" social status, most of the participants (55%) opted for "Indirect and adjuncts", and the lowest percentage was for "Direct and indirect". Also, within situations of both "Equal" and "Low" social status, there was a complete avoidance of combining between "Direct and indirect".

Table (47) also indicates that within situations in which the interaction is between acquaintances (as a *social distance*), the majority (78.3%) preferred the use of combining between "Indirect and adjuncts", then combining between "Direct and indirect refusals" (11.7%). Moreover, within situations in which the interaction between participants is intimate, the majority went for the use of "Indirect and adjuncts" (55%), but followed by the use of "indirect refusals" (45%). The use of "Indirect" exceeds the other categories within situations in

which participants were strangers (53%). Also, there was a complete avoidance of the combination of “Direct and indirect refusals” when situations were between intimates as well as strangers.

Table (47) also demonstrates that the speakers’ preferences regarding *gender* were almost the same. However, taking into account the categories there were some dissimilarities. For instance, within participants who opted for “direct and indirect refusals”, (85.7%) were female and only (14.3%) were male.

Table (47) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and native speakers’ choice of refusal categories

Refusal Categories	Social power/Status		Social Distance		Gender	
<i>Indirect refusals</i>	High	33,3%	Acquaintance	10,0%	Male	43,1%
	Equal	33,3%	Stranger	53%	Female	56,9%
	Low	41,7%	Intimate	45%		
<i>Direct and indirect</i>	High	11,7%	Acquaintance	11,7%	Male	14,3%
	Equal	0,0%	Stranger	0,0%	Female	85,7%
	Low	0,0%	Intimate	0,0%		
<i>Indirect adjunct and</i>	High	55%	Acquaintance	78,3%	Male	48,1%
	Equal	66,7%	Stranger	46,7%	Female	51,9%
	Low	58,3%	Intimate	55%		

As for native speakers’ use of indirect strategies, table below (48) demonstrates that within situations in which participants’ interactions were with a person of “High” *social status*, the majority (66.7%) preferred the use of “Excuse, reason, explanation” as an indirect refusal strategy. “Statement of

alternative” and “statement of regret” were the second most frequently used with

(11.7%) for each, followed with “Promise of future acceptance”. Yet, the use of “Statement of principle” and “Set condition for future acceptance” were not present.

In the same vein, and within situations of participants of “Equal” status, the majority (33%) preferred the use of “Excuse, reason, explanation”, followed by the use of “Statement of alternative”, then “Promise of future acceptance”. Again there was a total ignorance of “Statement of principle” and “Set condition for future acceptance”. Concerning situations in which participants were interacting with a person of “lower” status, there was a total avoidance of the use of “Promise of future acceptance”, and a minority of (3.9%) opted for the use of “Statement of principle”.

Within situations in which the *social distance* between interlocutors was “Acquaintance”, or “Strange”, the majority of informants’ choice went to the use of “Excuse, reason, explanation”. Also, there was a complete ignorance of the use of “Statement of regret” and “Statement of alternative” for the former, and “Promise for future acceptance”, “Set condition for future or past acceptance”, and “Statement of principle” for the latter. Yet, within situations in which the social distance was “Low” the majority opted for “Statement of alternative”, and avoided the use of “Statement of principle” and “Set condition for future or past acceptance” (see: Table (48)).

As for gender, of all participants who opted for “Set condition for future or past acceptance”, the majority (85.7%) of these participants were females, while

only (14.3%) of them were males. Similarly, the use of “Promise of future acceptance” was overused by females (84.2%) compared to the use of males (15.8%). On the contrary, the use of “Statement of principle” was only the option of males (100%) and completely ignored by female participants (see: Table 48).

Table (48) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and native speakers’ use of indirect refusals

Indirect refusals	Social power/Status		Social Distance		Gender	
	Statemet of regret Excuse,reason, explanation	High	11,7%	Acquaintance	0,0%	Male
Equal		10,0%	Stranger	33,3%	Female	40,7%
Low		23,3%	Intimate	11,7%		
High		66,7%	Acquaintance	55,0%	Male	

As for the effect of social variables on the use of direct refusals, the following table (49) shows that all native speakers who opted for “Negative willingness/ability” as a direct refusal strategy use it when the *social status* between the other party is of a higher social status. Also, when it comes to *social distance*, all of the participants used only this strategy within situations of acquaintance.

Concerning gender, table (49) indicates that among all participants who opted for “Negative willingness/ability”, the majority (85.7%) were female and only (14.3%) were male.

Table (49) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and native speakers’ use of direct refusals

Direct refusals	Social power/Status		Social Distance		Gender	
	<i>Negative Willingness/Ability</i>	High	100,0%	Acquaintance	100,0%	Male
Equal		0.0%	Stranger	0.0%	Female	85.7%
Low		0.0%	Intimate	0.0%		

As for the effect of social variables on the use of adjuncts to refusals, results show that within situations in which the other party is of a “Higher” *social status*, the most frequently used adjunct to refusals was “Statement that shows gratitude /appreciation” (57.6%), followed by the use of “Statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement” (42.4%), but the use of “Statement of empathy” was avoided. Yet, within situations in which participants were “Equal” in terms of their social status, the only strategy used with (100%) was “Statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement”. Finally, within situations in which

participants were interacting with a person of “lower” social status, the least frequently used strategy was “Statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement” (20%), and the majority opted equally for both “Statement of empathy” and “Statement that show gratitude /appreciation” See table (50).

Results on table (50) show that the use of “Statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement” was the first most frequently used in all the different *social distances*. However, “Statement of empathy” was totally avoided in situations where the social distance between interlocutors was “Intimate or stranger”.

The use of “Statement that shows gratitude /appreciation”, was most frequently used within situations in which the interaction was between strangers (50%) and least frequently used when the interaction is “intimate”.

Table (50) Cross-tabulation of the relation between social variables and native speakers’ use of adjunct to refusals

Adjuncts to refusals	Social power/Status		Social Distance		Gender	
statement of positive opinion / feeling/ agreement	High	42.4%	Acquaintance	42,6%	Male	44,3%
	Equal	100%	Stranger	50,0%	Female	55,7%
	Low	20%	Intimate	81,8%		
Statement of empathy	High	0,0%	Acquaintance	29,8%	Male	57,1%
	Equal	0,0%	Stranger	0,0%	Female	42,9%
	Low	40,0%	Intimate	0,0%		
Adjuncts that show gratitude/appreciation	High	57.6%	Acquaintance	27,7%	Male	51,5%
	Equal	0,0%	Stranger	50%	Female	48,5%
	Low	40,0%	Intimate	18,2%		

Moreover, *table (50)* shows that there are similar preferences of the use of adjuncts to refusals between males and females. Both males' and females' preference of this category went to the use of "Statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement", followed with the use of "Statement that shows gratitude /appreciation" and finally, "Statement of empathy" was the last choice for both groups.

A Comparison of the Effect of Social Variables on both Moroccan EFL learners' and Native Speakers' Realizations of the Speech Act of Refusals

The present section intended at investigating the effect of the various social variables such as social distance, social status/power and gender on the realizations of the speech act of refusals by Moroccan EFL learners and native speakers. In other words, the section takes into account the third research question that tackles the issue of pragmatic transfer.

The following tables present the results of chi-square tests in order to test the earlier – mentioned hypothesis. To attain the purposes of this research, it was necessary to study the impact of social variables on the users' choice of refusal categories.

Table (51) depicts that there is a relationship between social power and gender and Moroccan EFL learners' choice of refusal types. In terms of social status/ power, the higher the social power of the hearer the more indirect the refusal became. As for gender, male seem to prefer the use of indirect refusals followed by direct refusals, while females preferred combining between direct

Table (51) Chi-Square Tests for MEFL and NS' choice of the category of refusal strategies across social variables.

	Categories	<i>Social Distance</i>	<i>Social Power</i>	<i>Gender</i>
<i>Moroccan EFL learners</i>	Spearman correlation	-.065	-.355	.231
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.414	.000	.000
	N	738	738	738
<i>Native speakers</i>	Spearman correlation	-.322	-.021	.006
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.000	.895	.896
	N	180	180	180

refusals along with adjuncts to refusals and combining direct with indirect strategies in their performance. However, for native speakers, there was significant correlation between social distance and the category chosen. In other words, the more the interaction between interlocutors was between strangers the more use of indirect refusals along with adjuncts to refusals were used.

Table (52) Chi-Square Tests for MEFL and NS' the use of indirect refusal strategies across social variables

	Indirect	<i>Social Distance</i>	<i>Social Power</i>	<i>Gender</i>
<i>Moroccan EFL learners</i>	Spearman correlation	-.370	.354	-.107
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.000	.000	.008
	N	431	431	431
<i>Native speakers</i>	Spearman correlation	-.433	.096	.066
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.000	.202	.160
	N	180	180	180

At the level of indirect refusal strategies, table (52) shows that there is a significant correlation between the use of these strategies and social distance and power. Yet, for native speakers, there was only a correlation between these strategies and social distance.

Table (53) Chi-Square Tests for MEFL and NS' the use of adjunct to refusals strategies across social variables

	Adjunct	<i>Social Distance</i>	<i>Social Power</i>	<i>Gender</i>
<i>Moroccan EFL learners</i>	Spearman correlation	-.802	-.143	.288
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.000	.661	.000
	N	206	206	206
<i>Native speakers</i>	Spearman correlation	.026	.033	-.222
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.762	.421	.015
	N	180	180	180

According to table (53), there is a strong evidence of a correlation between social distance and gender and the use of Moroccan EFL learners' use of adjunct to refusals. As for native speakers they did not base their choices of strategies within this category or any of the variables except gender.

III. The Effect of Students' Level on Moroccan EFL learners' performance of speech acts (Requests & Refusals)

The following part briefly sheds light on the impact of Students' level on Moroccan EFL learners' performance of the speech acts requests and refusals. It attempts to explore the fourth research question.

Question 4

To what extent does the students' level affect their performance in using the speech acts of requests and refusals?

Hypothesis 4

Students' level has a huge impact on the students' performance on the speech acts of requests and refusals.

Table (54) Cross-tabulation of the relation between MEFL' results of Awareness test and academic level

Crosstab						
				studnets level		Total
				1st year	3rd year	
Awareness test check answer	correct	Count	541	640	1181	
		% within Awareness test check answer	45,8%	54,2%	100,0%	
		% within studnets level	54,6%	79,0%	65,6%	
		% of Total	30,1%	35,6%	65,6%	
	Incorrect	Count	449	170	619	
		% within Awareness test check answer	72,5%	27,5%	100,0%	
		% within studnets level	45,4%	21,0%	34,4%	
		% of Total	24,9%	9,4%	34,4%	
Total	Count	990	810	1800		
	% within Awareness test check answer	55,0%	45,0%	100,0%		
	% within studnets level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%		
	% of Total	55,0%	45,0%	100,0%		

Results from table (54) indicate that (54.6%) of 1st year students' answers were correct while (45.4%) of their answers were incorrect. On the contrary, 3rd year students' performance was dissimilar, (79%) of their answers which represents the majority were correct and only (21%) were incorrect.

Table (55) Chi-Square Test for students' performance (AT) across students' level

	value	df	sig
	117.224	1	.000

According to table (55), there is statically significant relationship between the students' level and their performance of the speech acts of requests and refusals.

Table (56) Cross-tabulation of the relation between MEFL' results of multiple choice questionnaire and academic level

			students level		Total
			1st year	3rd year	
Multiple choice	correct	Count	155	295	450
		% within Multiple choice	34,4%	65,6%	100,0%
		% within studnets level	31,3%	72,8%	50,0%
	incorrect	% of Total	17,2%	32,8%	50,0%
		Count	340	110	450
		% within Multiple choice	75,6%	24,4%	100,0%
		% within studnets level	68,7%	27,2%	50,0%
		% of Total	37,8%	12,2%	50,0%
		Total	Count	495	405
Total	% within Multiple choice	55,0%	45,0%	100,0%	
	% within studnets level	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
	% of Total	55,0%	45,0%	100,0%	

Table (56) while the majority of 1st year students' answers in multiple choice questionnaire were incorrect, most of 3rd year students' answers were

correct (72%). These results go hand in hand with the Chi-square table (98) which proves that there is a very strong evidence of a relationship between students' level and performance.

Table (57) Chi-Square Test for students' performance (MCQ) across students' level

	value	df	sig
	153.64	1	.000

Chapter Four: Discussion

Chapter Four: Discussion

This chapter seeks to discuss and summarize the findings of current study, in the light of previous studies. It is composed of four major parts. The first part tackles the issue of pragmalinguistic realizations of Moroccan EFL learners of the speech act of request and refusal. The second one handles the sociopragmatic variations in the realization of the speech acts of requests and refusals. The third part provides an overview of the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic similarities and differences between Moroccan EFL learners and native speakers. The last part underlines the relation between students' academic level and their use of the two speech acts under study.

I. Moroccan EFL Learners' Pragmalinguistic Realizations of the Speech Acts of Requests and Refusal

This part seeks to review and discuss the previously mentioned results that concern the linguistic forms used by Moroccan EFL learners in performing the speech acts of requests and refusals. The part itself is divided into two sections. Each section treats one of the speech acts.

Moroccan EFL Learners' Pragmalinguistic Realizations of the Speech Acts of Requests

The following sub-sections focus on discussing the different elements within the pragmalinguistic field of request. Sub-section one focuses on Moroccan EFL learners' use of request strategies. The second one underlines their use of modifications including internal and external modifications.

Request categories and strategies

As mentioned in the previous chapter, Moroccan EFL learners prefer the use of “Conventionally indirect “hearer oriented conditions” and “Indirect requests”. On the other hand, they underused the strategy of “Conventionally indirect “speaker oriented conditions” as well as “Direct requests”. Latif’s (2014) findings showed that Moroccan EFL learners preferred the use of conventionally indirect strategies over direct strategies, while the use of indirect strategies (hints) were infrequently used.

Also, Tabar, M. (2012) results showed that Iranian Turkish bilingual speakers tended to opt for indirect strategies to perform their requests. Furthermore, Eslami-Rasekh (1993) study where she explored request strategies used by Persian speakers and American native speakers, demonstrated that the former’s use of direct requests were far more than native speakers. In general, it seems that the use of conventionally indirect requests is universal based on numerous studies that came out with the same conclusions (Blum-Kulka et al. (1984), Lin (2008), Zhan and Wang (1997)).

Moreover, it was concluded that Moroccan participants prefer using two strategies namely, ability and willingness, on the other hand, they seldom use suggestory formulae and permission. Among the numerous strategies that belong to the category of direct strategies, the only strategy that Moroccan EFL learners choose to use is imperatives. Also, Latif (2014) results confirm that Moroccan EFL learners’ use of suggestory formulae was very uncommon.

Modifications

Concerning the use of modifications by Moroccan EFL learners, it was obvious that external modifications are overused compared to the use of internal modifications. However, most of them prefer to combine the use of both modifications in the same request, and very few choose not to use any.

Internal modifications

As mentioned in the previous chapter, almost half of Moroccan participants evade the use of internal modifications. Of those who use internal modifications, hardly ever use upgraders and opt for downgraders. The first mostly used modification belongs to the category of “lexical downgraders”. The only two types politeness markers used are (the use of the word **please**) which is used by almost all participants who choose this type, and (**do you think you could...?**) which is used by only one person. Latif (2014) also confirmed that Moroccan EFL learners overused politeness markers.

This was also consistent with the results of Altasan (2016) and Hill (1997). As for syntactic downgraders Moroccan EFL learners tend to use conditional (...**if**...) followed by the use of aspect (**I was wondering if**...).

In general, the use of internal modifications is a very intricate and complex process that requires more language skills. This argument may explain the reason behind the rare use of internal modifications. (Altasan (2016); Hassall (2001)). There is another reason that was also revealed by Hassall (2001) which is the fact that most of the internal modifications are not transferable to the user’s first

language. Thus, in such case it is harder for non-native speakers to use them especially if their level is not that advanced.

However, for the politeness marker “please” which is used frequently, is strongly related to a word that is used by Moroccan Arabic “Darija” /affāk/ and relatively close to a word used by Standard Arabic / arğūk/. It is also approximately close to the French word / s'il te plaît/, which Moroccans are acquainted with since French is considered as first foreign language in Morocco.

External modifications

External or supportive moves are found to be overused compared to internal modifications by language learners. The reason of this occurrence might be attributed to the fact that this type of modifications as stated by (Faerch and Kasper (1989) in Hassall (2001) “is more explicit in their politeness function” (p.273). In other words, while internal modifiers are as their name necessitates “internal” and most of the times are unnoticed by EFL learners and not taken as supportive moves especially if learners’ native language has totally different patterns, external modifiers are observable and thus are more popularly adopted.

The most preferred external modifications used by Moroccan EFL learners are grounders, promise of reward and preparator, while the least favored are imposition, sweetener, and pre-commitment.

Numerous studies have concluded that the use of “Grounders” is the major external modifier chosen by English language learners. This may be explained by

the urgent need that a human need to justify themselves and prepare the ground, in this case for “their requests” to reduce the imposition of requests on the hearer.

House et al. (1987) study revealed that German use of Grounder was most frequent in their requests, the study also showed that the use of supporting moves is elevated in the realizations of requests rather than complaints and clarified this by the fact that request demands speakers to cautiously prepare the speaker to avoid any conflict or misunderstanding.

Moroccan EFL Learners’ Pragmalinguistic Realizations of the SpeechActs of Refusals

Refusal strategies are classified into three major categories. The following subsections discuss these various strategies and how they are used by Moroccan EFL learners.

Results of the study demonstrates that indirect strategies are the most selected strategies by Moroccan EFL learners, followed by the use of combining between direct and indirect strategies. Adjunct to refusals is the lowest used strategies. The overuse of indirect strategies might be explained by the fact that refusals are considered as face-threatening and therefore the risk of offending the hearer might be within the act itself (Beebe & Takahashi, (1989), Nelson, Al Batal & El Bakary (2002)).

Hall (1976)’s model claimed that Arab culture is high context, which means that Arabs tend to be more indirect. Numerous other researchers such as Cohen,

1987, 1990; Feghali, 1997; Gudykunst & Ting-Toomey, 1988; Katriel, 1986; Zaharna, 1995, maintained that one of the main features of Arabic communication is its indirectness (Cited in: Nelson et al. 2002).

Direct Strategies

For the use of direct strategies, and as was mentioned earlier was not used frequently compared to indirect strategies. The nature of refusal (face threatening act) demands the hearer to not only think about how to reach the communication goal, but to also think about how to protect hearer's face. Accordingly, direct refusals are often neglected since the more direct the refusal, the greater the menace to the others' face becomes (Brown & Levinson, 1978, Beebe & Takahashi, (1989).

Although the use of direct strategies by Moroccan EFL learners is very infrequent, learners who opt for this type of strategies choose the use of "Negative willingness/Ability" strategies to perform their refusals, followed by "Non-performative verbs", and "performative verbs" is left as the last choice used by the minority. Sadler & Eröz (2002) study also disclosed that Turkish learners avoided the use of performative refusals, which might be considered as rude or less polite.

Indirect Strategies

Based on the results of the study, which reveal that the majority opt for indirect strategies, most of the strategies that are used are “Excuse, reason and explanation” and “wish”, followed by the use of “Statement of regret and “Set condition for future or past acceptance”.

Finally, the least frequently indirect strategy used was “Promise of future acceptance”. The uses of these strategies can be justified by the fact that there are some universalities in terms of the strategies of performing the function of refusals. In this respect, many languages/cultures express feelings of excuse, give reasons of making the refusal and express the wish and/or the willingness to change the action.

For example, in an attempt to explore Turkish EFL learners at two proficiency levels (Lower- intermediate and upper- intermediate) realization patterns of the speech act of refusal, Han & Tazegül (2016), results showed that Turkish EFL learners preferred the use of “Excuse/ reason/explanation” as an indirect strategy to express their refusals, followed by the use of “Regret”. On the other hand, the least frequently used indirect strategies were “Topic switch” and “Setting a condition of acceptance”.

Also, Sadler & Eröz (2002) concluded that Turkish students prefer the use of “Excuse/ reason/explanation” proceeded by some adjunct, especially “Expression of gratitude/appreciation”. Moreover, an intense use of “Statement of regret” was noticed.

I.2.4. Adjuncts to Refusals

Though the use of adjuncts to refusals is not frequently present in the patterns of Moroccan EFL learners' realizations of refusals, it is worth mentioning that "Statement of empathy", followed by "Adjuncts that show gratitude/appreciation" are the ones used within this category.

However, Gungormezler (2014) claimed that there are three types of adjuncts that were highly used by Turkish learners of English, namely, positive opinion, gratitude and pause fillers to lessen the force of their refusals.

The appropriate use of requesting strategies among Moroccan EFL learners might be attributed to the fact that learners in today's globalized world are exposed to endless occasions to interact with speakers of English (native and non-native) via the virtual world. That is to say, the more learners interact with these speakers, the more they internalize the appropriate strategies of the speech act of refusals.

II. Moroccan EFL Learners' Sociopragmatic Realizations of the Speech Acts of Requests and Refusals

This part deals with the impact of social variables on Moroccan EFL learners' realization patterns of speech acts of requests and refusals.

Sociopragmatic Realizations of the Speech Acts of Requests

Results show that Moroccan EFL learners avoid direct strategies and use indirect strategies when the interlocutor is of a higher social status. They also prefer the use of indirect (Hints) when they are strangers, and favor direct requests

(especially imperatives) when the relation is intimate. Moroccan EFL learners are selective when it comes to communicating with strangers or people of higher status and more spontaneous when it comes to interacting with interlocutors with equal social status or higher degree of intimacy. Hence, the power of social status is an important factor in choosing the expressions of request. Importantly, this fact is universal given its power in every society.

This goes hand in hand with the findings obtained regarding the factors of equal social status and lower social status in the sense that when addressing someone of equal social status only very few use indirect strategies and the majority use “Conventionally indirect (hearer- oriented conditions)”. Finally, the use of direct request strategies is higher when they interact with a person of a lower social status.

It was also noticed that Moroccan EFL learners tended to use Ability request strategies (e.g. could you/ can you...) especially when the relationship between participants is intimate and acquaintance. Moreover, they used Willingness (e.g. would you/will you...) when the interaction is between strangers or acquaintance.

Also, the use of Suggestory formulae (e.g. How about...? What about...?) is used between strangers only. Thus, the nature of relationship between interlocutors determines the degree of politeness. For instance, the student avoid using “will you/ or would you” when the interaction is between friends.

As for the rank of imposition, it seems that it affects the choice of strategies. Indirect strategies (Hints) are most frequently used, followed by conventionally indirect (mainly the use of Willingness) when the imposition is high/big. Moreover, the use of Permission and Suggestory formulae is linked to the rank of imposition (High/big). When there is a high degree of imposition learners tend to be more indirect which is due to the fact that the object that is requested is High/big (Borrowing a car/asking for an amount of money) however, these expressions are less indirect when the object requested is of a low value.

In terms of the use of modifications, when addressing a person of a higher rank or social status, Moroccan EFL learners lean on the use of both internal as well as external modifiers. Yet, in equal social status they prefer the use of external modifications more.

Thus, these results show that Moroccan EFL learners endeavor to save the requestee from any feelings of imposition/burden or obligation by getting benefits of both types of modifications (internal and external) and using them at once in the same statement when addressing an interlocutor of higher social status.

Politeness markers are majorly used when the hearer belongs to a status which is higher than the speaker, followed by less proportion when they are equal. Thereby, it could be assumed that Moroccan EFL learners take into account the requestee's social power and try to diminish the imposition of the hearer by the use of politeness marker, like please. The same remark was also highlighted by many researchers (Terkourafi, 2011; Haddad 2017).

Surprisingly, the majority of Moroccan EFL learners who use of conditional “if” or conditional structure adopt it when the addressee is in a lower social distance. The opposite is for Understatements/Hedges; all participants who opt for it use it when addressing a person of higher rank. Also, the use of Aspect and Conditional is highly present especially when the interaction is between strangers and thus requires the speaker extra politeness. Moroccan EFL learners use more conditionals when the hearer has a lower social power than them, this strategy is avoided when the hearer is of a higher status and replaced by Understatements/Hedges devices to minimize some aspects of the desired act which is in this case the act of request. Examples of Understatements used are: a little....a minute...a little...kind of...

Taking into account the choice of modifications and the imposition, results reveal that when the imposition is High/big, Moroccan EFL learners favor joining between both internal and external modifiers in the same sentence, followed by the use of external modifiers alone.

However, when the rank of imposition is Low/ small, preference was for the use of external modifiers, followed by the use of internal modifiers. Thus, the more the rank of imposition is higher/ bigger, the more speakers feel the necessity of the use of both types of modifications, and therefore, combine the use of both of them within each realization.

Consultative device, Politeness markers and Aspect are mostly used when the imposition is High/big. The uses of those internal modifications seem to play

a significant role in lessening the pressure and weight of request imposed on the hearer. Furthermore, the use of the following external modifiers (Promise of reward/ Grounder/ Apology) is at the highest level of use when the imposition is High/big. Thereby, the fact of providing the hearer with justifications and explanations, giving a word of recompense on the benefit of the hearer, or providing apology for the request made, sound to be very favorable to serve the aim of mitigating the load that might be created because of the request.

Sociopragmatic Realizations of the Speech Acts of Refusals

This section tries to focus on the impact of social variables such as social status, social distance and gender on Moroccan EFL learners' use of refusal strategies.

Direct refusals

The use of direct refusals is not related to the social status of Moroccan EFL learners since the majority prefers the use of Negative willingness/ ability regardless what social status is. This fact might be attributed to the universality of using Negative willingness/ ability. That is to say this strategy plays an important role in different social contexts. In addition, this category can be similarly used in face-threatening acts such as the speech act of complaining.

As for social distance, there are few notes that could be taken into account. First, when the interaction is between strangers, there is a total absence of performative verbs as well as non-performative verbs. In fact, Negative

willingness/ ability is the only strategy opted for by Moroccan EFL learners in such cases. When it comes to situations in which Moroccan learners feel a certain degree of distance, as in the case of interacting with strangers, they decide to opt for some modals (could, would, will....) this can be explained by the fact that these modals are frequently used since the primary classes of EFL in the Moroccan educational system. For example, these modals are used in Ticket 2 English to teach some speech acts such as inviting, apologizing. Hence, learners use their classroom background to perform the speech act of refusals appropriately.

However, the degree of directness is used less frequently when the interlocutor is an intimate individual. When the interaction is between intimates, the majority again uses Negative willingness/ ability, but there are some who favor the use of non-performative verbs. This shows that the more EF learners feel comfortable in conversations and interactions, the more they use relatively strategies to perform this function. According to Abarghoui (2012), it can be assumed that social distance is an important factor that impacts politeness behavior.

Concerning gender as a variable, it could be noted that the use of both Performative verbs in addition to Negative willingness/ ability is more common among females than males; on the contrary, males' use of Non- performative verbs is more. This might be interpreted that gender plays a role in using the strategies of performing social functions like this case of refusal.

The answer “no” seems to be direct especially for learners of a foreign language. In fact, the way a person refuses/rejects is more essential than what is said because of the enormous skills that are required to be able to send such message (Abarghoui (2012)). For these reasons, the use of performative verbs such as (I refuse/decline/reject...), and Non-Performative Statement (No) are most of the time avoided.

Indirect refusals

Concerning the use of indirect refusal strategies, the majority of Moroccan EFL learners prefer the use of “Excuse, reason, explanation”, followed by the use of “Wish” and “Statement of regret”, when the addressee is of a higher social status. On the other hand, these three strategies are avoided when the interaction is between two interlocutors of equal social status. The results obtained confirm that social status is an important factor in determining the choice of indirect strategies used by EFL learners. They express feelings of wish and regrets and provide with excuses and reasons, when the social distance status between interlocutors is higher.

“Statement of regret” and “Wish” are the most frequently preferred indirect strategies every time the social distance between interacts is stranger, and entirely avoid Attempt to dissuade interlocutors and “Promise of future acceptance” However, when the interlocutors are intimate Moroccan EFL learners favorite strategy becomes Statement of alternative. In other words, Moroccan EFL

learners feel more comfortable giving the friendly context of interacting with close interlocutors.

By contrast, when the interaction is between strangers, they tend to neglect the use of statements in which they criticize the requester or expressing a negative feeling or opinion. They also avoid letting the interlocutor off the hook and self-defense. “Statement of alternative” on the other hand, seems to be considered as more friendly and suggestive for them, and thus they prefer to use it in more intimate contexts.

As far as gender is concerned, results show that female Moroccan EFL learners tend to favor the use of “Statement of regret”, “Attempt to dissuade interlocutor” and “Excuse, reason, explanation”, while, male choose to use “Wish”, “Statement of alternative” and “Set condition for future or past acceptance” as indirect strategies.

Hussein (1995) study of refusals speech acts in Arabic declared that indirect refusals were mainly used by Arabic speakers when the interaction between interlocutors is either acquaintance who share equal social status, or intimate friends who don't share equal social status.

In Hedayatnejad et al. (2016)'s study which revolved around Iranian learners' use of refusals regardless the social status, results showed that learners' performance of this speech act is strongly related to the interlocutors' social status. Iranian learners preferred the use of indirect strategies and adjuncts more when

interacting with people of equal social status, and tend to use more direct strategies when addressing low social status people.

Adjuncts

When the interaction is between a hearer who is in a higher social distance, Moroccan EFL learners prefer to use “Statement of positive opinion or agreement” and when the hearer is lower it is avoided. “Statement of empathy” is most of the time used when the relation between them is equal and when hearer belongs to lower social distance. Put differently, Moroccan EFL learners express positive expressions to show their willingness to help before pointing out the expression of refusal when the interlocutor is of higher position. Moreover, when the social status is equal or lower they tend to be more cooperative and helpful with an objective/reason of refusing the request.

In the same vein, the findings of social distance factor confirm the nature of relationship between learners on the one hand and their interlocutors on the other hand. When the interaction is between intimates, the only adjunct used is “Statement of empathy”. The situation is different when the interaction is between acquaintances the majority prefer to use the strategy of “Show gratitude/appreciation” followed by the use of “Statement of empathy”. Moroccan EFL learners who used “Statement of positive opinion” are males, while females prefer the use of “Statement of empathy and Show of gratitude”.

III. Pragmatic Transfer

The investigation of pragmatic transfer has occupied the attention of numerous researchers in the area of interlanguage pragmatics. Similarly, the results of this study have paved the ground to get various insights. As stated before, the third objective of this research is to explore the pragmatic transfer of Moroccan EFL learners in performing the speech acts of requests and refusals. To achieve this objective, transfer is investigated at two major levels (Pragmalinguistics and Sociopragmatics).

At the pragmalinguistic level, requestive and refusal strategies that are employed by Moroccan EFL learners and native speakers were compared and investigated. At the sociopragmatic level, the effect of social factors such as social distance, social status/power, rank of imposition and gender on performing the two speech acts investigated by both groups.

The following sections shed light on aspects of pragmatics transfer in performing the speech acts of request and refusal. Each function is discussed at both the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic levels.

Pragmalinguistic Comparison between Moroccan EFL Learners and Native Speakers' Realization Patterns of the Speech Acts of Requests and Refusals

Requests

Results of the study reveal that though the order of the choice of requesting categories of both groups is similar, there are not alike in their frequency of use.

Accordingly, both groups prefer the use of “Conventionally indirect (hearer-oriented conditions)”, however; Moroccan EFL learners’ use of this category slightly overcomes the use of native speakers’. Elsayed (2014) confirmed that the majority of native speakers as well as non-native speakers prefer the use of “Conventionally indirect requests”. However, Hammani (2019) study showed that while American English Native speakers preferred the use of “Conventionally indirect request strategies”, Moroccan Arabic Native Speakers employed more direct request strategies.

Also, Loutfi’s (2016) investigation of the pragmalinguistic realization of Moroccan learners in performing requests found out that both Moroccan learners as well as native speakers widely preferred the use of conventionally indirect strategies. However, unlike results of this study, results of Loutfi’s study showed that the second most frequently used strategy was direct strategies, and Hints or indirect strategies were the least frequently used.

Tabar (2012) maintained that Iranian Turkish bilingual speakers prefer a relatively high level of indirectness compared to Iranian Persian monolingual speakers. Thus, it might be assumed that Moroccan EFL learners who are university students are most of the time bilingual since the learning of French is compulsory at early stages in the Moroccan Educational system. This might be one of the factors that lead Moroccans to prefer the use of indirect strategies in their use of requests. However, this issue needs further research to be concluded.

For the preferred request strategies that are used by both groups are Ability and willingness though native speakers overuse Willingness over Ability and the opposite for Moroccan EFL learners. Again, Hints is the third most favored strategy for both groups, nonetheless, native speakers slightly use it more. Yazdani & Farnia (2018) revealed that Iranian EFL learners avoided the use of Willingness while native speakers used it, also compared to EFL learners; native speakers overuse the strategy of Ability.

The use of “Desires/needs” and “Suggestory formulae” is ignored by native speakers and used by Moroccan learners, though not often. Elsayed (2014) study demonstrated that although native speakers prefer the use of “Conventionally indirect requests” they did not use “Suggestory formulae” as a strategy, yet it was used still not frequently by non-native speakers.

Concerning the use of internal modifications, Moroccan EFL learners have a preference of the use of “Lexical downgraders”, namely; Politeness marker and Consultative device, in which they consult the requestee in an attempt to inquire the hearer’s consent. On the other hand, native speakers favor the use of “Syntactic Downgraders”, especially the use of both Aspect and Conditional. However, the fact that Moroccan EFL learners’ use of Consultative device is ranked as the second most used modifier doesn’t mean that they exceed native speakers’ use of this modifier.

In other words, the privileged use of this internal modifier belongs to native speakers. Moroccan EFL learners' use of "lexical upgraders" (adverbial modifiers), is far more less than native speakers.

According to Trosborg (1995), the most important function of syntactic downgraders is to turn requests to become more polite by detaching request from reality. For instance, the use of conditional clause enables the requester to distance his/her request further from reality by adding a conditional clause" (p.211). The devices that belong to lexical downgraders category tend to "lower the requester's expectations to the fulfillment or the outcome of the request" (p.212).

For external modifications, both groups seem to prefer the use of three modifiers; however, the difference is at the frequency of use. As for Moroccan EFL learners, the order of preference is Grounder, Promise of reward, Preparatory. For native speakers' order of preference is different (Promise of reward, Preparatory, Grounders).

Results of this study which show that Moroccan EFL learners' use of preparatory is less compared to native speakers, go hand in hand with Najafabadi & Paramasivam (2012) findings who showed that Iranian native speakers overused Preparator strategy compared to Iranian learners. As for the vast use of Grounder as a modifier, it might be brought to the fact that this modifier "is psychologically most plausible to make the addressee understand the reason(s) behind a request" (House and Kasper 1987: 1281). Understanding the reasons behind the request might mitigate the force of the request on the hearers' part.

Also, Grounders according to many studies (e.g. Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984), Vilar-Beltran (2008); Muthusamy & Farashaiyan (2016)) are much uncomplicated and easier to be used for nonnative speakers, and this may be considered as another reason that explains the overuse of this strategy by Moroccan EFL learners’.

Refusals

Results of the present study suggest that Moroccan EFL learners and native speakers of refusal categories are not similar. Native speakers tend to combine the use of “Indirect refusals” and “Adjuncts to refusals, followed by the use of indirect refusals alone. Although Moroccan EFL learners opt for indirect refusals and is used most frequently compared to other types of refusal, its use still is far less than native speakers’ use. Alrefaee & Al-Ghamdi (2019) also claimed that the use of indirect refusals was preferred by Yemeni learners of English as a foreign language and native speakers. It seems that the tendency of employing more than two types of refusal categories (e.g. the case of combining between indirect refusals and adjuncts by native speakers) is more likely to be used by

Moreover, Moroccan EFL learners’ choice of “Direct refusals” is the second higher category; however, it is completely ignored by native speakers. Alrefaee & Al-Ghamdi (2019) revealed that American native speakers underused direct strategies compared to Yemenis.

Al-Mahrooqi & Al-Aghbari (2016) in their study where they investigate the use of refusals speech act among Omani EFL college students explained that one

of the reasons of the use of direct refusals especial when they are inappropriate within the situation can be attributed to the learners' lack of awareness of the role of social factors namely, social status especially when addressing a high status person.

Results also show that native speakers' use of direct strategies differs from Moroccan EFL learners' use. While native speakers tend to use only "Negative willingness/ability", Moroccan EFL learners tend to take the risk of using also Non-performative verbs" and "Performative verbs". Non-performative verbs" such as the use of the words (No, I can't) and "Performative verbs" (the use of I decline/ refuse/ reject) creates great risk of face-threatening. The more the advanced level the more refuser has more skills to get benefit of strategies to lessen the force of the face threatening act on the hearer. This is clearly noticed in comparing the use of direct refusal strategies between the two groups (Safont J.& Salazar P. (2009). As stated above, native speakers show that they are willing to positively respond to the requestee, yet the circumstances are against them.

For indirect strategies, both groups favor the use of "Excuse, reason, explanation". Moroccan EFL learners tend to avoid the use of "Statement of principle", while native speakers tend to rarely use it. Besides, results reveal that while Moroccan EFL learners' use of Wish as indirect strategy is the second most used one and tend to also sometimes use Attempt to dissuade interlocutor, native speakers totally ignore their use. The opposite occurs with the use of Statement of

alternative, in the sense that the strategy is overused by natives and hardly ever used by the other group.

Similarly, Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1991) study which aim was to investigate refusals used by non-native speakers compared to native speakers concluded that both groups prefer the use of an excuse and explanation for the reasons of their refusals. The second frequently used was Giving alternatives strategy which was adopted by native speakers and neglected by the other group.

The choice of Adjuncts to refusals is dissimilar for both groups. For native speakers, they tend to rely on the use of “Statement of positive opinion/feeling/agreement”, this is the last option for Moroccans. According to Moaveni (2014), results supports results of this study in the sense that American native speakers used positive opinions and expressions of gratitude in performing refusals, while international students’ semantic formulae of this speech act lacked the use of positive opinions.

On the other side, Moroccan EFL learners’ preference goes to the use of “Statement of empathy” (*e.g. I really understand that you are in very bad circumstances, but...//I know you are in a hard situation...*), which is the very last alternative for native speakers. These results may open the gates for other studies to investigate the reasons why Moroccans prefer to show the other party feelings of understandings and compassions and rarely use “Statement of positive opinion/feeling/ agreement”. Is it attributed to the fact that Moroccans don’t share their positive feelings, is it part of culture not to praise often? Research questions

that are mainly related to culture as well as psychology could be of good use to explain their choice and use of the speech act of refusal.

Sociopragmatic Comparison between Moroccan EFL Learners and Native Speakers' Realization Patterns of the Speech Acts of Requests and Refusals

Requests

For Moroccan EFL learners results show that there is a relationship between the level of directness and the three different social variables. There is a difference between Moroccan EFL learners and native speakers' use of direct strategies. In fact, the use of direct strategies by native speakers is far more less than the Moroccan EFL learners. Yet, both Moroccan EFL learners and native speakers prefer to be more direct especially when the addressee is in a lower social status.

Accordingly, the more the hearer is of higher social status, the more the indirectness is required. Hammani (2019) study also illustrated that social status, social distance and rank of imposition have a great impact on the level of directness of the choice of request strategies of Moroccan Arabic native speakers, whereas, American English native were found to be affected by social power and rank of imposition.

Also, Moroccan EFL learners favor the use of Suggestory formulae as well as Permission, and native speakers Permission and Wishes, when addressing a person of a higher social status. It seems that for Suggestory formulae as a strategy

as if there is no supposition on the part of the interlocutor that the action has to be implemented.

In other words, the hearer feels that the speaker is only presenting his/her opinion. This strategy strongly minimizes any sort of face threatening. The same thing implies to the use of Wishes, where speakers' wishes are presented in a respectful manner, and again the receiver doesn't feel any kind of imposition. For these reasons, these types of strategies are most frequently used when interacting with a person of a higher social status (Fahrurrozi (2015); Al Abadla,(2021)).

As for the use of internal modifications, Moroccan EFL learners seem to be affected by social power/status and rank of imposition, while native speakers' choice of internal modifications is affected by social distance and imposition. Thus, both groups are affected by the degree of imposition. Thus, it seems that Moroccans are concerned with the interlocutors' social power/status, unlike native speakers who focus on the social distance.

Latif (2014) confirmed that native speakers' use of lexical /phrasal downgraders is affected by the level of imposition, while Moroccan EFL learners' use of lexical downgraders was not affected by any of the social variables. Muthusamy & Farashaiyan (2016) also claimed that there was no relation between the social power and the use of internal modifiers.

In terms of the use of external modifications, results of the study depict that Moroccan EFL learners' use of external modifications is strongly related to the

social distance and imposition. On the other hand, there is no relation between external modifications' choice and social variables by native speakers.

Refusals

There seems to be differences between the two groups and the influence of the social variables. Moroccan EFL learners' choice of refusal category seems to be affected by social status and gender. The higher the social status of the hearer the more indirect the refusal becomes. For the factor of gender, males favor the use of direct refusals, whilst females favor joining either adjuncts to refusals with direct ones or uniting indirect refusal strategies with direct ones.

Hassani, Mardani & Dastjerdi (2011) revealed that Persian as well as native speakers' choice of refusal strategies was significantly related to the interlocutors' social status. Similarly, to results of this study, they argued that the use of indirect strategies is at higher levels when the refusal is addressed to a person of a higher social status. In a very similar vein, Chojimah (2015) also revealed that Indonesian performance of refusals and native speakers was affected by the social status.

For native speakers, social distance is the only social variable that seems to affect their choice of refusal category. The use of indirect refusals and adjuncts to refusals are most frequently used when the interaction is between strangers. Unlike Moroccans who do not pay much attention to social distance, native speakers main concern is given to their distance between the interlocutor. Social

distance is one of the main factors that might affect the formality of the realization of linguistic variations (Boxer, (1993); Koppen et al. (2016)).

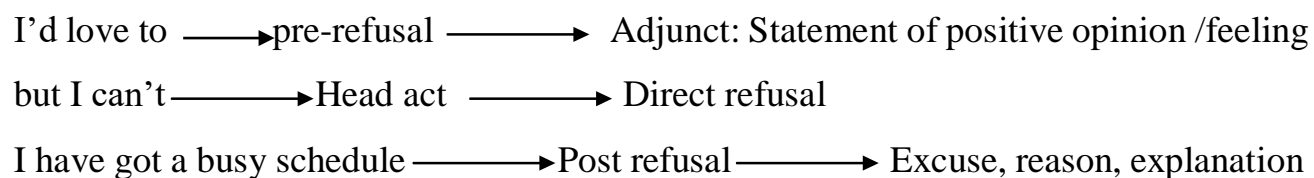
Correspondently, native speakers' performance of the speech act of refusal is attentively performed by benefiting from the use of two categories (indirect and adjuncts), that mitigate any kind of imposition or embarrassment to the hearer when the relation is between strangers. The use of indirect refusals is affected by both social distance and power for Moroccan EFL learners, but for native speakers the only social variable that impacts the use of these strategies is social distance.

IV. The Effect of Students' Level on Moroccan EFL learners' performance of speech acts (Requests & Refusals)

Results show that students' level has a great impact on Moroccan EFL learners' performance of the speech acts of Requests and Refusals. It can be assumed from results that the lowest the level of the students, the weakest their performance is. First year students lack the awareness of the different pragmalinguistic strategies as well as sociopragmatic factors affecting the realizations of these speech acts compared to their counterparts (third year students).

The learning of speech acts seems to be developmental based on the fact that learners showed more awareness through the levels. For instance, in the second situation of Multiple choice discourse completion test the majority of learners who opted for "You have to excuse me, I can't" as the best choice were 1st year students. Yet, almost all 3rd year students opted for the first

choice “I’d love to but I can’t. I have got a busy schedule”. The sequence of this refusal is as follows:



The choice of this sequence by third year students shows that they exceed 1st year students in terms of their awareness of the most appropriate strategies that could be use it.

Situation 2: You are a student at the university. It is the beginning of a new academic year. You have attended the first session and got the whole planning of the first semester. One of your classmates asked to borrow your notebook so that he can make a copy of the planning. You are too busy to lend your notebook and wait for him to make a copy of it. *How would you refuse?*

- a. I’d love to but I have got a busy schedule.
- b. You have to excuse me, I can’t.
- c. let it for the next time. I can’t now.

Another example could be presented in situation 9, most of the 1st year students opted for the third option which was “I don’t hate it, but I can’t”. This answer seems to be Moroccan translation. This may be the reason why the majority of this level decides that this is the most appropriate one. Its equivalent would be: /makrahtš walākin manqdarš/. This indicates that lower levels are more likely to fall into negative pragmatic transfer’s trap.

Situation9: Your friends decide to have a picnic in the park. They ask you to join them but you already arranged a business with your father. *You refuse by saying:*

- a. I would like to be part of it, but I have already an arrange
- b. I wish I could but I have an important appointment
- c. I don't hate it, but I can't.

General Conclusion

This chapter aims at highlighting major points related to this study. First, it provides a general overview of the chief objectives, methodology and findings of the study at hand. Second, it underlines the main research implications that could interest university professors, learners and textbook designers. Third, it discusses some of the limitations of the study, and finally, it is concluded by some recommendations, and suggestions that could be taken into account for future research.

1. Summary of the Objectives and Methodology

This study had four major research objectives. The first objective aimed at examining the strategies used by Moroccan EFL learners when performing two of the most common speech acts: request and refusal. Thus, the study endeavored to examine Moroccan EFL learners' pragmalinguistic realization patterns of the speech acts highlighted in this study.

Second, the study attempts to investigate the impact of social variables such as social distance, social status, imposition, age, on Moroccan EFL learners' performance of the speech acts of requests and refusals. Hence, pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics were used as two points of reference through which different strategies were analyzed.

Third, pragmatic transfer was another objective, which stressed the comparison between Moroccan EFL learners and Native speakers of English in performing the aforementioned functions. Lastly, the study investigates the effect

of learners' level on their awareness of the different patterns of the speech acts of request and refusal.

Concerning the participants of the study, 80 Moroccan university learners participated in the Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs). All of the participants were EFL learners, belong to the English department. Another 100 students participated in answering both the Multiple Choice Questionnaire (MCQ), and Awareness Test (AT). 45 of these participants were third year students, and 55 were 1st year students. Also, the study included 30 native speakers who reacted to the DCTs.

Furthermore, the study took place in three Moroccan universities: Abdelmaled Essadi University in *Tetouan*, Mohammed First University in *Oujda*, and Ibn Zohr University in *Agadir*. Moreover, three main instruments were used to meet the above mentioned objectives of the study: Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs), Multiple Choice Questionnaire (MCQ), and Awareness Test (AT). The rationale behind using these instruments can be justified in two points. First, they are popular in the area of interlanguage pragmatics in general and the study of speech acts in particular. Second, the use of three instruments (Triangulation) yield solid data and deep insights.

Concerning data analysis, which was collected through the three instruments and include situations that have different contextual variables (status/distance and imposition), was analyzed through the use of SPSS. The analysis was based on

the use of descriptive statistics, mainly Frequencies and percentage cross-tabs and Chi-squares.

2. Summary of the Findings

The findings of this study can be categorized into a number of major points. First, pragmalinguistic realization patterns of the speech acts of requests and refusals by Moroccan EFL learners were carefully examined. In terms of requests, Moroccans preference was directed to the use of “Conventionally indirect “hearer oriented conditions” strategies and “Indirect requests” and rarely used direct request strategies. Additionally, within the category of Conventionally indirect they overused the two strategies Ability and Willingness and rarely used suggestory formulae and permission. Yet, Imperatives were the only direct strategy used by Moroccans.

In terms of Moroccans use of modifications, results revealed that the use of external modifications was favored over the use of internal modifiers. However, it is worth mentioning that the majority of Moroccan EFL learners chose joining the two types of modifications in performing their requests, and only very few opted not to use any modifiers.

As for Moroccans who opted for internal modifications, it was noticed that there was a tendency to seldom use upgraders and instead opt for downgraders and especially politeness markers which goes beneath the category of the Lexical Downgraders. It was also worth mentioning that **Please** was chosen by all Moroccans who opted for this

type of modifiers except one. Syntactic Downgraders were limited in the use of both Conditional and Aspect. Grounders, Promise of reward and Preparator were the most frequently external modifiers used by Moroccan EFL learners, whereas the use of Imposition, Sweetener, and Pre-commitment was the least frequently used.

In terms of refusals, indirect strategies were the most repeatedly strategy used by Moroccan EFL learners and the second highly used was joining both direct and indirect strategies, whereas, adjunct to refusals were the least frequently used. Concerning the use of direct strategies which was very restricted, almost all Moroccan learners who chose to use it favored the use of Negative willingness/Ability strategies, followed by a rare use of Non-performative verbs (No), while performative verbs was the very last alternative.

For indirect strategies, which were favored by Moroccans, providing Excuse, reason and explanation, Wish and followed by the use of Statement of regret and Set condition for future or acceptance. On the other hand, the least indirect strategy used was “Promise for future acceptance”. Finally, adjuncts to refusals, which were noticed to be less used by Moroccan learners, they tended to use Statement of empathy and Adjuncts that Show gratitude/appreciation

To sum up, the first hypothesis that was originated from the first research question and discussed at the beginning of this thesis was partially confirmed.

Hypothesis 1:

Moroccan EFL learners don't vary their strategies in performing the speech acts of requesting and refusal.

Second, the study also investigated the impact of different social variables of Moroccan EFL learners' realizations of the speech acts under study. The social factors that were majored were social status/power (High/Equal/ Low), social distance (Strangers/Acquaintance/Intimate) and imposition (High, Big/ Low, Small).

Results of the study revealed that there was a high significance between Moroccans' use of request strategies and social status/power as well as social distance and the rank of imposition. Accordingly, it was confirmed that Moroccans tended to avoid the use of direct strategies, instead they used indirect strategies whenever the addressee is of a higher social power.

Moreover, they favored the use of indirect strategies (Hints) when the interaction occurred between strangers, and direct strategies (mainly Imperatives) when between intimates. The majority of learners who opted for indirect request strategies used it when the imposition is High/big. Also, strategies such as Suggestory formulae, Willingness and Permission were mainly preferred to be used when the imposition is High/big. Also, Moroccan EFL learners' use of indirect strategies was at its highest levels when the degree of imposition was High/big.

At the level of modifications, Moroccan learners had a preference for combining the use of both internal and external modifications, whenever addressing a person of higher social status and in equal interactions they opted for external modifiers alone. Besides, when the imposition is High/big, Moroccan EFL learners' use of modifications was by unifying both types of modifiers and include it into the same sentence.

Furthermore, it was concluded that only the use of some modifiers which were affected by the different social factors. As in the option of Ability, Willingness and Suggestory formulae, Moroccans seemed to use the first option between intimate and acquaintance, the second one for strangers or acquaintance, and the third one only when the interaction was between strangers.

On the other hand, there were some other modifications which their use was not restricted by social factors, such as the use of Grounders. The use of Politeness markers were mainly utilized when the addressee is of a higher social status, pursued by fewer uses when they are equal. As for the use of conditional "if", it was mainly preferred when the hearer is of a lower social status and strangers; however, Understatements/Hedges were only present in situations where the hearer is of higher social status.

When the imposition is High/big, Moroccans use of Consultative device, Politeness markers, Aspect, Promise of reward, Grounder and Apology was elevated in order to reduce the force of pressure that might be imposed on the hearer.

As for the impact of social variables (social status/distance/gender) on Moroccan EFL learners' realizations of the speech act of refusal, results revealed many outcomes. There was no significant relation between social status and Moroccans' use of direct refusals, this is due to the fact that the majority favored the use of Negative willingness/ ability not considering what social status is.

However, it was noticed that social distance had affected the use of direct strategies in a number of ways. First, when the interlocutors were strangers Moroccans completely avoided the use of performative and non-performative verbs, and only used Negative willingness/ ability. Second, when the interaction was between intimate individuals, but there was also the use of non-performative verbs. For gender, Performative verbs in addition to Negative willingness/ ability were noticed to be performed by females more than males, however, Moroccan males' use of Non- performative verbs is more.

Moroccan EFL learners' use of indirect refusal strategies was affected by the social status/power in some the strategies. Excuse, reason, explanation, "Wish" and "Statement of regret", are three of the main indirect strategies that were relied on when the addressee was of a higher social status and were totally avoided when the interaction was between interactants were of equal social status.

Also, the use of two indirect strategies namely, "Statement of regret" and "Wish", was influenced by social distance. They were accordingly used whenever the interactants were strangers. Statement of alternative is also another strategy that its use was related to social distance and was only used between two intimate

interlocutors. Considering gender as one of the factors that might affect the choice of Moroccans indirect strategies “Statement of regret”, “Attempt to dissuade interlocutor” and “Excuse, reason, explanation”, were mainly used by Moroccan females, and “Wish”, “Statement of alternative” and “Set condition for future or past acceptance” were favored by Moroccan males.

In terms of the use of adjuncts and the effect of social status, Moroccan EFL learners favored the use of “Statement of positive opinion or agreement” when the hearer is of a higher social distance, yet was totally not ignored when the hearer was of a lower social status. “Statement of empathy” was utilized when the interlocutors were relatively equal or when the hearer belonged to lower social status.

In addition, social distance also had an impact on Moroccans option of adjuncts. Statement of empathy was only used when the interaction is between intimates, and when it was between acquaintances they favored the use of “Show gratitude/ appreciation” followed by the use of “Statement of empathy”. Finally, in terms of gender and its effect of Moroccans’ choice of adjuncts, it seemed that Moroccan males tend to use Statement of positive opinion whereas females opted for the use of Statement of empathy and Show of gratitude.

Hypothesis 2:

Moroccan EFL learners’ performance the speech acts of requests and refusals is not affected by the different social variables.

Finally, it was assumed from results of the study that Moroccans' realization patterns in performing the speech acts of requests and refusals were most of the time affected by different social variables. Therefore, the second hypothesis was confirmed.

Third, comparing between Moroccan EFL learners and native speakers exposed some similarities and dissimilarities. In terms of request **pragmalinguistic** realizations of both groups, results found that there were several differences between the two groups in the frequency of opting for each request category, still the order of their use was alike.

Hence, both groups preference went to the use of Conventionally indirect (hearer-oriented conditions), but Moroccan EFL learners' use of this category to some extent overcome the use of native speakers.

Also, both groups share the same preference of request strategies which are Ability and willingness, nevertheless, native speakers' use of Willingness over Ability is more as opposed to Moroccan EFL learners whose preference was of the use of Ability more than Willingness. The use of Hints took the third rank by both groups, but native speakers' frequency of using them exceeded Moroccans. However, the use of "Desires/needs" and "Suggestory formulae" was used, although not very frequently, by Moroccan learners and completely absent from native speakers' utterances.

Native speakers took the advantage of using internal modifiers compared to the other group. Moroccans employed "Lexical downgraders", specifically;

Politeness marker and Consultative device, while native speakers preferred the use of “Syntactic Downgraders”, especially the use of both Aspect and Conditional. As for “lexical upgraders” namely, adverbial modifiers, were mostly advocated by native speakers compared to Moroccan EFL learners.

As for the use of external modifiers, both groups appeared to prefer the use of three modifiers; but the difference is at the frequency of use. While native speakers’ order of preference was Promise of reward followed by Preparatory then Grounders, Moroccans order was Grounder followed by Promise of reward and Preparatory.

Concerning the Sociopragmatic comparison between the two groups, results revealed that Moroccans level of directness in realizing the speech act of request was affected by social factors (social power/ distance/ imposition), while native speakers’ performance was affected by social power and imposition and show no reaction to social distance. Both groups tended to be more direct when the hearer is of a lower social status. Besides, when the hearer was of a higher social status, Moroccans tended to use Suggestory formulae along with Permission, and native speakers preferred the use of Permission and Wishes.

In terms of implementing internal modifications, both groups were influenced by the rank of imposition. However, besides the effect of imposition, Moroccans were affected also by social status, and native speakers by social distance. As for the use of external modifiers, it was found that while native speakers’ realization of external modifiers in performing requests was not affected by any of the social

factors under study, Moroccan EFL learners' use of this category was influenced by two variables, namely, social distance and imposition.

Pragmalinguistic comparison of Moroccan EFL learners and native speakers' realizations of the speech act of refusal showed that the choice of the refusal categories by both groups was not the same. Moroccans preferred the use of indirectrefusals instead of other types of refusal strategies; however, their use of indirectrefusals was far less than native speakers' use.

On the other hand, while native speakers rarely used direct refusal strategies, Moroccans use of this category was ranked as the second highest percentage. Accordingly, native speakers only used Negative willingness/ability strategy within the category of direct refusals, whereas Moroccans used along with that strategy Non-performative and Performative verbs.

Concerning the use of indirect refusal strategies, both groups preferred to refuse with providing an Excuse, reason, explanation. However, they differed in the use of many strategies such as the use of Statement of principle which was adopted rarely by natives but completely ignored by Moroccans, and the use of Wish and Attempt to dissuade interlocutor which were used by Moroccan learners and avoided by native speakers.

As for the use of Adjuncts to refusals, results demonstrated differences between the two groups. While Moroccan EFL learners preferred the use of Statement of empathy, native speakers left this choice as the last option and

instead used Statement of positive opinion/ feeling/ agreement which by its turn was the last choice for Moroccans.

Sociopragmatic comparison between the two groups highlighted a number of major remarks as well. In general Moroccan learners' choice of refusal categories seemed to be influenced by two variables, namely, social status/power and gender.

Put differently, Moroccans were concerned with the social power of the hearer, the higher it was the more indirect their strategies were. Also, males' realizations of refusals were mainly based on direct refusals, while females preferred combining more than one category. Native speakers on the other hand were only influenced by one factor, namely, social distance which was not taken into account by Moroccans, in the sense that there was a tendency of joining both the indirect and adjunct strategies whenever the interaction is between strangers.

Hypothesis 3:

Pragmatic transfer impedes Moroccan EFL learners' performance to use the appropriate strategies in performing the speech acts of requesting and refusal.

Results revealed that pragmatic transfer affected Moroccan EFL learners in performing the speech acts under study. However, its existence was positive at some points and negative in others. An example that could demonstrate the picture is the use of Moroccans lexical downgraders (politeness marker: please) which exists in Moroccan Arabic and Classic Arabic as well as French which is

introduced at early stages in the educational system (3rd grade, and earlier in private sectors).

Also, this could be shown in the underuse of internal modifiers as compared to native speakers, since the structure of Arabic is different from English, that's why it seemed easier for Moroccans to use strategies that already have their equivalence in their mother tongue (1st language). Therefore, the third hypothesis was confirmed

Fourth, the study also aimed at investigating the relationship between students' academic level and their awareness of the appropriate strategies used in performing the speech acts of requests and refusals. Results demonstrated that Moroccan students' level had immense effect on their awareness and performance of the speech acts of this study. Thus, compared to 3rd year students, 1st year students showed lower pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic consciousness and understanding of the speech acts. Therefore, the fourth hypothesis of the study was accepted.

Hypothesis 4

Students' level has a huge impact on the students' performance on the speech act of requests and refusals.

3. Research Implications

The results obtained pave the ground to highlight a number of implications. Implications of this study tackle three main issues. The first ones are related to

university professors, the second ones are for learners and the last ones directed to textbook designers.

For university professors, since Moroccan EFL learners do not use various strategies, especially in performing face-threatening acts, it is of paramount importance that they need to focus more on explicit instruction to teach functions. Also, the results obtained revealed that students develop more appropriate strategies as they move from lower to higher levels, it is important that the pragmatic items should be presented with different degree of complexity based on students' linguistic and cultural level.

For learners, since there were a number of similarities between Moroccan EFL learners and native speakers of English in choosing pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic strategies, communicating via the virtual world opens up opportunities to understand many differences and similarities in performing speech acts. That is to say, students should raise their awareness towards differences between all cultures, not merely the British and American cultures. Understanding the differences then is the name of the game.

For textbook designers, who are in many Moroccan professors themselves in many cases, representing speech acts need to be contextualized situation to understand deeply the reasons of using a given strategy over another. Additionally, role play situations need to be fostered to give students more chances to perform in authentic situations.

All in all, teaching pragmatics has been an important topic of debate among researchers in interlanguage pragmatics (e.g. Blum-Kulka et.al. 1993, Kasper, 1992). Yet, explicit and implicit teaching methods can both play important roles to equip learners with the appropriate strategies of performing speech acts in addition to the understanding of how communication occurs in various social contexts.

4. Limitations of the Study

As is the case with any empirical study, bringing the shortcomings to the surface is of paramount importance. There are a number of limitations that can be taken into account.

The study gathered data from three different universities (Mohammed I University in Oujda, Abdelmalek Essaadi University in Tetouan, and Ibn Zohr University in Agadir). Accordingly, generalizing the findings might not be adequate given that there are 15 Moroccan universities, each with different geographical, linguistic and cultural characteristics.

Furthermore, analyzing students' speech acts requires sometimes authentic situations to go deeply into students' intentions. Written DCTs might minimize the authenticity of speech acts performance and does not allow participants' gestures and psychological aspects to be well noticed.

In addition, the total number of participants does not exceed 180, which minimizes the possibility of generalizing the findings among all Moroccan EFL

learners. However, the inclusion of three different universities with different geographical characteristics helped the researcher to gather data from students with different cultural characteristics.

5. Recommendations and Suggestions for Future Research

The findings of this research have paved the ground to provide numerous recommendations and suggestions for future research. These recommendations can take place in terms of research in interlanguage pragmatics, teaching functions and textbook analysis.

First, research on the realizations of pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics might be extended to get insights into the realizations of other speech acts (in addition to the ones investigated in this research: request and refusal). Hence, face threatening acts such as the act of complaining can be a starting point to go deeply into the choices that Moroccan EFL learners make.

Furthermore, a comparative study between the use of speech acts between Monolinguals and multilinguals might be of an added value to the literature on interlanguage pragmatics.

Second, research on more contemporary effective methods of teaching speech acts is of paramount importance. For example, the effective use of scaffolding techniques in speech acts. Also, how flipped classroom might affect the understanding of how speech acts are used by native speakers can yield many fruitful findings. Moreover, a comparative study between explicit and implicit

instruction vis-à-vis the different types of speech acts is an interesting research topic.

Third, representing speech acts in textbooks, especially in middle and high school levels, is worth investigating. Part and parcel of cultural diversity is the way speech acts are used in various social contexts. Hence, in addition to providing students with appropriate expressions of, say, inviting, requesting..., understanding how they differ from their own social contexts helps students to understand the ‘how’ instead of the ‘what’.

Bibliography

Bibliography

- Abarghoui M. (2012). A Comparative Study of Refusal Strategies Used by Iranians and Australians Theory and Practice in Language Studies. *Academy Publisher, Finland Vol. 2, No. 11*.
- Abed, A. Q. (2011). Pragmatic Transfer in Iraqi EFL Learners' Refusals. *International Journal of English Linguistics*. Canadian Center of Science and Education.
- Achiba, M. (2003). *Learning to Request in a Second Language: A Study of Child Interlanguage Pragmatics*. Sydney: Multilingual Matters LYD.
- AlAbadla, S. (2021). Pragmatic Analysis of Request in Aumm Saad Novella. *Journal of Social Sciences: Nineteen Issue*. “Democratic Arab Center” Germany – Berlin. Retrieved from: <https://democraticac.de/?p=76056>
- Al-Mahrooqi, R & Al-Aghbari. K. (2016). *Refusal Strategies Among Omani EFL Students*. SAGE Open.
- Alrefaee, Y. & Al-Ghamdi, N. (2019). Refusals among Yemeni EFL Learners: A Study of Negative Pragmatic Transfer and Its Relation to Proficiency. *Asian EFL Journal Research Articles*. Vol. 25 Issue No. 5.
- Al-Qahtani, H.A. (2009). *Female Use of Politeness Strategies in the Speech Act of Offering: A Contrastive Study between Spoken Saudi Arabic and Spoken British English*. King Saud University.
- Al-Momani, H.S. (2009). *Caught between Two Cultures: The Realization of Requests by Jordanian EFL Learners*. Indiana University of Pennsylvania.
- Altasan A. (2016). The Pragmalinguistic Competence in Requests: A Comparison between One Native and Two Non-native Speakers of English. *American Journal of Educational Research*, Science and Education Publishing Vol. 4, No. 4.
- Retrieved from: <http://pubs.sciepub.com/education/4/4/9>

- Alzebaree Y, Yavuz M. A. (2017). Realization of the Speech Acts of Request and Apology by Middle Eastern EFL Learners. *EURASIA Journal of Mathematics, Science and Technology Education*.
- Auer, P. (2009). *Context and contextualization From: Key Notions for Pragmatics* Edited by Jef Verschueren & Jan-Oia Ostman // John Benjamins Publishing Company Amsterdam I Philadelphia.
- Austin (1962). *How to do things with words*. Oxford, the Clarendon Press.
- Bakhtin, M. (1986). The problem of speech genres. In *Speech genres and other late essays*: 60-102. university of Texas Press.
- Bialystok, E. (1993). Symbolic Representation and Attentional Control in Pragmatic Competence. In : *Interlanguage Pragmatics*. Kasper, G & Blum-Kulka, S. New York, Oxford, Oxford University Press.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. and B. S. Hartford. 1991. Saying “no” in English: native and non-native rejections. *Pragmatics and language learning: Monograph Series 2*: 41-57.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Hartford, B. S. (1993). Refining the DCT: Comparing open questionnaires and dialogue completion tasks. In L. F. Bouton & Y. Kachru (Eds.), *Pragmatics and Language Learning*, (Vol. 4, pp. 143-165). University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign: Division of English as an International Language.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. and Do˝rnyei, Z. (1998). Do language learners recognize pragmatic violations? Pragmatic versus grammatical awareness in instructed L2 learning. *TESOL Quarterly* 32, 233_259.
- Bataller, R. (2013) ‘Role-plays vs. natural data: Asking for a drink at a cafeteria in peninsular Spanish’, *Ikala, Revista de Lengua je y Cultura*, 18(2): 111–126.
- Bataller, R. and Shively, R. L. (2011) ‘Role plays and naturalistic data in pragmatics research: Service encounters during study abroad’, *Journal of Linguistics and Language*

Teaching, 2: 15–50. Potter, J. (2002) ‘Two kinds of natural’, *Discourse Studies*, 4: 543–548.

Beebe, L. M. and Cummings, M.C. (1996).” Natural speech act versus written questionnaire data: How data collection method affects speech act performance”. In S.M. Gass and J. Neu (Eds.). *Speech Acts across Cultures* (pp. 65-86). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Beebe, L.M. & Takahashi, T. (1989). “Sociolinguistic Variation in Face Threatening Speech Acts”. In Eisenstein, M.(Eds.). *The Dynamic Interlanguage: Empirical Studies in Second Language Variation*. New York: Plenum Press.

Bednark, M (2011). *Approaching the data of pragmatics. Foundations of pragmatics*. Billmyer, K. and Varghese, M. 2000. “Investigating instrument-based pragmatic variability: Effects of enhancing discourse completion tests”. *Applied Linguistics*, 21/4, 517-552

BLUM-KULKA,S. Kasper,G (1993) *Interlanguage Pragmatics*. Oxford university press, New York.

Blum-Kulka, S. and Ohlstein, E. (1989). *Requests and Apologies: A Cross-Cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Patterns (CCSARP)*. *Applied Linguistics*, Vol 5, No.3.

Boxer, D. (1993). *Social distance and speech behavior: The case of indirect complaints*. *Journal of Pragmatics*. Retrieved from :
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/223828292_Social_distance_and_speech_behavior_The_case_of_indirect_complaints/citations

British Council, (2008). *Teaching English. Language Use*. Retrieved from:
<https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/language-use>

Brown, P. Levinson, S.(1978,1987). *Politeness: Some language universals in language use*

- Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bublitz & Norrick (2011). Wolfram Bublitz and Neal R. Norrick. Introduction: the burgeoning field of pragmatics. *Foundations of pragmatics*.
- Carrell, Patricia L. (1981). Relative difficulty of request forms in L1 /L2 comprehension. In Mary Hines & William Rutherford (Eds.), *On TESOL Washington, D.C.: TESOL*.
- CHEN, H. J. (1995). Metapragmatic Judgements on Refusals: Its reliability and consistency. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 3910381, 1-43).
- Chojimah, N. (2015). Refusal and Politeness Strategies in Relation to Social Status: A Case of Face-threatening Act among Indonesian University Students. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, Vol. 5, No. 5.
- Cruz.M.P. (2013). Understanding and Overcoming Pragmatic Failure in Intercultural Communication: from Focus on Speakers to Focus on Hearers. *IRAL- International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*. Svilla university.
- Cohen, A. 1996." Investigating the production of speech act sets". In S. M. Gass and J. Neu (Eds.). *Speech Acts across Cultures* (pp. 23-43). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Cook, M. & Liddicoat, A. (2002). The development of comprehension in interlanguage pragmatics: The case of request strategies in English. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics* 25, 1:19-39. ALAA.
- Culpeper, J. Archer, D. (2008). Requests and Directness in Early Modern English Trial proceedings and play text. In *Speech Acts in the History of English*. Amsterdam/ Philadelphia.
- Culpeper, J; & Haugh, M (2014). *Pragmatics and the English Language* Par Jonathan Culpeper,Michael Haugh Palgrave Macmillan.
- Cummings, L. (2010). *The Routledge Pragmatics Encyclopedia*. Louise Cummings.

- De Betty J. Birner (2013). *Introduction to Pragmatics*. Wiley-Blackwell.
- Derakhshan, A. & Karimmi, E. (2015). The Interference of First Language and Second Language Acquisition. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, Vol. 5, No. 10, pp. 2112-2117.
- D'hondt S., Östman J.O., Verschueren J. (2009). *The Pragmatics of Interaction*. John Benjamins Publishing Company. Amsterdam/Philadelphia.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Dressler W.; Barbaresi, L.M. (1994). *Morphopragmatics : diminutives and intensifiers in Italian, German, and other languages*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyte,
- El Hiani, K. (2015). *Speech Act Knowledge among Moroccan EFL Learners at The University*. Lambert Academic Publishing.
- El Hiani, K. (2015). Performing speech acts among Moroccan EFL advanced Learners. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*.
- Elsayed M.(2014). A Cross-cultural study of pragmatically requestive speech act realization patterns. Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for degree of Med TESOL Faculty of Education.
- Eslami, Z, R. (2015) Refusals: How to develop appropriate refusal strategies. In: *Speech Act Performance: Theoretical, empirical and methodological issues*, John Benjamins Publishing Company., Editors: Martínez-Flor & E. Usó-Juan.
- Fahrurrozi . M. R. (2015). *A Pragmatic Analysis of Speech Act of Requests Expressed by the Characters in Office Space*. English Language and Literature Study Program Yogyakarta State University.
- Farnia, M. & Yazdani, E. (2018). Politeness Strategies in Reminders. A Cross-cultural Study of Iranian EFL learners and Americans. [Journal of Intercultural Communication](https://doi.org/10.1080/17513758.2018.1512345), Retrieved from: <https://immi.se/intercultural/nr46/farnia.html>

- Félix-Brasdefer, J. C. (2005). Indirectness and Politeness in Mexican Requests. Indiana University. Selected Proceedings of the 7th Hispanic Linguistics Symposium, ed. David Eddington, 66-78. Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Proceedings Project.
- Felix-Brasdefer, J. C. (2007) 'Natural speech vs. elicited data: A comparison of natural and role play requests in Mexican Spanish', *Spanish in Context*, 4: 159–185.
- Feter, A. (2011). Pragmatics as a linguistic concept. Foundations of pragmatics.
- Fukushima, S. (2003). Requests and Culture: Politeness in British English and Japanese. Peter Lang Pub Inc.
- Jianbn & Lihui (2010). A Study of Chinese EFL Learners' Pragmatic Failure and the Implications for College English Teaching. Polyglossia Vol. 18.
- Haddad, M. (2017). The use of request strategies in L2 English, The Case of Upper-Secondary Students in a Swedish Context. Malardalen University Sweden, School of Education, Culture and communication.
- Han & Tazegül (2016) Realization of Speech Acts of Refusals and Pragmatic Competence by Turkish EFL Learners. *The Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal Volume 16*.
- Hassani R. , Mardani, M. & Dastjerdi, V. (2011.) A Comparative Study of Refusals: Gender Distinction and Social Status in Focus. The International Journal - Language Society and Culture. Retrieved from:
[URL:www.educ.utas.edu.au/users/tle/JOURNAL/](http://www.educ.utas.edu.au/users/tle/JOURNAL/)
- Haverkate, H. (1984). Speech Acts, Speakers and Hearers: Reference and referential strategies in Spanish Pragmatics & Beyond. John Benjamins Publishing Company.

- Hedayatnejad F., Maleki R., Mehrizi A. (2016). The Effect of Social Status and Gender on Realization of Refusal of Suggestion among Iranian EFL Intermediate Learners
- Hill, T. (1997). The development of pragmatic competence in an EFL context. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Temple University, Tokyo, Japan.
- Hammani, M. (2019). Request Strategies and Level of Request Directness in Moroccan Arabic and American English. IOSR Journal Of Humanities And Social Science (IOSR-JHSS). Volume 24, Issue 8. www.iosrjournals.org
- Houck and Gass (1999) Houck, N. and Gass, S.M. 1996.” Non-native refusals: A methodological perspective”. In S.M. Gass and J. Neu (Eds.). *Speech Acts across Cultures* (pp. 45-64). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- House, et al. (1981). Politeness markers in English and German. In *Conversational Routine*, Florian Coulmas (ed.), 157–185. Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- House, J. and G. Kasper 1987. “Interlanguage pragmatics: Requesting in a foreign language”. Perspectives on language in performance. Festschrift für Werner Hüllen. Eds. W. Lörcher and R. Schultze. Tübingen: Narr Verlag.
- Huang, Y. (2012). The Oxford Dictionary of Pragmatics. Oxford, Oxford University Press.
- Gipps, C. V. (1994). *Beyond Testing: Towards a Theory of Educational Assessment*. London: The Falmer Press.
- Ghazanfari, M., Bonyadi, A., Malekzadeh, S. (2013). Investigating cross-linguistic differences in refusal speech act among native Persian and English speakers . *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning* Volume 2 Number 4, 49-63

- Goffman, E. (1956) . presentation of self in everyday life. University of Edinburgh Social Sciences Research Centre Monographs.
- Golato, A. (2003) ‘Studying compliment responses: A comparison of DCTs and recordings of naturally occurring talk’, *Applied Linguistics*, 24: 90–121.
- Golato, A. (2017). ‘Naturally Occuring Data. In The Routledge of Handbook of Pragmatics. London.
- Gungormezler, T. (2014). An Investigation of the Refusal Speech Act of Turkish Learners of English . B.A., Hacettepe University, Kanas State University.
- Kahtani. S.W. (2005). Refusals realizations in Three Different Cultures: A Speech Act Theoretically-based Cross-cultural study. J. King Saud Univ., Language and Translation. Riyadh.
- Kasper, G. (1995). Pragmatics of Chinese as Native and Target Language. Language Teaching & Curriculum Center, University of Hawai’I, United States of America.
- Kasper, G. & Dahl, M. (1991). Research methods in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 13, 215-247.
- Kasper, G.(1992). Pragmatic transfer. *Second Language Research* 8/3: 203–231.
- Kasper, G. (2000) ‘Data collection in pragmatics research’, in H. Spencer-Oatey (ed.) *Culturally Speaking: Managing Rapport through Talk across Cultures*. London/New York: Continuum. 316–341.
- Kasper, G. & Rose, K. R. (2002). *Pragmatic development in a second language* (Language Learning Monograph Series). Oxford: Blackwell.
- katz, M. (2015). Politeness theory and the classification of speech acts. Working Papers of the Linguistics Circle of the University of Victoria.
- Kess, F. (1992). Psycholinguistics: Psychology, linguistics, and the study of natural language.

John Benjamins Publishing Company. Amsterdam/Philadelphia.

Kogetsidis, M. & Woodfield, H. (2012). *Interlanguage Request Modification*. John Benjamins Publishing Company. Amsterdam.

Koppen et al. (2016). The influence of social distance on speech behavior: Formality variation in casual speech. the journal Corpus Linguistics and Linguistic Theory. Published by De Gruyter Mouton

Kwon, J.(2004). "Expressing refusals in Korean and in American English". *Multilingua*, 23, 339-364.

Latif, H.(2014). *A Study of Moroccan EFL Learners' Requests: A Cross-Cultural Approach*. Mohammed V – Agdal University Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences.

Leech, G. (1983) *principles of pragmatics*. Longman linguistics library title no.30 London and New York.

Leech,G. (2014).*The Pragmatics of Politeness*. Oxford University Press ; United States of America.

Lin, M. (2008). Pragmatic failure in intercultural communication and English teaching in China. *China Media Research*, 4(3), 43-52.

Linde, Á. (2009). *How Polite Can you Get?: A Comparative Analysis of Interlanguage Pragmatic Knowledge in Spanish and Moroccan EFL University Students*. *Porta Linguarum*.

Luo,X, Gao,J. (2011). *On Pragmatic Failure in Second Language Learning*. Theory and Practice in language Studies, Vol.1, No.3. Academy Publisher Manufactured in Finland.

Laurence R. and. Ward. G (2006). *The Handbook of Pragmatics*. Blackwell Publishing. British Library Cataloguing in Publication Data.

Levinson, S. (1983). *Pragmatics*.Cambridge University Press. United Kingdom.

Liddicoat, A.J. and Crozet, C. (2001) Acquiring French interactional norms through instruction. In K.R. Rose and G. Kasper (eds). *Pragmatics in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Loutfi A. (2016), **Pragmatic Transfer in Moroccan EFL Learners' Requests** *Asian Journal of Education and e-Learning* (ISSN: 2321 – 2454) Volume 04 – Issue 01, February

Martinez-Flor, A. & Uso-Juan, E. (2011). Research Methodologies in Pragmatics: Eliciting Refusals to Requests. *ELIA*, 11, 47-87.

Majetić, S. (2013). The Use of Pragmatics in E-mail Requests Made by Second Language Learners of English. *Asian Journal of Education and e-Learning* (ISSN: 2321 – 2454) Volume 01– Issue 01.

Marmaridou, S. (2011). Pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. In *Foundations of pragmatics*.

Mey Jacob L. (2009). *CONCISE ENCYCLOPEDIA OF PRAGMATICS*. Elsevier Ltd, Oxford.

Megumi, K, M. (2009). Refusals in Japanese telephone conversations. In: *Pragmatic Competence*. Mouton Series in Pragmatics. Berlin, New York.

Mira Ariel (2012). *Research paradigms in pragmatics*. The Cambridge.

Miles, P. (1994). Compliments and gender. [University of Howai, i Occasional papers Series, No. 26,85-137.

Moaveni, H. (2014). A Study of Refusal Strategies by American and International Students at an American University. *Theses, Dissertations, and Other Capstone Projects*. Paper 355.

<https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/214117216.pdf>

Morris, C. (1938). Foundations of the theory of signs. In: Otto Neurath, Rudolf Carnap and

Charles W. Morris (eds.), *International Encyclopaedia of Unified Science*. Volume 1

Muthusamy P. & Farashaiyan .A. (2016). Situational Variations in Request and Apology Realization Strategies among International Postgraduate Students at Malaysian Universities. *English Language Teaching*; Vol. 9, No. 3; Canadian Center of Science and Education.

- Muzigirwa, B. (2010). A Pragmatic Treatment Of Bukavu Media Kiswahili: Essays in Pragmatics. Retrieved from:
https://www.academia.edu/4817702/A_PRAGMATIC_TREATMENT_OF_BUKAVU_MEDIA_KISWAHILI_by_Muzigirwa_Munganga_Bonaventure
- Najafabadi, S., A. ; Paramasivam, S. (2012). Iranian EFL Learners' Interlanguage Request Modifications: Use of External and Internal Supportive Moves. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, Vol. 2, No. 7, ACADEMY PUBLISHER Manufactured in Finland.
- Nelson, G.L., Carson, J., Al Batal, M., and El Bakary, W. 2002. "Cross-cultural pragmatics: Strategy use in Egyptian Arabic and American English refusals". *Applied Linguistics*, 23/2, 163-189.
- Nelson, G., Al-Battal, M and El-Bakary, W. (2002). Directness vs Indirectness: Egyptian Arabic and US English Communication Style. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 26, 39-57
- Nemati, M., & Taghizade, M. (2006). Exploring similarities and differences between L1 and L2. *IRJABS*, 4(9), pp. 2477-2483.
- Nouichi, F. (2015). Cross- Cultural Pragmatic Failure. Université des frères Mentouri, Constantine, Algérie.
- Odlin, T. (1989). *Language transfer: cross-linguistic influence in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Olshtain, Elite - Shoshana Blum-Kulka 1985 "Crosscultural pragmatics and the testing of communicative competence", *Language Testing* 2: 16-30.
- Paltridge B., Phakiti, A. (2010). *Continuum Companion to Research Methods in Applied Linguistics*. Continuum International Publishing Group ; London ; New York.
- Parret (1983) *Semiotics and Pragmatics: An evaluative comparison of conceptual frameworks*. Herman Parret. John Benjamins publishing company. Amsterdam/Philadelphia.

- Potter, J. (2002) 'Two kinds of natural', *Discourse Studies*, 4: 543–548.
- Safont J.& Salazar P. (2009). Refusal Strategies: a proposal from a sociopragmatic approach.
Article in *Revista Espanola de Linguistica Aplicada*. Research gate
- Shively, R. L. (2011) 'L2 pragmatic development in study abroad: A longitudinal study of Spanish service encounters', *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43: 1818–1835.
- Putri, Y. K. (2010) refusals strategies in English speech: A pragmatic Study.
- Reiter, R. (2000). *Linguistic Politeness in Britain and Uruguay: A Contrastive Study of Requests and Apologies*. *Pragmatics & Beyond New Series 83*. John Benjamins.
- Rasouli, K. H. and Subbakrishna, R. (2014). Internal/External Modifiers in Request Speech Act among Iranian Study Abroad Learners. *Research Journal of Recent Sciences Vol. 3(5)*, 55-64.
- Rue, Y.-J. & Zhang, G. Q. (2008). *Request Strategies. A comparative study in Mandarin Chinese and Korean*. Curtin University of Technology, Australia.
- Sadler R.and Eröz B. (2002)"I Refuse You!" An Examination of English Refusals by Native Speakers of English, LAO, and Turkish. *Arizona Working Papers in SLAT Vol. 9*
- Savić, M. (2014).*Politeness through the prism of requests, apologies and refusals: a case of advanced Serbian EFL learners*. Cambridge Scholars Publishing, Tyne.
- Sbina, H. (2014). Request Modification In The Pragmatic Production Of Intermediate ESP Learners. University of Novi Sad, Serbia. Vol. 2: 29-47 *Journal of English for Specific Purposes At Tertiary Level*.
- Searle, J. (1969). *Speech Acts, An Essay In The Philosophy Of Language*. Cambridge, University Press.
- Searle,J. Kiefer, F. & Bierwisch, M. (1980). *Speech act Theory and Pragmatics*. Academy of Sciences of the G.D.R., Berlin.

- Searle, J. (1976). *A Classification of Illocutionary Acts*. Cambridge University Press.
- Searle, J., and Daniel, Vanderken. (1985). *Foundations of illocutionary logic*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University.
- Sifianou, M. (1992). The use of diminutives in expressing politeness: Modern Greek versus English. *Journal of pragmatics*.
- Soler, E. A. & Jorda P. S. & Martinez- Flor, A. (2005). *Towards a Typology of Modifiers for the Speech Act of Requesting: A Socio-Pragmatic Approach*. University Jaume I (Castellon).
- Soler ,E.A., Jorda, P.S.(2018). *Intercultural Language Use and Language Learning*. Springer, Castello, Spain.
- Stavans, A. & Shafran, R. W. (2017): The pragmatics of requests and refusals in multilingual settings, *International Journal of Multilingualism*.
- Taavitsainen, I., and Jucker, A. (2008). *Speech acts now and then Towards a pragmatic history of English*. IN: *Speech Acts in the History of English*. John Benjamins Publishing Company Amsterdam / Philadelphia.
- Tabar, M. S. (2012). *Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization: The Case of Requests in the Persian and Turkish Speech of Iranian Speakers*. Payame Noor University Tehran, Iran
International Journal of Business and Social Science Vol. 3 No. 13; July 2012
- Taguchi, N. (2009). *Pragmatic Competence*. Berlin : Mouton de Gruyter.
- Taguchi, N. (2012). *Context, Individual Differences and Pragmatic Competence*. Second Language Acquisition. Multilingual Matters publishing.
- Takahashi S. (1995). *Pragmatic transferability of indirect request strategies perceived by Japanese learners of English- Unpublished PhD dissertation*. University of Hawaii. iat Manoa

- Takahashi, S. (2001). The role of input enhancement in developing pragmatic competence. In G. Kasper & K. R. Rose (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 171-199). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Takahashi, S. (2010). *Pragmatics across Languages and Cultures*. Handbooks of Pragmatics, De Gruyter Mouton.
- Terkourafi, M. (2011). Thank You, Sorry and Please in Cypriot Greek: What Happens to Politeness Markers When They Are Borrowed across Languages? *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43(1)..
- The Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA), (2015). Structure of Refusals. Retrieved from: <http://carla.umn.edu/speechacts/refusals/structure.html>
- Thomas, J. (1983). *Cross-cultural pragmatic failure*. Applied Linguistics
- Trosborg, A. (1995). *Interlanguage Pragmatics: Requests, Complaints and Apologies*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Verschueren, (2000). *Notes On The Role Of Metapragmatic Awareness In Language Use*. International Pragmatics Association
- Verschueren, J. & Ostman, J. (2009). *Key Notions for Pragmatics*. Amsterdam. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Vilar-Beltran, E. (2008). The use of mitigators in role-play activities: A comparison between native and nonnative speakers of English. In E. Alcon-soler (Ed.), *Learning how to request in an instructed language learning context* (pp. 127-142). Bern: Peter Lang.
- Walters, J. (1980). "Grammar, meaning and sociocultural appropriateness in second language acquisition". *Canadian Journal of Psychology/Revue canadienne de psychologie*.
- Wannaruk, A. (2008). *Pragmatic Transfer in Thai EFL Refusals*. SAGE Publications, Los Angeles, London, New Delhi, Singapore Washington DC

- Yang, L. (2009). *The Speech Act Of Request: A Comparative Study Of Chinese And American Graduate Students At An American University*. Bowling Green State University.
- Yule, G. (1996). *Pragmatics*. Oxford University Press.
- Yuliani K.P.(2010). *Refusal Strategies In English Speech: A Pragmatic Study*. Padjadjaran University.
- Zhang, S., & Wang, X. (1997). A comparative study of the speech act of requests. *Modern Foreign Languages*, 3, 63-72.

Appendices

Appendix 1
Discourse Completion Task

Background information

Age :

Level : 1st year 2nd year 3rd year

Gender: Male Female

Place of Birth :

Written DCTs

I. Scenarios for the speech act of requesting

Situation 1 : You are a shop assistant in a shoe shop and a client came into the shop. He/she ordered a specific size which is not available. You don't want to lose the opportunity. So, you ask him/her to come back in two weeks' time to find the exact size. **(Make a request in which you ask the client to come back to get the size he is asking for).**

You:.....

Situation 2 : You are in a restaurant having lunch with your friends. The waiter came and took your order. You had your meal and when you were done, you asked for the bill to see how much you need to pay. You were about to pay when you found out that you have forgotten your wallet at home. You ask one of your intimate friends to pay for you. **How would make a request?**

You:.....

Situation 3 : You were driving your car back home when suddenly your car's engine stopped. You know nothing about cars and you have no idea what happened. You have a very urgent appointment that you have to reach. Thus, you call your cousin to repair the car so that you will be able to arrive on time to your meeting. **How would make a request?**

You:.....

Situation 4 : You are having troubles with a particular subject. The exams are too close, and you could not find the appropriate way to revise that subject. You asked a hard-working student, who is not your friend but belongs to the same university, to help you with your assignment. **How would you ask him/her?**

You:.....

Situation 5 : You are a high school student who is obsessed with fashion and, as any teenager you like to follow the latest fashion trends. You tried a weird hairstyle cut with an odd color. However, the school policy states that students are not allowed to wear inappropriate dresses and forbids strange haircuts. You met the school headmaster at the door of your school, he asked you to go back home and change your look. You have an exam that you cannot miss. **You make a request asking him to allow you to attend your morning classes.**

You:.....

Situation 6: You are a Ph.D student who is conducting a research on the reasons behind teenage rebellion. You ask your nephew, who is a high school student, to invite his friends so that you can interview them and collect the data. **How would you ask him?**

You:.....

Situation 7: You are in an antique shop looking for valuable old objects. You couldn't find any precious things to buy. You accidentally met one of your classmates there and asked him/her to join you to visit a larger shop. **Ask your classmate to join you.**

You:.....

Situation 8: It's the end of the academic year. You are now a new graduate university student who would like to have his/her certificate. You've tried to get it from the administration but every time you go there, the working staff claim that they are too busy with other things and, consequently, they won't be able to give it to you until next month. You want to apply for a job and the deadline is in one week. You have no choice but to see the dean of the faculty to fasten the proceeding. **You ask the dean to sign your diploma.**

You:.....

Situation 9: Your elder brother/sister is going on a trip to the beach. He/she is going with his/her friends. You are so bored, your parents won't allow you to go alone since you are too young. **So, you ask your elder brother/ sister to let you join them.**

You:.....

II. Scenarios for the speech act of refusals

Situation 1: You were heading to your school where you met an old lady. She is back from the supermarket carrying heavy bags. She is too old and little tired after a very long journey. She asked you to help her carry the bags home. You really want to help her but you have to hurry to your school where you have an exam. **You refuse by saying:**

You:.....
.....

Situation 2: You are running out of money and you need to pay for your tuition fees as soon as possible. You decided to work as a babysitter, you found an offer with an acceptable salary but one of their conditions was that they are going to pay you only after two months later. You refuse to accept this condition since you only have one month to pay your school. **You refuse by saying:**

You:.....

Situation 3: Your son/daughter's school is organizing a journey to the mountains. All his/her friends are going and he urged you to go. But because of your son/daughter's bad health condition, you think that he/she had better not to go until he/she fully recovers. **You refuse by saying:**

You:.....

Situation 4 : You are on the train travelling from Rabat to Casablanca. You are going to your university to defend your dissertation. You are rehearsing your speech and checking your work on your Laptop when another Ph.D student whom you have never met asked you to lend him/ her your laptop so that he/ she can check his/her email. You are too busy and cannot do that **you refuse by saying:**

You:.....

Situation 5: Your university is organizing a conference. One of your classmates is participating on that conference. He accidentally met you on the library and asked to help him/her prepare his/her presentation. You have too many tasks that you need to finish and no choice but to refuse. **You refuse by saying:**

You:.....

Situation 6: You are a teacher and one of your students feels that his/her performance in the final exam was not satisfactory. So, he/she came to your office asking you to retake the exam. **You refuse by saying:**

You:.....

Situation 7: It is your wedding anniversary. You decided to celebrate the occasion with your friends. During the party the music was too loud, and your neighbors send their kid to inform you that they were disturbed by the loud music and asked you to stop the music. **You refuse by saying:**

You:.....

Situation 8: Your professor at the university is looking for volunteers to launch a new reading club that will be supervised by him. He appointed you as a leader of the club. You believe that being a leader would be time and energy consuming, especially that you are a third year student and you are required to write a monograph. **You refuse by saying:**

You:.....

Situation 9: You were sitting in the park when you met your best friend. He told you that his/her car is broken down and he/she needs to bring his/her uncle from the airport. He/she asked you to lend him/her your car. You have a very urgent appointment that you cannot miss. **You refuse by saying:**

You:.....

Appendix 2
Multiple Choice Questionnaire

Multiple Choice Questionnaire

Situation 1: It is your first day at university and you came late. You realized that all students have got the whole planning of the first semester. Therefore, you decided to ask one of the students to let you make a copy of the planning. *What would you say?*

- a. Without telling you, I urgently need to get a copy of the planning?
- b. Would you mind if I borrow your copy of the planning?
- c. I don't know if you are able to lend me the copy of the planning.

Situation 2: You are a student at the university. It is the beginning of a new academic year. You have attended the first session and got the whole planning of the first semester. One of your classmates asked to borrow your notebook so that he can make a copy of the planning. You are too busy to lend your notebook and wait for him to make a copy of it. *How would you refuse?*

- a. I'd love to but I have got a busy schedule.
- b. You have to excuse me, I can't.
- c. let it for the next time. I can't now.

Situation 3: You start preparing for your research and you need to find a supervisor. You believe that a particular professor can help you a lot with his/her expertise in your area of research. You want to ask him/her to supervise your work. *What would you say?*

- a. Are you ready to be my supervisor?
- b. can you be my supervisor if you want?
- c. I would be grateful if you could supervise my work.

Situation 4: It is your first visit to a touristic zone and the place is completely unfamiliar for you. You want to visit some famous places for shopping and you don't know how to get there. You decide to ask a person in the street. *What would you say?*

- a. Hello, I was wondering where can I find some places for shopping?
- b. Hello my friend do you know any places for shopping here?
- c. Hi there, do you have any idea about some places for shopping?

Situation 5: You are too late for work; you were rushing to your work place when suddenly a stranger stopped you to ask for directions. Unfortunately, you have no time to answer him. *You refuse by saying:*

- a. I am helpful but I don't have time now.
- b. I am afraid I can't help you right now.
- c. Try to ask someone else, I'm in a hurry.

Situation 6: You missed the deadline of submitting your assignment because you had to prepare for your presentation in public speaking. You don't have any other solution but asking your professor to extend the deadline 3 more days to complete your assignment. *What would you say?*

- a. I had other engagements, that's why I need more time to submit my assignment.
- b. Please give me some extra time because I had a presentation.
- c. would it be possible if you extend the deadline, please?

Situation 7: You are a university professor, you asked your students to submit their assignments on a specific day. One of the students missed the deadline and did not submit the assignment because he had to prepare for his presentation in public speaking. He asked to extend the deadline 3 more days to have enough time to complete his work. *You refuse by saying:*

- a. I want to help but I can't.
- b. I'd love to but this is impossible.
- c. I wish I could but the deadline is fixed, I'm afraid.

Situation 8: You and your friends make the decision to have a picnic in the park the following day. You call a friend of yours and ask him/her to join you and bring with him/her some picnic materials that you would use. *How would you make this request?*

- a. Join us and bring the picnic materials, if you want.
- b. You won't regret it. Please come and bring the picnic materials I asked you for.
- c. what about joining us and bringing some materials for the picnic?

Situation 9: Your friends decide to have a picnic in the park. They ask you to join them but you already arranged a business with your father. *You refuse by saying:*

- a. I don't hate it, but I can't.
- b. I wish I could but I have an important appointment.
- c. I would like to be part of it, but I have already an arranged meeting.

Appendix 3
Awareness Test

Awareness test

Situation 1: You are a university student. Your department is organizing a conference. One of the greatest scholars was invited as a keynote speaker. You are amazed by his/her theories, you run to him/her asking him/her to take a picture with him/her. *You make a request by saying:*

- **Can I take a few seconds from your time to take a picture with you, if you don't have a problem?**

Appropriate

Inappropriate

Situation 2: You are a foreign scholar who was invited to be a keynote speaker on a conference at university. Your speech is about to start when some students greet you and ask you to take a picture with them. *You refuse by saying:*

- **I am afraid I am about to start my speech right now. May be after the presentation.**

Appropriate

Inappropriate

Situation 3: You are a little kid playing in the park. You find two other kids playing together. They seem to have so much fun and you decide to join them. *You make the request by saying:*

- **Let's play together**

Appropriate

Inappropriate

Situation 4: You and your friend were having fun in the park when another little boy/girl interrupted you and asked you to let him/her join you. *You refuse by saying:*

- **Let it for another time.**

Appropriate

Inappropriate

Situation 5: You are a very old man waiting for your turn to see a doctor. Your age does not allow you to sit for a long time because you are suffering from backache. You ask a very young man to swap (switch) your turns. *You make a request by saying:*

- **I think it is a good idea if I change my turn with you.**

Appropriate

Inappropriate

Situation 6: You are waiting for your turn in a clinic. When your turn arrives, a very old man who seemed very tired asked to take your turn. Although you understand the old man's situation, you are unable to give up your turn because you have to go back to your work as soon as possible. *You refuse by saying:*

- **I'd love to, but I have an important appointment that I cannot miss.**

Appropriate

Inappropriate

Situation 7: You are a new member of a theater club. There is an interesting comedy show to which all the old members are invited to attend. Although you are a newcomer, you make a

request to your coach asking him/her to allow you to attend this special event. You *make the request by saying*:

• **Could you please allow me to attend?**

Appropriate

Inappropriate

Situation 8: You are a coach and a leader of a theater club. Your association is organizing a special comedy show. One of the members, who has recently joined the club, asked you to allow him/her to attend this event. Unluckily, the club's policy states that old members are the only ones who have the right to attend for free. So, you have no choice but to refuse. *You refuse by saying*:

• **No, this is against the rules.**

Appropriate

Inappropriate

Situation 9: You are at home alone with your little kid and a very urgent appointment came up. You can neither take your kid nor can you let him/her home alone. You asked your neighbor to take care of him/her that morning. *You make a request by saying*:

• **I know this is short notice, but I really need a favour. Could you please take care of my child this morning because of a very urgent appointment?**

Appropriate

Inappropriate

Situation 10: Your neighbor has a very urgent and sudden appointment. He asked you to watch his/her kid in the morning. But you have other commitments. So you cannot accept to do that. *You refuse by saying*:

• **I don't want to do that. I have other commitments.**

Appropriate

Inappropriate

Situation 11: You are a director and you are training at the same gym as one of your employees. Another very well equipped club was launched. You want to change your gym and start training at the new one. You ask your employee to accompany you. *You make a request by saying*:

• **You know there is a very well equipped new club. It would be great if you could join me there.**

Appropriate

Inappropriate

Situation 12: Your director suggests changing your gym to start training at a new gym that is far from your house. You believe that the new gym does not fit your schedule and not suitable for you. *You refuse by saying*:

• **I am sorry, but the new gym does not fit my schedule. Maybe we can find another one that fits our conditions.**

Appropriate

Inappropriate

Situation 13: You are a very old lady. It is summer time and the family is planning to have a picnic. Your health conditions require that you should stay at home and rest. You do not want to stay at home alone. You ask your grandson/granddaughter to stay with you and take you to hospital instead. *You make a request by saying*:

- **Take me to the hospital and I'll buy you dinner.**

Appropriate

Inappropriate

Situation 14: Your grandmother is a very old lady, who suffers from many health problems. She asked you to stay with her and take her to the hospital, but you and your family are planning to go on a picnic that day. ***You refuse by saying:***

- **Are you joking! I can't miss the opportunity of hanging out with my family and join you.**

Appropriate

Inappropriate

Situation 15: The exams are close. You ask your best friend to meet and prepare for the exams. ***You make a request by saying:***

- **How about preparing together for the exam?**

Appropriate

Inappropriate

Situation 16: Your best friend suggested that you meet to prepare for the exams together. Unfortunately, you have to attend the funeral of one of your family members which will be held on the same day. ***You refuse by saying:***

- **I am Sorry, but I have to attend the funeral of one of y relatives. Perhaps tomorrow.**

Appropriate

Inappropriate

Situation 17: You are a minor and still have no right to take the driving test. You are so excited to drive your father's new car. You asked your father to allow you to take his car for a ride. ***You make a request by saying:***

- **Lend me your car.**

Appropriate

Inappropriate

Situation 18: Your son, who is a minor, asked you to allow him to drive your new car. As a father, you are concerned about your son's safety; especially that he has no driving license. ***You refuse by saying:***

- **I can't let you drive it for the time being. Try to get your driving license first.**

Appropriate

Inappropriate