BAŞKENT UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION
MASTER IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING WITH THESIS

AN EVALUATION OF THE OF THE PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE OF PRE-SERVICE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS: POLITENESS STRATEGIES USED IN MAKING REQUESTS IN THE ACADEMIC CONTEXT

PREPARED BY

ELİF DÜŞÜNCELİ KELEŞ
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MASTER THESIS

ANKARA – 2023

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To my family…

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Elif DÜŞÜNCELİ KELEŞ

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ÖZET

Elif DÜŞÜNCELİ KELEŞ

İngilizce Öğretmen Adaylarının Edimbilim Yetileri Üzerine Bir Değerlendirme: Akademik Bağlamda Rica Etme Sözeylemlerinde Nezaket Stratejileri

Başkent Üniversitesi
Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü
Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
İngilizce Dili Öğretimi Yüksek Lisans Programı

2023

Bu çalışma, diller arası bir edimbilim perspektifinden, Türk İngilizce öğretmen adaylarının, akademik bağlamda nezaket stratejileri, doğrudanlık düzeyleri, sözeylem modifiye stratejileri, bakış açıları ve hitap terimleri açısından rica sözeyleminde bulunan konuşma edimini nasıl yerine getirdiklerini incelemeyi amaçlamıştır. Veri toplamak için 10 senaryo içeren bir Söylem Tamamlama Testi (DCT) geliştirilmiştir ve Türkiye'de özel bir üniversitede öğrenim gören 89 İngilizce öğretmen adayından DCT'deki durumlar karşısında ne söyleyeceklerini yazmaları istenmiştir. İlk olarak Blum-Kulka ve diğerleri (1989) tarafından geliştirilen CCSARP çerçevesinin uyarlanmış bir model kullanılarak nitel analiz yapılmıştır. Daha sonra, rica sözeylemi stratejilerinin sonuçları sayısallaştırılmıştır ve nicelenen veriler, tanımlayıcı istatistikler ve ki-kare ile analiz edilmiştir. Araştırmanın bulguları, zahmet derecelerinin hem yüksek hem de düşük olduğu durumlarda alışılagelmiş dolaylı rica stratejileri kullanma eğiliminin yüksek olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu durum, istek stratejileri seçiminin her iki zahmet derecesi için paralel olduğunu göstermiştir. Ek olarak, sözeylem modifiye stratejileri kullanımının yüksek olduğu, çoğunlukla istekleri azaltmak için zemin hazırlama stratejisi kullanıldığı görülmüştür. İngilizce öğretmen adayları, isteklerin dinleyiciler üzerindeki etkisini yumuşatmak için nezaket belirteçleri olarak 'lütfen'i tercih etmişlerdir. Ayrıca, eğitmenlere hitap etme eğiliminin düşük kaldığı görülmüştür ve bu da akademik bağlamda taleplerde bulunurken daha resmi ve kibar olma ihtiyacını vurgulamıştır. Sonuç olarak, İngilizce öğretmeni adaylarının akademik bağlamda çoğunlukla konuşmacı ve dinleyici odaklı taleplerde bulundukları, ancak konuşmacı odaklı talepleri daha fazla kullanmışlardır. Bu, katılımcıların çoğunlukla konuşurlar arasında sosyal gücün ve mesafenin yüksek olduğu akademik bağlamda dinleyicilere fayda sağlama eğiliminde olduklarını göstermiştir. Çalışmanın bulguları, İngilizce öğretmen adaylarının rica sözeylemini bir dereceye kadar kibarca yerine getirdiklerini, ancak sözeylem modifiye stratejilerini gerçekleştirme konusunda pragmatik yeterlilik ve rica sözeylemlerini yumuşatmak için kullanılan hafifletme strateji kullanımının sınırlı olduğu vurgulamıştır. Sonuç olarak, geleceğin dil öğretmenlerinin pragmatik farkındalığını ve yeterliliğini artırmak için dilin pragmatik yönlerini İngilizce Öğretimi programlarına entegre etmenin önemi vurgulanmıştır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Edimbilim, Aradil Edimbilimi, Edimbilimsel Yeterlilik, Rica Söz Eylemleri, Nezaket Stratejileri.

ABSTRACT

Elif DÜŞÜNCELİ KELEŞ

An Evaluation of the Pragmatic Competence of Pre-Service English Language Teachers: Politeness Strategies Used in Making Requests in the Academic Context

Başkent University
Institute of Educational Sciences
Department of Foreign Languages
Master's of English Language Teaching with Thesis

2023

The current study aimed to examine, from an interlanguage pragmatics perspective, how Turkish pre-service EFL teachers fulfill the speech act of request in terms of politeness strategies, levels of directness, internal and external modifiers, perspectives, and address terms in the academic context. To collect data, a discourse completion test (DCT), including ten scenarios, was developed, and 89 pre-service EFL teachers studying in a private university in Turkey were asked to write what they would say in response to the situations described in the DCT. The data-the request tokens- were first analyzed qualitatively using an adapted model of the CCSARP framework developed by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989). Then, the results of the request strategies were quantized, and the data were analyzed through descriptive statistics and chi-square. The study's findings demonstrated that the tendency to use conventionally indirect request strategies was high in situations where the degrees of impositions were both high and low in academic contexts. This indicated that the choice of request strategies was parallel for both degrees of imposition. Additionally, it was found that the use of external modifiers was high, mostly occurring as 'grounders' to mitigate the requests. As for internal modifiers, pre-service EFL teachers preferred 'please' as politeness markers to soften the force of the requests on the hearers. Moreover, the tendency to address instructors remained low, highlighting the need for being more formal and polite when making requests in the academic context. Hence, it was observed that the participants mostly made speaker and hearer-oriented requests in the academic context; however, speaker-oriented requests were made more. This suggested that the participants mostly tended to impose benefits on the hearers, where social power and distance are high among the interlocutors. The study's findings indicated that pre-service EFL teachers perform the speech act of request politely to some extent; nevertheless, they need to gain pragmatic competence to make authentic ways of making requests by integrating appropriate mitigating strategies in the academic context. In conclusion, integrating the pragmatic aspects of language into English Language Teaching programs is significant to improve the pragmatic awareness and competence of prospective language teachers regarding the fulfillment of requests in academic contexts in particular and other speech acts in various contexts of conversations in general.

Keywords: Pragmatics, Interlanguage Pragmatics, Pragmatic Competence, Requests, Politeness.

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ABBREVIATION LIST

CCSARP	Cross Cultural Speech Act Realization Project
DCT	Discourse Completion Test
DOI	Degree of Imposition
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
NNS	Non-Native Speaker
NS	Native Speaker
RQST	Request
SD	Social Distance
SP	Social Power

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents and discusses the background of the study, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research questions, and definitions of the key terms.

1.1. Background of the Study

English is the world language as a consequence of globalization, and since English is the most widely used language, a considerable amount of communication by non-native speakers of English takes place without the involvement of native speakers of English. When interacting in English (Kecskés, 2007), people use it for a wide range of purposes with interlocutors coming from different cultural and first language background. This, in return, requires more than just having a good command of its phonological, semantic, morphological, and syntactic features and rules. As a matter of fact, for successful and appropriate communication in the target language, how speakers fulfill their communicative intensions with proper realizations of functions is highly significant (i.e., pragmatic aspect of language). Hence, it may be of great matter to understand and analyze how language is used by speakers of English and in which types of discourse.

Spencer-Oatey (2008) indicates that communication is a type of social interaction in which the communicator's intentions are expressed through the production and evaluation of evidence. Nonetheless, many scholars have remarked that communication also entails "the management of social relations," despite the fact that people occasionally mistake it for "the transmission of information" (Spencer- Oatey, 2000, p.1). Searle (2007) also pointed out that the conventional meaning of words, sentences, and other symbols must be differentiated from the speaker's intended meaning, which is communicated by intentional utterance. Atay (2005) signifies that comprehending more than just the appropriate L2 grammar and vocabulary is necessary for successful interaction in a second language. This means language speaking is based not solely on having acquired the required knowledge but also on the ability to use it in performing the language. This ability is important for native speakers of a language and language learners since the fundamentals of speaking a language are based not only on rules but also on competencies and skills. Most significantly, these

competencies include communicative competence, which is required to use language effectively when using fundamental skills such as reading, speaking, writing, and listening. Atay (2005), furthermore, adds that it is important for language learners to consider the interactional needs of the communicative event in terms of the situation, the participants, and the interaction's goals before using language that is appropriate for the context. When an interlocutor is aware of the context of the interaction, the aim, and the status of the interlocutors, then the linguistic knowledge to use the appropriate language in the right situation is performed. The ability to know how to use a language in different contexts by taking interlocutors in the communicative interaction and the features of the communicative context into account is called pragmatic competence. Pragmatic competence, which includes both the capacity to comprehend or encode the illocutionary force of an utterance and familiarity with the norms governing the target language (Thomas, 1983), is crucial for conveying functional meaning properly and avoiding misunderstandings and communication breakdowns. However, pragmatic norms may be different in various cultures, and they may not be taught as the same for everyone. People with different cultural backgrounds, genders, ages, and educational backgrounds have gone through different language learning processes. Therefore, their language strategies and production may differ from one another depending on context because “many times, the choice of strategies is influenced by sociocultural norms such as status, gender, social distance, power, and/or environment/situation” (Tatton, 2008, p.1). Also, Pan (2012) suggests that when students interact with people from other cultures, they should pay particular attention to the cultural expectations and pragmatic expectations of the society in which English is being spoken. As communication happens to a great extent with language use and production, it is of great importance to understand how language is used in communication. This is closely investigated in the field of pragmatics which necessitates a close examination of how speakers organize their intended meaning in light of the audience, setting, time of day, and environmental factors (Yule, 1996). In other words, pragmatics is the study of contextual meaning. This consideration is essential since if we want a more comprehensive, in-depth, and generally more rational explanation of human language behavior, pragmatics is needed (Mey, 1993). One thing that is appropriate in one culture may not be so in the target culture. Thus, there can be misunderstandings between the speakers and the hearers. These misconceptions can occur due to the reason that foreign language students may achieve a comfortable command of the language's vocabulary and syntax, which is meant as linguistic competence, without obtaining a corresponding command of the language's pragmatic or

functional applications, such as those indicated by speech acts (Cohen, 1996). For instance, a person may have learned the grammar used to ask for a drink but may not know how to ask to whom and in what kind of situation. This signifies that the person is lacking pragmatic competence, and therefore, language speakers need to be pragmatically competent in order to communicate suitably. Another term that completes pragmatic competence and linguistic competence is pragmalinguistic competence. Kasper and Rose (1999) define pragmalinguistic as a term usually used in connection with sociopragmatic, which refers to the knowledge that a linguistic form has certain social criteria for appropriate usage, to signify how this awareness that the linguistic form communicates the necessary pragmatic purpose. Of these social prerequisites, awareness of politeness plays a significant role in employing appropriate language performance depending on different social contexts.

Eelen (2001) highlights that politeness is a phenomenon that merges language with the social environment, which justifies the 'socio' prefix. Politeness has to do with language, and more especially language usage, which explains its categorization under pragmatics. Because politeness is regularly seen as a phenomenon related to language and social reality, the pragmatic and sociolinguistic perspectives—which can be distinguished to a greater or lesser degree from one another depending on their precise definition and elimination—unite the field of politeness theory. People's views, attitudes, and expectations about what defines (im)polite behavior make (im)politeness an evaluative judgment (Spencer-Oatey, 2005, as cited in Ruhi and Işık-Güler, 2007). The politeness model by Brown and Levinson (1987) proposes two sorts of faces, positive and negative faces that are concerned with interpersonal interactions. However, Spencer-Oatey (2015) argues that their model is primarily focused on the personalized concept of face and asserts that a social perspective should be integrated. She also names politeness as 'rapport' and considers it as 'rapport management, which means managing rapport according to situations and interlocutors. According to Spencer-Oatey (2000, 2008), conceptions of social rights and commitments as well as facial sensitivities have an impact on rapport. Therefore, it is essential to know and understand pragmatics since the fundamental aim of language is to communicate in a convenient manner, by managing rapport in different discourses and social constraints.

Regarding politeness, it is noteworthy to comprehend how to evaluate it in social interactions and contexts. Birner (2012) signifies that discourse analysis and pragmatics are complementary disciplines. She adds that the focus of pragmatics is on language use in

context, and context might include the discourse of one's surroundings. On the other hand, Birner (2012) mentions that “discourse analysis focuses on the individual discourse, using the findings of pragmatic theory to shed light on how a particular set of interlocutors use and interpret language in a specific context” (p. 13). In line with pragmatics, it is ‘Interlanguage Pragmatics’ research which specifically focuses on participants' position as native or non-native speakers, on "general pragmatic norms" of a hypothetical target language speech community, and on how much each second language learner concedes with those general pragmatic norms (Tarone, 2005). Therefore, deciding on the speech community, namely discourse, matters for interlanguage pragmatics research. A speech community is described by Tarone (2005) as “a group of people who share conventions of speaking and interpretation of speech performance” (p.158). The speech communities in this research are the classroom, instructors’ offices, and the university environment that includes the academic discourse. For the purpose of this study, academic discourse appears to be institutionalized since the university is an institution, and therefore, it is significant to highlight the reason for deciding on such a phenomenon. Davies and Tyler (2005) emphasize institutional talk as:

> “Naturally occurring institutional talk is a rich source of data that, when analyzed from a triangulated, interactional sociolinguistic perspective, can yield significant insights into the various discourse dimensions which contribute to interlanguage pragmatics” (p.113).

Moreover, institutional talk is a naturally occurring data that is used for the aim of the present study, illustrating interlanguage pragmatics in the academic discourse. In an institution such as a university, the talk, namely communication, may often be between instructors and students. Due to this, both interlocutors employ various speech acts in different situations such as apologizing, requesting, etc. Specifically, both native English speakers and non-native English speakers find themselves making requests frequently in their lives in a variety of contexts. However, Krulatz (2012) states that requests are challenging for second language learners because of their cross-linguistic variation: they can be more or less straightforward, and they can be made in many different ways.

The emphasis on the evaluation of speech actions is justified by the fact that linguistic activities are a necessary component of any linguistic communication (Searle, 1969). Concerning this statement and linguistic communication, speech acts appear to be significant

in pragmatics studies. Ogiermann and Bella (2020) indicate that requests as Speech actions have been researched in a number of fields, including conversation studies, language learning, socialization, and cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics. With a focus on the contrast between native and non-native usage, the Cross-Cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Patterns (CCSARP) was a remarkable project of Pragmatics studies and was established in an effort to examine intralanguage and interlanguage (cultural) diversity in the realization patterns of requests and apologies focusing on the cross-cultural analysis of requests and apologies between native and non-native students of Hebrew and English.

Considering the challenges and the need to explore the use of speech acts, some valuable research has been conducted regarding the speech act of requests (Baranova & Dingemanse, 2016; Biesenbach-Lucas, 2007; Blum-Kulka, 1985; Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2011; Vassilaki & Selimis, 2020). On account of this, the speech act of request occurs to be a specific speech act to be analyzed within the politeness strategies when performing the speech act in the academic context since it is a face-threatening act (Brown & Levinson, 1987). In an academic context, and where the social distance between the interlocutors is high, students generally want to confront the positive face of the hearers when they make a request.

Cohen (2005) states that it is becoming increasingly evident that teaching second language words and phrases outside of their sociocultural context might result in the creation of linguistic oddities that fail to fulfill their communicative goals. He adds that given this reality, learning about speech act theory and practice may assist second language teachers better prepare their students to take on the challenge of producing more contextually appropriate speech in the target language. Also, Qiao (2014) indicates that traditional English teaching and learning has placed a strong emphasis on grammatically correct sentences while completely neglecting the development of students' pragmatic competence—the capacity to use language effectively to achieve a specific goal and comprehend language in context. It is emphasized how crucial it is that language teachers have a comprehensive understanding of the English linguistics system, including phonology, grammar, and discourse, as well as fluency in speaking, reading, writing, and listening. They also stress the importance of understanding the close interrelationship between language and culture (Brown, 2001, as cited in Hatipoglu, 2017). The reason for EFL teachers to focus on grammar may be due to a lack of pragmatic competence, so the more pragmatically

competent the teachers become, the better and more they would consider teaching by considering pragmatics. Yule (1996) indicates that "the advantage of studying language via pragmatics is that one can talk about people's intended meanings, their assumptions, their purposes or goals, and the kinds of actions (e.g., requests) that they are performing when they speak" (p.4). Therefore, the present study aims to evaluate pre-service EFL teachers' competencies in this area.

1.2. Significance of the Study

Learners of English desire to speak the language appropriately regarding its components and requirements. English is a foreign language in the Turkish context, and due to this, the majority of EFL instructors are not native speakers. Nevertheless, they may have developed their linguistic ability, in other words, linguistic competence, which would lack without pragmatic competence. In addition, El-Okda (2011) states that most foreign language teachers are not native speakers of English; therefore, they must be well prepared to teach this aspect of grammar, which is pragmatic competence. EFL teachers must first know how to employ speech acts to teach language learners appropriately. EFL teachers who teach language learners are expected to be pragmatically competent to communicate in interactional relationships appropriately and to teach learners language to use for communicative intentions. This is the case in Turkey as well; most English teachers are non-native speakers of English and do not always have the chance to be exposed to English in its natural culture and environment; therefore, they may lack pragmatic competence (e.g., Bektaş-Çetinkaya, 2012; Kılıçkaya, 2010; Terzi, 2014). Hence, this study examines prospective teachers' strategies for seeking politeness in the academic context. Requesting as part of speaking is expected to be used politely and appropriately due to various circumstances, such as in an academic context. However, it may not be done accordingly due to a lack of pragmatic competence. Communication in the academic context might be challenging due to the higher social power between students and EFL instructors, which requires a more appropriate language performance. To use proper language and avoid pragmatic failures, pragmatic competence must be acquired and taught in line with politeness strategies. Consequently, investigating the politeness strategies used in making requests are expected to conclude on the pragmatic competence of pre-service EFL teachers. In order to evaluate the politeness strategies used in making requests, Spencer-Oatey's

(2000) rapport management and Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness frameworks are used.

The primary motivation for working on requests in this study is that they are face-threatening acts, necessitating politeness techniques. This is because the requester would desire to avoid threatening the opponent's face, and the action would be expected in return for the request. Therefore, the speaker would attempt to be polite. Secondly, this study is thought to contribute to the field of interlanguage pragmatics since it is considered as a case study of pragmatics concerning the academic context where English language teachers are being educated to become competent future English language teachers. Also, revealing the request and politeness strategies used according to the levels of imposition may provide important information about pre-service EFL teachers' pragmatic competencies while also revealing their politeness awareness. There are no studies that, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, focus entirely on the imposition levels in academic settings within the boundaries of interlanguage pragmatics. Therefore, it is believed that this study contributes to understanding how the speech act of requests is performed in academic discourse by pre-service EFL teachers as speakers of English as a Lingua Franca and future teachers responsible for developing learners' pragmatic competence.

1.3. Statement of the Research Problem

In line with the communicative approach, pragmatic competence is essential in foreign language teaching and learning. It helps L2 learners apply proper functional language use in various interactional situations. This requires having a sufficient level of pragmatic competence in the target language. This is only possible when EFL teachers are pragmatically competent when fulfilling speech acts in English so that they become role models as one of the critical sources of L2 input. Requests are face-threatening speech acts (Brown & Levinson, 1987), and they impose cost or benefit on the recipients when they are uttered, leading to imposition. Due to the nature of requests, when language speakers do not employ the speech act of requests pragmatically appropriate in various interactional contexts, this leads to pragmatic failure (Thomas, 1983). Research mainly focuses on exploring EFL learners' pragmatic competence when using different speech acts (Balcı, 2009; Judy, 2016; Lenchuk & Ahmed, 2019; Özet, 2019; Terzi, 2014; Yumun, 2008) and also studies in interlanguage pragmatics regarding various speech acts, especially requests

have been studied (e.g., Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Derakhshan & Shakki, 2021; Deveci & Hmidma, 2017; Krulatz, 2012; Mitrani, 2016; Zayed, 2014). However, it can be stated that there has not been much about pre-service EFL teachers' use of request strategies and their pragmatic competencies, especially in academic contexts. Academic context is one of the most commonly engaged discourse teachers utilize English for fulfilling communicative intentions. Thus, communication in the academic context requires using language politely as well due to the high social status among interlocutors. Therefore, in line with the employment of requests by EFL teachers, their politeness strategies are of great significance to be revealed since the inadequacy of their use of them may lead to communication breakdown.

1.4. Research Questions

This study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. How do the Turkish pre-service EFL teachers fulfil the speech act of requests in the academic context?
    1.1. What forms of alerters do pre-service EFL teachers tend to employ in direct, conventionally indirect, and non-conventionally indirect request strategies in the academic context?
    1.2. What forms of internal modifiers do pre-service EFL teachers tend to employ in direct, conventionally indirect, and non-conventionally indirect request strategies in the academic context?
    1.3. What forms of external modifiers do pre-service EFL teachers tend to employ in direct, conventionally indirect, and non-conventionally indirect request strategies in the academic context?
    1.4. What forms of perspectives do pre-service EFL teachers tend to employ in direct, conventionally indirect, and non-conventionally indirect request strategies in the academic context?
    1.5. What forms of address terms do pre-service EFL teachers tend to employ in direct, conventionally indirect, and non-conventionally indirect request strategies in the academic context?

2. Does the level of imposition in request strategies make any difference in terms of the degree of directness in request strategies employed by pre-service EFL teachers in the academic context?
    2.1. Does the level of imposition in request strategies make any differences in terms of sub-request strategies employed by pre-service EFL teachers in the academic context?

1.5. Definitions of the Key Terms

Politeness: Politeness is a social judgment, and speakers are judged to be polite or rude, depending on what they say in what context. Politeness, in this sense, is a question of appropriateness (Spencer- Oatey, 2008, p. 2).

Pragmatic Competence: "A set of internalized rules of how to use language in socio-culturally appropriate ways, taking into account the participants in a communicative interaction and features of the context within which the interaction takes place" (Celce-Murcia, Olshtain, 2000, p. 19).

Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP): Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993) define ILP as "non-native speakers' use and acquisition of linguistic action patterns in a second language (p. 3)"

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents and discusses the linguistics field of pragmatics in line with its requirements for language learners and pre-and in-service EFL teachers. Then, related politeness theories were presented. At the end of the chapter, national, and international studies related to the present study were presented and discussed.

2.1. Pragmatics

Blum-Kulka and Kasper (1993) adopt pragmatics as an action-theoretical concept, perceiving it as the study of people's understanding and production of linguistic action in context. George Yule, who is known for his works on pragmatics and discourse analysis, purely defined pragmatics as "pragmatics is concerned with the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener (or reader)" (Yule, 1996, p.3). The focus of pragmatics is on meaning and what individuals intend rather than what the individual words they choose to express themselves signify. Yule (1996, p. 3) briefly defines the four areas pragmatics is concerned with in the following statements:

1. "Pragmatics is the study of speaker meaning"
2. "Pragmatics is the study of contextual meaning"
3. "Pragmatics is the study of how more gets communicated than is said"
4. "Pragmatics is the study of the expression of relative distance"

Yule (1996) highlights that pragmatics deals with what is meant by uttering words, phrases, or sounds, focusing on the intended meaning of one's sayings. Also, by means of contextual meaning, it is said that language is studied in context under pragmatics. To clarify, language is studied, specifically speech acts, in context such as when complaining about an exam score to an instructor or asking for clarification of an explained topic. The speech events happen in a context and therefore it is significant to understand and study how one performs language in what circumstances, when and where, as Yule (1996) mentioned. Moreover, the distance between the interlocutors (either physical or social) determines how much needs to be said on the side of the speaker.

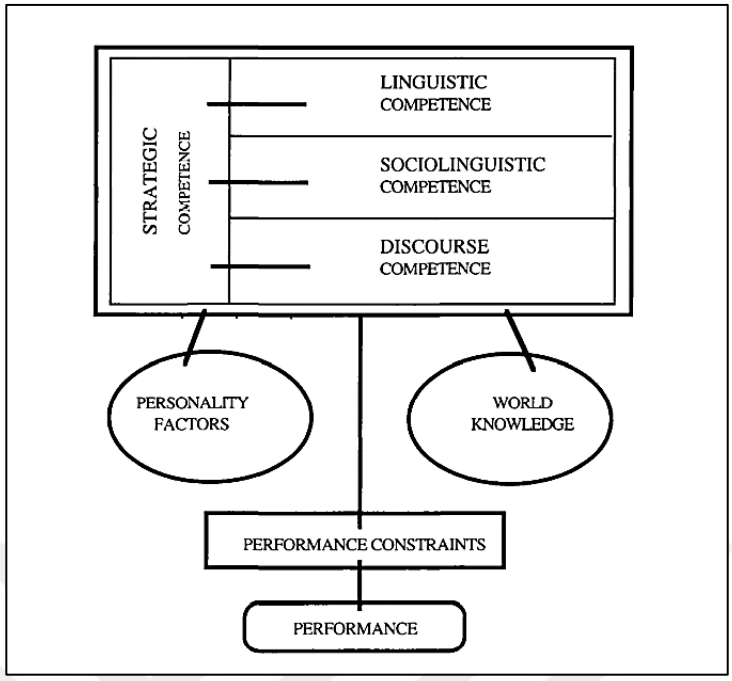
2.1.1. Interlanguage Pragmatics

It is commonly known that language learners need to know and need linguistic knowledge and skills to perform everyday actions. Knowing the context of speech is at first essential to determine what language forms will be used. To whom the learners are speaking determines the appropriateness of language use. Therefore, language learners are required to comprehend when, how and what to say in different circumstances. Kasper and Dahl (1991, p. 216) indicate that "Interlanguage pragmatics will be defined in a narrow sense, referring to nonnative speakers' (NNSs') comprehension and production of speech acts, and how their L2-related speech act is acquired". Kasper and Schmidt (1996) also indicate that, however, the effect of native language and culture on L2 speech act generation and comprehension in learners is a topic that has been emphasized repeatedly in ILP. Therefore, it can be interpreted that interlanguage pragmatics deals with second language acquisition rather than second language learning. Blum-Kulka and Kasper (1993, p. 3) state that "as a branch of second language acquisition research, ILP is one of the several specializations in interlanguage studies, contrasting with interlanguage phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics". They also particularly mention that ILP is a "second generation hybrid," besides dealing with SLA, it also "figures as a sociolinguistic, psycholinguistic, or simply linguistic enterprise, depending on how one defines the scope of 'pragmatics.'"

2.2. Pragmatic Competence

Speaking and understanding a language go beyond simply being grammatically competent in the target language. There may need to be more than just knowing the rules of a language for people to perform the target language appropriately in various contexts. Being pragmatically competent also requires communicative competence. Trosborg (1995) states that on a psycholinguistic level, communicative competence has two aspects: a knowledge component and a skills component.

Figure 2.1. Components of communicative competence (Trosborg, 1995, p. 10)



Hymes (1974) postulates that 'competence' and 'performance' indicate talents and activities, not an object of study isolated from human beings and their behavior, as ‘language’ implies. However, Hymes highlights that these are only some of the components of language. Significantly, the actual study of language has to do with performance or what a person does in a specific situation (Chomsky, 1980). On the other hand, according to Chomsky (1980), pragmatic competence ties intentions and aims to the available linguistic tools by placing language in the institutional context of its usage. He also says that pragmatic competence is the skill to utilize a language successfully (Chomsky, 1980). Often 'competence' may be understood as ‘knowledge’; nevertheless, it refers to ability. Both studying performance and competence are supportive in the way that they enable language inquiry.

More specifically, according to Trosborg (1995), linguistic competence refers to the knowledge and abilities required to comprehend and effectively transmit the literal meaning of utterances at the syntactic, morphosyntactic, phonological, and lexical levels of language. Although it is called ‘linguistic competence,’ Chomsky (1980) names it ‘grammatical competence’ and similarly defines it as “the knowledge of form and meaning” (p. 224).

According to Thomas (1983), pragmatic competence is the capacity to use language successfully to accomplish a certain objective and interpret language in context. Blum-Kulka and Kasper (1993, p. 10) support this definition by stating that "the bulk of ILP research focuses on nonnative speakers' use of pragmatic knowledge in comprehension and production, rather than on development." They imply the importance of producing the language in certain contexts rather than how one develops pragmatic competence to produce the language.

Bardovi-Harlig (1999) indicated that working with highly grammatically competent learners and non-native speakers have shown that pragmatic competency does not always result with competence in grammar. This means that although learners are primarily taught the grammar of a target language and made grammatically competent, they may still lack how to use grammatical competence appropriately when performing different speech events in different contexts and with different people. Fernández Amaya (2008) points out that due to the difficulty of teaching pragmatics, L2 teachers frequently ignore it and concentrate instead on the grammatical parts of the language.

2.3. Pragmatic Failure

Every human being desire to be understood by others. However, people may misunderstand or even not understand each other's intentions and messages. This phenomenon between interlocutors is called pragmatic failure. Thomas (1983) refers to pragmatic failure as "the inability to understand what is meant by what is said" as an area of cross-cultural communication breakdown (p. 91). According to Thomas (1983), the term 'cross-cultural' does not only refer to native-non-native interactions but also any correspondence between two individuals who in a specific territory, don't share a typical semantic or social foundation.

Pragmatic failure was divided into two categories by Thomas (1983): pragmalinguistic failure and sociopragmatic failure and they were defined as follows:

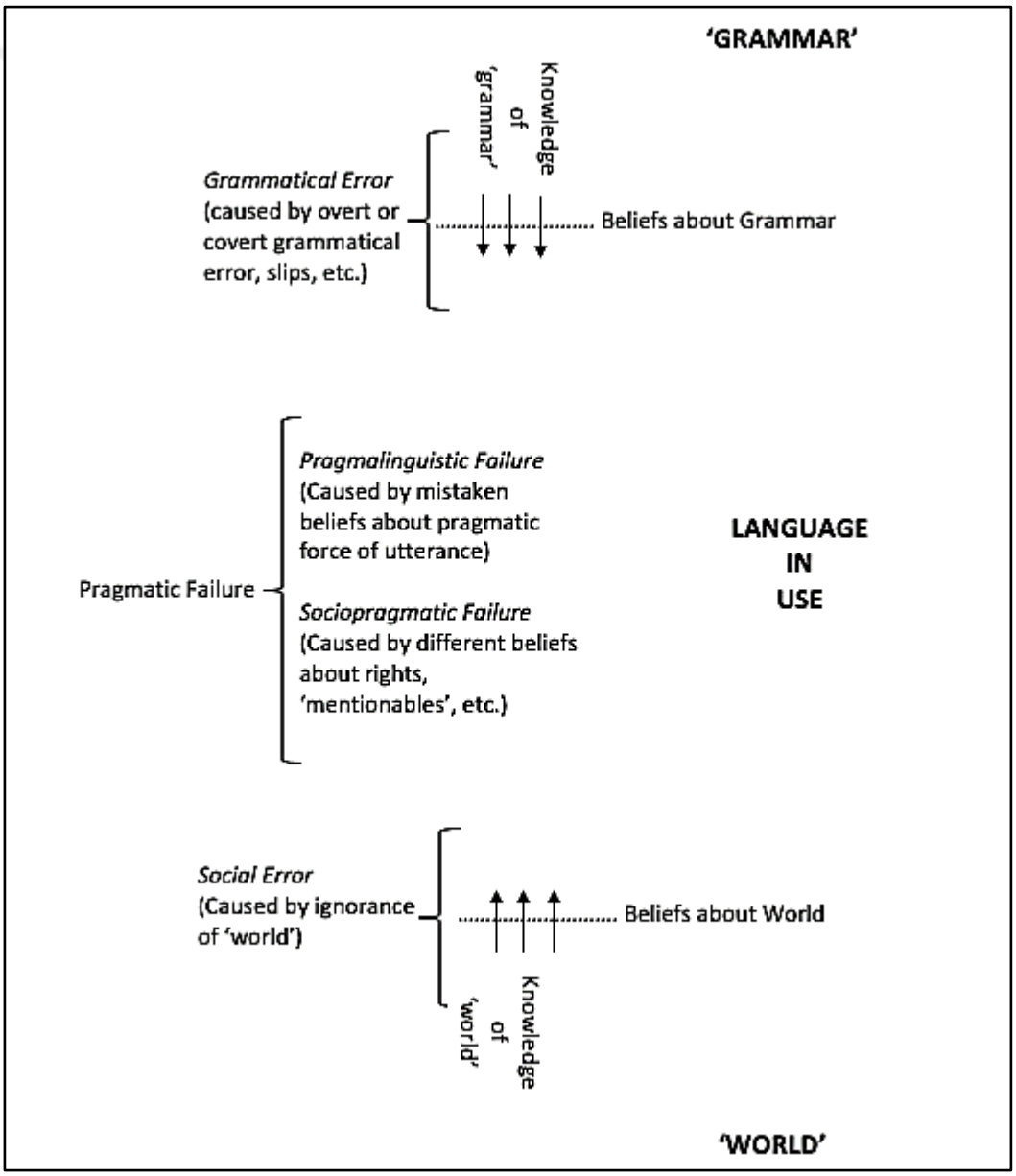
a. *Pragmalinguistic failure*: When the pragmatic force projected by S onto a given utterance is substantially distinct from the force most often assigned to it by native

speakers of the target language, or when speech act techniques are improperly translated from L1 to L2, pragmalinguistic failure occurs.

b. *Sociopragmatic Failure*: Sociopragmatic failure is a word borrowed from Leech (1983) to describe the social constraints imposed on language in use.

As for sociopragmatic failure, she points out that "sociopragmatic failure may be provided by the not infrequent phenomenon of a foreign speaker's judging relative power or social distance differently from a native speaker" (Thomas, 1983).

Figure 2.2. Possible Causes of Communication Breakdown (Thomas, 1983, p. 100)



Even learners from the same linguistic and cultural backgrounds may fail to understand each other's intentions. What might be common in another culture may be too personal in another one. Fang (2010) claims that learning the target language's culture is just as crucial as learning its grammar or vocabulary.

In the broadest sense, pragmatic failure happens at whatever point two speakers neglect to see each other's aim, therefore, a misconception of this sort can happen between any two interlocutors, whether or not they share a similar etymological and social foundation; yet it is probably going to happen between speakers from various social and semantic backgrounds (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1986). They highlight that even if a non-native speaker is fluent, they may use inappropriate language and seem accidentally impolite and rude. Therefore, pragmatic failure is a significant aspect of communication collapse.

2.4. Politeness Theories

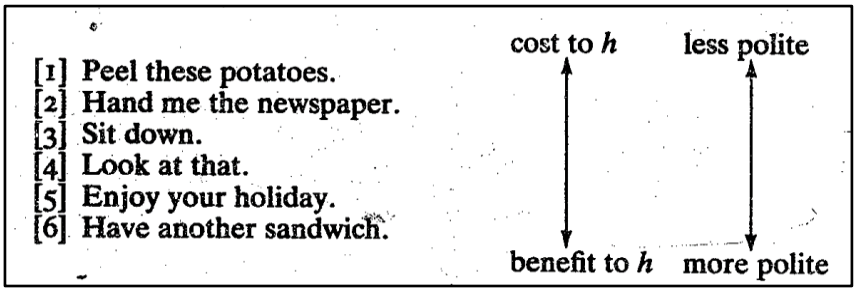
"Politeness is, first and foremost, a matter of what is said, and not a matter of what is thought or believed" (Cruse, 2000, p. 362). Learning how to act politely, linguistically, and otherwise, is one of the socialization goals (Kasper, 1990).

2.4.1. Geoffrey Leech's Theories and Maxims

According to Leech, the goal of politeness is to increase the politeness of polite illocutions (positive politeness) while minimizing the consequences of impolite utterances or expressions (negative politeness). Leech (1983) identifies several politeness maxims. He has highlighted and investigated some scales of politeness within some maxims.

The Tact Maxim

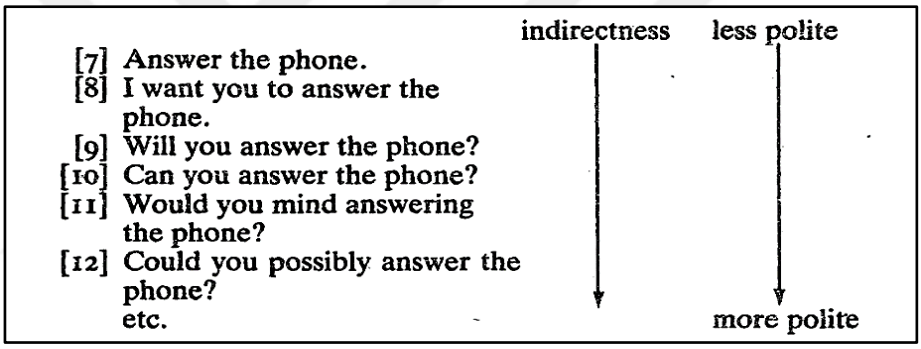
Figure 2.3. The 'Cost-Benefit' Scale (Leech, 1983, p.107)



The cost-benefit scale is estimated on the cost or benefit of the proposed action A to S or H. Leech (1983) points out that the important value shifts from "cost to h" to "benefit to h" at some fairly ambiguous point on this scale “depending on the context” (p. 107), but it is evident that between 1 and 6 there is an overall increase in politeness (other things being equal).

Maintaining the same prepositional content while increasing the rate of politeness by utilizing an increasingly indirect type of illocution is another method for achieving a politeness scale. The indirectness scale is “on which from S’s point of view, illocutions are ordered with respect to the length of the path connecting the illocutionary act to its illocutionary goal” (Leech, 1983, p. 123).

Figure 2.4. The Indirectness Scale (Leech, 1983, p. 108)



“Indirect illocutions tend to be more polite because they increase the degree of optionality, and because the more indirect an illocution is, the more diminished and tentative its force tends to be” (Leech, 1983, p. 108).

In contrast to Leech’s approaches towards politeness, according to Spencer-Oatey (2005), no linguistic expression can be categorized as intrinsically polite or disrespectful. Rather, she states that “(im)politeness is an evaluative label that people attach to behavior, because of their subjective judgments about social appropriateness. I take (im)politeness to be an umbrella term that covers all kinds of evaluative meanings (i.e., warm, friendly, considerate, respectful, deferential, insolent, aggressive, rude). These meanings can have positive, negative, or neutral connotations, and the judgments can impact upon people’s perceptions of their social relations and the rapport or (dis)harmony that exists between them.” (p. 97)

The Generosity Maxim

When performing speech acts, the generosity maxim considers the benefit and cost relationship between interlocutors. Leech (1983) signifies that if an utterance implies a benefit to hearer and imply cost to speaker, the utterance is presumed to be polite. The examples provided by Leech (1983, p. 134) can be considered in the following quotations;

"You can lend me your car" (cost to hearer, benefit to speaker = impolite)

"I can lend you my car" (benefit to hearer, cost to speaker = polite)

2.4.2. Grice's Logic and Conversation Principles

In his study "Studies in the Way of Words", Paul Grice studies logic and conversation. While touching upon significant aspects of the topic, he focuses on implicature to explain what we actually mean by uttering words. He argues there are both conventional and non-conventional implicatures, besides, the traditional meaning of the words employed, he claims, will occasionally decide what is implied in addition to influencing what is said (Grice, 1989). For instance, if person A comments about person B and says, 'He is such an Englishman', person A would be implying person B to be brave, not saying that he is an 'Englishman' (Grice, 1989). He emphasizes the need to participate in discussion to the extent required by the agreed-upon goal or direction of the talk exchange in which you are involved, and he further refers to this as the "Cooperative Principle." (Grice, 1989). He divided this principle into four subcategories which are named as Quantity, Quality, Relation, and Manner.

Quantity is related to the amount of information that must be given (Grice, 1989). According to him, the following sayings fall within the heading of quantity:

1. Make your contribution as comprehensive as necessary (for the purposes of current exchange)
2. Ensure that your contribution isn't any more informational than it has to be.

Grice (1989, p. 28) exemplifies an analogue for this category of Quantity as:

"If you are assisting me to mend a car, I expect your contribution to be neither more nor less than is required. If, for example, at a particular stage I need four screws, I expect you to hand me four, rather than two or six".

A super maxim falls under the category of Quality. Grice (1989) explains this super maxim as "Try to make your contribution one that is true" (p. 27). He further adds two more specific maxims:

1. Do not mention anything that you know to be false.
2. Do not say anything which you do not have enough information about.

Grice (1989) exemplifies this category of Quality in an analogue such as:

"I expect your contributions to be genuine and not spurious. If I need sugar as an ingredient in the cake you are assisting me to make, I do not expect you to hand me salt; If I need a spoon, I do not expect a trick spoon made of rubber" (p. 28).

Grice (1989) adds a single maxim classified as relationship, that is "Be relevant". As an instance of this category of Relation, he mentions such an analogue:

"I expect a partner's contribution to be appropriate to the immediate needs at each stage of the transaction. If I am mixing ingredients for a cake, I do not expect to be handed a good book, or even an oven cloth" (p. 28).

Lastly, Manner has little to do with what is said, but rather how it is said. Grice (1989) includes a super maxim under the category of Manner, that is "Be perspicuous", and numerous maxims as:

1. Avoid vagueness of speech.
2. Stay away from uncertainty.
3. Be concise.
4. Be precise.

Other than these conversational maxims, Grice (1989) also mentions politeness as "to be polite" that is observed by speakers in talk exchanges, and this may also generate nonconventional implicatures. He claimed that, on the other hand, the precise aims for which discourse has developed and is primarily used are intimately tied to the conversational maxims and the conversational implicatures associated with them.

2.5. Face Management and Strategies for FTAs

2.5.1. Goffman

Erving Goffman was a sociologist who explained at a fundamental level of how the social world works. Face is defined as a positive social value that a person asserts through their actions. When we are humiliated or embarrassed, we lose face. The politeness theory of Goffman (1967) is established on 'face'. He suggests that one's face is a socially acceptable depiction of oneself, even when others may share it, like when someone presents himself well in order to advance his career or his beliefs (Goffman, 1967). In other words, he takes politeness into account based on 'face'. Positive and negative faces are two distinct categories for face. Politeness is conceptualized as 'face' acts, which was formerly generated by Goffman (1967) and moreover introduced it as something with emotional investment that may be lost, preserved, or enhanced and requires ongoing attention. When we want the people around us to regard, appreciate, and respect us, we present a positive face. In a negative face, we desire independence from authority figures and the freedom to make our own decisions. When a speech act is employed, there can actually be a potential to threaten someone's face.

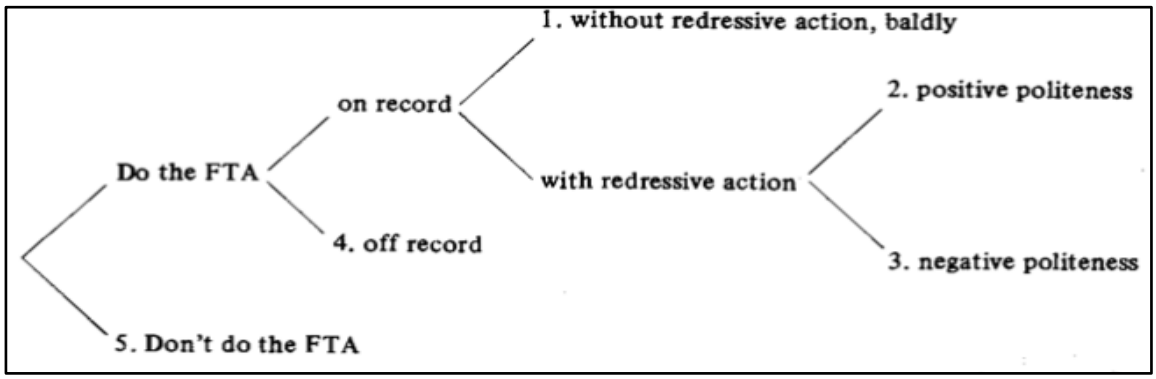
2.5.2. P. Brown and S. Levinson's Politeness Theory

With their influential work, Brown and Levinson (1987) proposed the most significant theory of politeness. Brown and Levinson (1987) consider *negative face* as "the want of every competent adult member' that his actions be unimpeded by others" and identifies *positive face* as "the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others" (p. 61). Terzi (2014) clearly states that having a positive face is the desire to be liked and admired, whereas having a negative face is the desire to act without restraint. Interlocutors will want their face to be recognized when communicating in a variety of

contexts, but this may not always be the case because some people may find it difficult to maintain their face. By Brown and Levinson (1987), these forms of communication were referred to as "face threatening activities" (FTAs) (1987). Speech acts either threaten a positive face or negative face. Request speech acts are the most threatening to the addressee's (hearer's) negative face out of all speech acts, as regarded in the context of the current study. Request speech acts place the H (hearer) under pressure to perform (or refrain from performing) some future act A. By means of request speech acts, S (speaker) indicates that he wants to do, or refrain from doing, some act A. However, some FTAs, particularly asking for personal information, may potentially threaten positive and negative face. These request speech acts tend to threaten negative face.

Given the interactional sensitivity of faces, any reasonable person would wish to avoid these face-threatening activities or will utilize particular strategies to lessen the threat. In other words, he will balance the relative importance of three desires: (a) the want to communicate the content of the FTA x, (b) the desire to be efficient or urgent, and (c)the desire to keep H's face to any extent (Brown & Levinson, 1987). S will wish to reduce the threat of his FTA unless (b) is bigger than (c) (Brown & Levinson, 1987). The following are some potential FTA strategies:

Figure 2.5. Brown and Levinson's possible strategies for doing FTAs (1987, p.61)



An actor goes *on record* performing act A if it is evident to participants what communicative intention caused the actor to perform act A. Brown and Levinson exemplify this strategy as " … if I say 'I (hereby) promise to come tomorrow' and if participants would concur that, in saying that, I did unambiguously express the intention of committing myself

to that future act, then in our terminology I went ‘on record’ as promising to do so” (1987, p. 69).

In opposition to on record, if an actor does an *off record*, there will be more than one clearly identifiable aim, making it impossible to hold the actor to just one intent (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Linguistic manifestations of off-record techniques include metaphor and irony, rhetorical inquiries, understatement, tautologies, and a variety of signals as to what a speaker intends or intended to say without explicitly doing so, allowing the meaning to be rather ambiguous. Many cases of off-record speech acts are accomplished by hints that consist in ‘raising the issue of’ some desired act A, for instance, by stating motives or reasons for doing A. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 215) give examples to off-record politeness strategies as;

It’s cold in here. (Shut the window)

The soup is a bit bland. (Pass the salt)

“Doing *an act baldly*, without redress, involves doing it in the most direct, clear, unambiguous, and concise way possible (for example, for a request, saying ‘Do X!’(Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 69). Grice's maxims of cooperation, which are divided into quantity, quality, relationship, and manner, can be used to clarify this strategy. They emphasize the importance of contributing to conversations as needed at each stage, according to the agreed-upon goal or course of the dialogue in which you are involved. (Grice, 1989). Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 97) give examples to bald-on-record politeness strategies as:

Send me a postcard.

Wash your hands.

Redressive action is defined as an action that "gives face" to the addressee, i.e., attempts to emphasize the fact that no such face threat is intended or wanted (Brown & Levinson, p. 69) The FTA will be done in a manner or with enhancements or adjustments that will minimize any potential face harm, and that S (Speaker) in general is aware of H's face wants and himself wants them to be realized. Brown and Levinson (1987) further

explain this as, depending on whether the focus is on the positive or negative feature of a face, such redressive activity can take one of two forms.

Positive politeness is oriented on H's positive face and the good self he expresses for himself (Brown & Levinson, 1987). The objective of being polite is “the maintenance of harmonious and smooth social relations in the face of the necessity to convey belittling messages” (Cruse, 2000, p. 362).

However, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), negative politeness is mainly avoidance-based and the realizations of negative-politeness. It is principally focused on meeting (redressing) H's negative face, which is his core need to uphold claims to territory and individual self. Strategies include making sure the speaker honors the addressee's negative face wants and won't (or won't interfere more than needed with the addressee's liberty of action).

Sociological variables to consider when assessing the FTAs

In their politeness model, Brown and Levinson (1987) consider the weightiness and seriousness of FTAs, as they are compounded of both risk to speaker’s and hearer’s face due to the nature of the FTA. Specifically, requests are considered as face-threatening speech acts since they are likely to threaten both the face of the speakers and hearers. Thus, when rating the weightiness and seriousness of face-threatening acts, it is important to consider the social factors of social power, social distance, and the degree of imposition (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Brown and Levinson (1987) identify ‘social power’ as a value “attached not to individuals at all, but to roles or role-sets” (p. 78). Another social parameter to be considered is the ‘social distance’ is based on the evaluation of interaction frequency. When communication between interlocutors occurs frequently, the social distance is regarded as being high. On the contrary, social distance between the interlocutors is thought to be low when interaction frequency is high. The last social parameter is the ‘imposition’, which is determined by the degree to which they are thought to hinder a person’s desire for self-determination or acceptance (his negative and positive face wants) (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Clearly, ‘degree of imposition’ might be high or low depending on the favor given or asked to the hearer. In other terms, depending on the cost on the hearer, the level of imposition can be determined. Therefore, when the level of imposition is high, there is cost

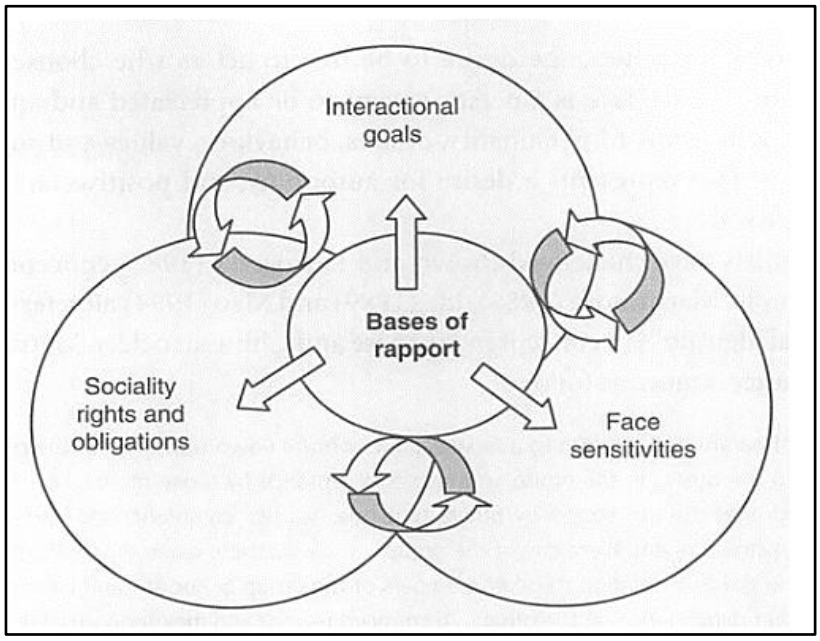
on the hearer and the favor wanted interferes with hearer's desire of acceptance (negative politeness) whereas when the degree is low, the hearer might not be threatened to accept the utterance of the interlocuter.

2.6. Helen-Spencer Oatey's Rapport Management

Relationship management, commonly known as rapport, is the management (or improper management) of interpersonal relationships. Rapport is defined as the general "harmony and smoothness" in personal relations (Spencer-Oatey, 2005, p.96). Unlike Brown and Levinson's (1983) politeness theory, Spencer-Oatey (2008) focuses more on the management of social relationships. She suggested a modified conceptualization of face and rapport framework. She argues that Brown and Levinson's (1983) conceptualization of positive face is unspecific and the challenges they label as face issues are not always negative face issues. Therefore, she proposed a rapport management framework. She states that "rapport management (the management of harmony-disharmony among people)" entails three main interconnected components:

a. The management of Face
b. The management of Sociality and Obligations
c. The management of Interactional Goals

Figure 2.6. The bases of rapport (Spencer-Oatey, 2008, p. 14)



Face sensitivity management is what the word "face management" refers to as Brown and Levinson (1987) highlight that “any rational person would want to avoid face-threatening behaviors or will use specific techniques to mitigate the threat given the reciprocal sensitivity of faces and he will balance the relative importance of (at least) three desires: (a) the want to communicate the content of the FTA x, (b) the desire to be efficient or urgent,15 and (c)the desire to keep H's face to any extent. S will wish to reduce the threat of his FTA unless (b) is bigger than (c”) (Brown & Levinson, 1987).”

In addition to managing faces, managing social rights and obligations also include managing social anticipations. Spencer-Oatey (2008) defines this concept as “fundamental social entitlements that a person effectively claims for him/herself in his/her interactions with others” (p. 13). On the other hand, sociality rights and obligations are concerned with “social expectancies, and reflect people’s concerns over fairness, consideration and behavioral appropriateness” (Spencer-Oatey, 2008, p. 14).

Interactional goals relate to the particular objective that individuals could have when engaging in interpersonal interaction. People generally have a fundamental need for others to perceive them favorably, therefore they frequently want others to notice (implicitly and explicitly) their positive attributes and not their negative features. This is the basic concept of ‘face’, associated with these effectively sensitive characteristics. However, Spencer-Oatey (2008) indicates that face sensitivity differs from person to person.

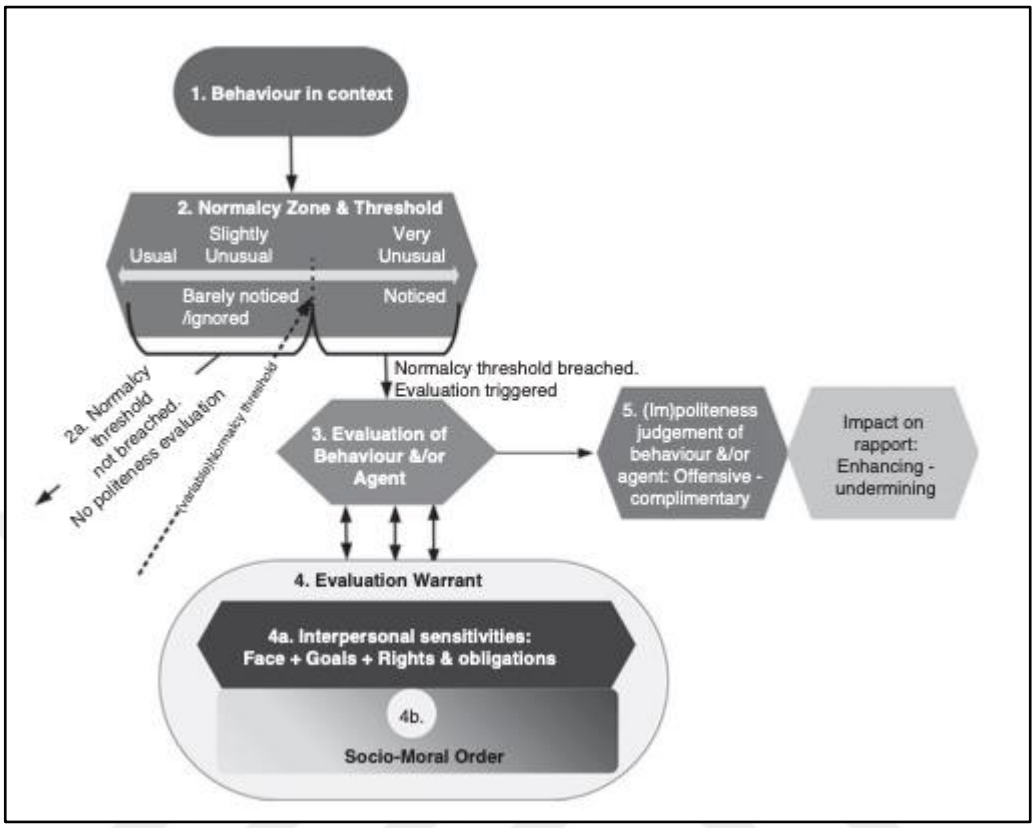
Table 2.1. A summary of Spencer-Oatey's (2020) personal experience and its rapport management evaluation (Spencer-Oatey & Kádár, 2020).

Situation	→	Politeness Evaluation according to Spencer-Oatey's rapport management		
		Interactional Goals	Sociality rights and obligations	Face sensitivities
She and other non- Chinese teachers were staying at a well-known hotel in Shanghai which consisted of several blocks and each block had one or more room attendants who were located near the entrances or exits of each block. When a teacher was on his/her way out, a room attendant asked him/her "Where are you going?". This question annoyed the teachers who would frequently complain about the attendants watching them. They wanted to be able to enter and exit the hotel without anyone on the staff watching and making a comment about it.		It prevented them from quietly leaving the hotel as planned.	Their right to privacy was violated.	They felt threatened in the face because they didn't know how to react.

The teachers evaluated the situation negatively for two reasons. Firstly, they were entitled to be free from such questions because they were guests and secondly, sometimes they attempted to get out of the hotel, so they could meet a local Chinese acquaintance without attracting too much attention.

Besides rapport management, Spencer-Oatey and Kádár (2020) recently worked on intercultural politeness, which is linked to rapport management, regarding politeness evaluation. They have conceptualized the politeness evaluation process by considering various phenomena.

Figure 2.7. Key components and steps in the evaluation process (Spencer-Oatey & Kádár (2020, p. 78)



The first step in their politeness evaluation model is *Behavior in Context* (Figure 1) which signifies that the evaluation process of politeness is triggered when a contextualized interpersonal behavior takes place. Behavior, which encompasses verbal or non-verbal behavior, always occurs in a situational setting, and one of the most crucial aspects of the evaluation process is how we perceive this situational context. So, there should be behavior either verbal or non-verbal in a situational setting to enable the politeness evaluation process.

Normalcy Zone and the Triggering of the Politeness Evaluation Process appear to be the second and the third steps of the model. In these steps, if a behavior is completely expected, it will fall under the normalcy zone which means it will not be noticed or ignored and therefore, the politeness evaluation process does not go further on in this circumstance (2a in Figure 1). In other words, Spencer-Oatey and Kádár (2020) explain it as these instances of behavior that a participant views as not deviating or just deviating slightly from expectations, remain inside the normality zone and are probably hardly detected.

On the other hand, when the behavior falls beyond the normalcy threshold, the politeness evaluation process begins. In other words, when the divergence from the expectations of the behavior is high and falls outside a person's normalcy zone, the evaluation process starts. The divergence in verbal behavior might be related to what is said (i.e., the communication's message content), how it is stated (i.e., the way the message is communicated), or both (Spencer-Oatey & Kádár, 2020).

As for the last step, when the politeness evaluation process is started, the *Evaluation of Behavior and Agent* process begins. At this point, both the behavior and the person/agent performing the behavior are subject to evaluation. This step comprises the evaluation warrant, which considers social morality and interpersonal sensitivity. The interpersonal sensitivities refer to Spencer-Oatey's (2008) bases of rapport management which encompass a variety of norms. Spencer-Oatey and Kádár (2020) highlight a very significant point by stating that "when considering the evaluation process in intercultural communication, key issues to address are the ways that cultural factors (along with linguistic conventions and participants' familiarity with them) may (or may not) influence people's conceptions of their interactional goals, face sensitivities, and perceived rights and obligations" (p. 82).

2.7. Speech Acts

"Speech act theory has to do with the functions and the uses of language, so in the broadest sense we might say that speech acts are all the acts we perform through speaking, all the things we do when we speak" (Schmidt & Richards, 1980, p. 130). Yule (1996) mentions that speech acts are activities carried out using utterances. These activities are commonly described in English using more precise expressions like complaint, apology, appreciation, promise, invitation, or request. To perform speech acts, it's not only the grammatical competence that is needed but pragmatic competence. The explanation is that when we perform speech acts, it isn't just that we produce the language with our semantic information, yet we additionally utilize speech acts with the assistance of pragmatic capability. One needs to know how to perform speech acts in what context, when and in what circumstances, which requires pragmatic competence and pragmatics knowledge on the side of the researchers.

A variety of studies have been devoted to the speech acts in the field of interlanguage pragmatics. According to speech act theory, speakers perform "illocutionary acts*"* by generating utterances (Achiba, 2003, p. 2). Speech acts have been categorized as directives- orders, demands, requests etc., commissives- promises, vows, pledges etc. and assertives- statements, descriptions, assertions etc. (Searle, 1979). To particularly focus on requests, the conceptualization of requests is related to the illocutionary acts developed in the pragmatic theory. An utterance's performance of a certain language function known as an illocutionary act is associated with "actional competence". Celce-Murcia and Dörnyei (1995) define actional competence as the competence "conveying and understanding communicative intent, that is matching actional intent with linguistic form based on the knowledge of an inventory of verbal schemata that carry illocutionary force (speech acts and speech act sets)" (p. 17). Achiba (2003) explains further the meaning by stating that this means, speakers express communicative intentions such as requests, apologies, promises, advice, compliments, offers refusals, complaints and thanking. It can be clearly said that these speech acts are necessarily used in communication which demonstrates the importance of studying them as both learners and teachers of English.

Austin (1962), with his influential work in *How to do things with words*, has explained speech acts in detail. He basically mentions that saying something is actually doing something. He calls a speech act as 'performative' since he defines it as when saying something, the speaker is performing an act such as marrying. For instance, when 'I take this woman to be my lawful wedded wife' is uttered in a wedding ceremony, rather than saying these words or reporting the marriage, the speaker is actually doing something, that is, marrying someone (Austin, 1962, p. 5). Therefore, an action performed when uttering such a sentence. He divides performatives, namely speech acts, into three categories: locutionary act, illocutionary act and perlocutionary act (Austin, 1962). A *locutionary act* consists of three elements: a phonetic act, which involves making specific sounds, a phatic act, which entails pronouncing certain words with a specific structure and intonation, and a rhetic act, which entails using these words in a meaning with a particular reference. The locutionary act is made up of these three actions that enable one to say something. On the other hand, an *illocutionary act* is performed by saying something. It is explained as "performance of an act in saying something as opposed to performance of an act of saying something" (Austin, 1962, p. 99). He also highlights that saying something will frequently, or even normally, result in certain consequential effects on the audience, the speaker, or other people; and it

may be done with the design, intention, or purpose of producing them. In light of this, it can be said that the speaker has performed an act in the glossary of which reference is made either directly, or even indirectly, to the performance of the locutionary or illocutionary act (Austin, 1969). This kind of an act is named as *perlocutionary act.*

The distinction between locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts is summed up by Austin as follows:

Locutionary Act: "He said that…"

Illocutionary Act: "He argued that…"

Perlocutionary Act: "He convinced me that…"

Austin (1962, p. 102)

According to Searle's (1969) theory, using a language means acting in a way that is guided by rules. In contrast to what has generally been believed, he claims that linguistic communication actually occurs when a symbol, word, or sentence is created or issued throughout the course of a speaking act. By this statement, it is meant that what word or sentence one utters does not imply linguistic communication however performing linguistic action ensures linguistic communication. Therefore, Searle (1969), in line with Austin's (1962) theory, believes that speaking a language is performing speech acts such as requesting, promising, thanking, and commanding. He also highlights that studying language without speech acts would be incomplete. and Searle (1969) makes an analogy by saying that studying language without studying speech acts would be like studying baseball with its system and rules but not as a game. When speaking, we often mean more than we say, therefore Searle (1969) indicates that "whatever can be meant can be said" (p. 19) and he refers to this as the *principle of expressibility.* He develops this theory because there may be times when language lacks the words or expressions necessary to convey meaning.

Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984) have initiated the CCSARP (Cross-Cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Patterns) Project which aims to compare the realization patterns of two speech acts; requests and apologies; and to compare and contrast the realization methods of native speakers and non-native speakers in these two activities in each of the languages

the research has investigated. The project focuses on two speech acts in eight languages and among the languages, Hebrew language was studied (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984). By administering DCT (Discourse Completion Task) made of socially differentiated situations to 200 native and 200 non-native speakers of Hebrew university students, the researchers found that (a) in requesting behavior, it is possible to differentiate between core phenomena such as strategy styles as opposed to internal and external modification; (b) requesting behavior is necessarily dependent on choices from a variety of options ranging from direct to indirect; and (c) the scale of indirectness entails a range of options ranging from direct to indirect (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984). Although CCSARP project focuses mainly on the theoretical framework and the procedures for the realization of the speech act patterns in eight languages, Olshtain and Cohen (1993) set out a study to fully examine the processes on how English non-native speakers at the advanced level perform speech acts in an extracted role-play circumstance and correlate these processes to the outcomes. The study discovered that when performing speech acts, respondents mapped out the details of their utterances in only a third of the cases, sometimes thought in two languages and often in three languages when preparing and conducting speech act utterances, used a variety of techniques in looking for language types, and paid no attention to grammar or pronunciation.

2.8. Studies in the Speech Act of Requests

A variety of researchers have studied the speech act of requests from different perspectives with various methodologies and theories. Researchers have examined the speech act of making requests from several viewpoints, both in terms of perception and production. While some studies investigated speech acts on their own, some other studies have focused on multiple speech acts at a time. In the field of speech acts and language studies, speech acts of request from a sociocultural perspective have been widely studied (e.g., Mızıkacı, 1991). Also, gender studies appear to be an area of study in terms of analyzing whether request strategies differ between genders (e.g., Madak, 2004). The commonly and mainly used perspectives appear to be the cross-cultural, sociocultural and interlanguage perspectives (e.g., Cenoz & Valencia, 1996).

2.8.1. National Studies

Mitrani (2016) investigated the requests strategies that Turkish EFL instructors employ and their perceptions in relation to social factors when making requests, which is considered from a socio-cultural perspective. She used a written DCT, observation method and verbal reports that made up the study to be a qualitative study. She had 55 Turkish EFL instructors in her study. She revealed that EFL instructors preferred to make conventionally indirect request strategies and out of this strategy, 'query preparatory' as a sub-request strategy was the most preferred request strategy. This strategy type was then followed by direct strategy; however, non-conventional indirect strategies were found to be limited. She also found that social distance influenced participants' request strategy preferences. Additionally, it was observed from the verbal reports of the participants on request strategy choices that if they have a close relationship with the requestee, they feel more confident that the request will be accepted. Balcı (2009) conducted a comparative study on the performance of requests and apologies of American and Turkish teenagers. She analyzed participants' pragmatic competence in making requests and apologizing by administering a DCT, then administering an SRT to two native raters for assessing them in terms of appropriateness. She used the CCSARP coding manual by using descriptive statistics to analyze the DCT replies. In order to compare the Turkish and American participants' request and apology strategies in terms of appropriateness, she made two native speakers grade the appropriateness levels by administering a ten-point rating scale. As a consequence of her study, she found that Turkish participants use apologies as appropriate as Americans, but Turkish participants' request strategies were found to be less appropriate in contrast to the American participants' request productions. The most commonly employed request strategy by Americans was 'query preparatory', followed by 'want statements', 'hedged performative' and 'mood derivable'.

In order to better understand the methods and groups that FLED (Foreign Language Education Department) students at an English-medium university use when making requests and apologizing, Eliçin (2011) set out to analyze and compare the e-mail messages and discourse completion test data from these students. To conduct a cross-cultural comparison and identify linguistic influences from the first language, she also examined the DCT responses of Turkish L1 speakers with English L1 speakers. The results revealed that the ESP group and FLED students had both similarities and differences. In comparison to the

FLED students, the ESP group used specific request techniques at significantly higher/lower rates. It was discovered that FLED students primarily used indirect requests. English L1 speakers employed 'query preparatory' strategies frequently; however FLED students preferred 'mood derivable' strategy in requests. Additionally, it was discovered that FLED students used their L1 pragmatic knowledge while making certain requests and using various apology techniques.

Unlike Eliçin (2011), Madak (2004) aimed to analyze the gender factor within psychological factors such as age, status, familiarity, and unfamiliarity in making requests. He worked with 100 Turkish participants and 30 native English participants. A judgment test was administered to the participants including 8 situations. The test included 5 options and the participants were asked to rank each option (request) from the most appropriate to the least appropriate. The situations were in the context of lending a book, using someone's phone, and asking to leave the class. There were differences between the participants, however this was not a consequence of gender differences but a result of sociolinguistic factors. Both native and non-native participants did not appear to be using different strategies concerning the requestee's gender, however, female participants appeared to differ in the ranking of options. Turkish female EFL learners took the gender, age and unfamiliarity factor into account and the reason was that women in Turkey are expected to behave in more conventional ways. Besides Turkish female participants, female native participants seemed to have behaved differently from Turkish female participants. This result was due to cultural differences as one situation may be regarded as acceptable in a culture, but another may not. According to the research, Turkish EFL students do not actually know the necessary approaches to employ when a certain circumstance requires them.

Similar to Madak's study (2004), Şafak (2021) conducted a comparative study on the pragmatic competence of non-native EFL students and native EFL students. The researcher has analyzed the strategies according to the CCSARP scheme. The researcher administered a DCT as the main data collection tool which consisted of twelve open ended questions with different social power and distance. It was found that the less distance and power there was in a situation, the more the requester preferred conventionally indirect strategies. On the other hand, participants made substantially more direct requests in formal settings when social distance and social power are considerable. The findings of the research indicate that social distance influences participants' request strategies.

Terzi (2014) carried out research on pre-service EFL teachers' pragmatic competence in terms of their awareness of employing address forms, in contrast to the earlier study that was referenced. Her research revealed that the English forms of address that pre-service EFL teachers in Turkey knew were relatively limited. She stated that contrary to the expectation that senior pre-service English language teachers would be less likely to use improper English address forms, the study's findings demonstrate that senior pre-service English language teachers are more likely than freshman pre-service English language teachers to employ the pronoun "Teacher" when attempting to address interlocutors.

Some very similar studies were conducted specifically concerning pre-service EFL teachers in Turkey in ELT settings (Otcu & Zeyrek, 2008; Kılıçkaya, 2010), however, to the best knowledge of the researcher, these studies remain as several.

Otcu and Zeyrek (2008) analyzed the developmental trends in how EFL learners employ the speech act of requests through role-playing and native English speakers' request development by administering a DCT. The researchers conducted the study from an interlanguage perspective regarding the observation of pragmatic transfer. In terms of strategy use, participants seemed to have preferred conventionally indirect request strategies, remarkably 'query preparatory' as sub-strategies, and the most commonly used external modifiers were 'grounders.' The participants were Turkish EFL learners, as lower and higher proficient English speakers, and the other participants were native English speakers. It was found that there was a correlation between pragmatic competence and proficiency of English language; the EFL learners with higher language proficiency levels tended to be more pragmatically competent and to have pragmatic transfer. In contrast to native speakers of English, EFL learners seemed to have less pragmalinguistic abilities.

Kılıçkaya (2010) conducted research on revealing pre-service EFL teachers' pragmatic ability in making requests through a DCT. The participants were freshmen pre-service EFL teachers and were asked to make requests according to ten given situations which represent different social power and distance relationship. He found that the pre-service EFL teachers were not successful in using request strategies politely in situations where politeness is required due to having high power and distance relationships. On the other hand, there was a trend to employ unconventionally indirect strategies when making

requests, indicating that the participants had the linguistic expertise to use the speech act of requests, but this appeared inconsistent across all of the scenarios provided.

Similar to the current study, Karatepe (2016) analyzed pre-service EFL teachers' and native English speakers' lexio-grammatical and request directness strategies in writing complaint letters. The reason for choosing such a context was due to writing a letter is a real-life activity. The situation given was about writing a complaint letter in return of realizing that the grades of the students were written mistakenly and seemed as if they failed, and therefore participants wrote complaint letters to the student registrar of the university. At the conclusion of the study, it was discovered that native English speakers tended to utilize direct strategies frequently and chose "want statements" as request strategies as opposed to pre-service EFL teachers. Nonetheless, pre-service EFL teachers tended to use direct strategies and as sub-strategies, they used 'explicit performatives', 'imperatives', 'want statements', and 'expectation statements'. That is, they used formulaic expressions and modal verbs which indicate a concern for appropriate language use. The study highlighted that having the grammar and vocabulary knowledge solely does not imply convenient language use.

2.8.2. International Studies

Like Mitrani's (2016) study, Chen and Chi-Fen (2001) found similar outcomes from participants from different nationalities and levels of English. They analyzed the performance of requestive speech acts employed by Taiwanese EFL learners and American native English speakers. The participants were administered a DCT containing three major situations with three different levels of social status. The DCT was conducted within the CCSARP framework, which consists of three main directness levels and nine request strategy types. The results of the study revealed that conventionally indirect strategies were the most preferred choice for both groups. In terms of social status, conventionally indirect request choices were made where the interlocutors are of equal social status. However, in the situation where the speaker has to make a request to a professor, where the social status is high, participants appeared to use direct request strategies.

Blum-Kulka (1987), with her cross-cultural and influential work on request directness and politeness, has investigated the relationship between indirectness and politeness in native speakers of Hebrew and English through gathering perceptions from them. Four

groups of Hebrew and English native speakers studying at a summer program in Hebrew University participated in the experimental study. They were asked to rank request utterances in terms of directness and politeness. Both groups agreed on directness being different from politeness. The most straightforward strategy, "mood derivable," was rated as the least polite in both languages, while "query preparatory" was considered the politest.

With a focus on extended stay abroad durations, Ren (2019) has studied a study that cross-sectionally explored the impact of staying abroad on learners' L2 Chinese requests. The study was divided into three dimensions, each of which focused on distinct durations. The data was collected with role plays and it was highlighted that learners who stayed and studied longer in China preferred conventionally indirect request strategies which appeared to be non-native-like strategies. It was discovered that learners found it simpler to acquire external modification tools than internal modifiers, which were more challenging for them. However, as their stay lengthened, so did their capacity to use internal modification devices.

Economidou-Kogetsidis (2011) investigated an interlanguage pragmatics study on e-mail requests employed by non-native Greek speakers of English studying at a private university in Cyprus. Additionally, these requests were ranked in terms of the degree of politeness and abruptness by British English native lecturers. The email data included 200 emails addressed to faculty members over an 18-month period that included academic context-related themes. While examining the request strategies; forms of address, degree of directness, degree, and type of lexical and phrasal downgraders, and openings and closings of the e-mails were analyzed. The study was a mixed-method study since the main data were analyzed quantitatively and the perception phase of the main data was analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. Her examination showed that NNS students' e-mail requests were mostly direct, and direct questions and 'want statement' were the most preferred sub-strategies. The students also did not appear to modify their requests with lexical and phrasal downgraders much which was considered as a sign of pragmatic failure, however, students preferred 'please' in their requests as a lexical mitigator. On the one hand, it was seen that 'grounders' were used by students in order to mitigate their requests. On the other hand, it was observed that students omitted greetings and closings and used inappropriate forms of address. These requests were overall evaluated as impolite and discourteous by native speakers of British English.

Similar to Economidou-Kogetsidis's (2011) study, Biesenbach-Lucas (2007) has done an interlanguage pragmatics study on requests through computer-mediated communication. The participants were both native and non-native English speakers and their e-mail requests to faculty were gathered naturally over a period of several semesters. For analyzing the data, the CCSARP coding framework, which is widely accepted and used for speech act studies, was used. As a result of the study, it was found that for the lower imposition requests, native speakers used direct strategies however for the highest imposition requests, native speakers preferred more conventionally indirect requests. In general, native speakers and non-native speakers seemed to have used similar directness levels of request strategies. Unlike native speakers, non-native speakers used fewer hints and as for politeness strategies, it was observed that native speakers are aware of politeness in institutional settings whereas non-native speakers may not be as polite in e-mail requests.

From a cross-cultural perspective, Similar cross-sectional research on request tactics employed by Iranian EFL students and Australian native English speakers was undertaken by Jalilifar (2009). As the data collection tool, DCT was used containing situations based on two social factors that were social power and distance. Results showed that there was a shift from direct to indirect requests in pragmatic development. An overuse of indirect request strategies was observed of learner with higher proficiency levels and also an overuse of direct strategies was observed of learners with lower proficiency levels. In contrast to EFL learners, native speakers appeared to have a balanced use of indirect request strategies. The researcher also investigated the influence of social power and distance on the preferences of request strategies and found that when social power is concerned, EFL learners make use of similar strategies as native speakers, Nevertheless, in terms of social distance, EFL students appear to lack the sociopragmatic abilities to act in a proper manner in social situations.

Besides the above-mentioned cross-cultural studies, Bulut and Rababah (2007) investigated a sociocultural study in the academic context at a Saudi state university, analyzing Saudi female university students' e-mail requests to non-Saudi male professors only. The situations were between females and males, this was due to the cultural norms of Saudi Arabia where Female students do not receive direct instruction from male academics, and therefore the researchers aimed to analyze female students' communicative and politeness strategies when making requests to male professors. The data were received were authentic since they were received from the sent e-mails to male professors. The common

topics of the participants' requests were about submission and scheduling of work. As a result, the participants were discovered to typically favor employing politeness strategies, however, when addressing their professors, they seemed to lack positive politeness strategies and rather employed negative politeness strategies.

Maros & Halim (2018) have specifically conducted a study on the speech act of requests specifically focusing on the use of alerters. They have investigated the use of alerters in Malay and compared the with the use of English alerters. The data were collected through a DCT and coded according to the CCSARP coding manual. It was found that Malays had a great tendency to start their request by apologizing as attention getters. They also preferred to address the hearers by nicknames. Since the participants were mostly teenagers, they also mostly used 'pronouns' to address the hearers. Interestingly, Malays did not appear to use any 'title/role' as alerters in their requests. In addition, 'offensive terms' were not used by the participants, which showed that they are aware of politeness norms when requesting and they would not start a conversation with rude words. Another cross-cultural study was conducted by Fukushima (1996) where the researcher investigated the request speech act employment of English and Japanese by focusing on different levels of imposition. It was found that the British participants used more external modifiers and conventionally indirect request strategies than Japanese participants whereas Japanese subjects used more direct request strategies and less external modifiers compared to British participants. Overall, it was concluded that in high imposition situations, more use of politeness strategies is observed.

Focusing on request perspectives, Ogiermann & Bella (2020) have conducted a specific study with five groups of native speakers of English, German, Greek, Polish, and Russian, who were undergraduate students studying in the department of English Philology. The participants were advanced learners of English and were pre-service EFL/ESL teachers. Following request perspectives, directness in requests were also investigated. All the groups showed a high tendency to use conventionally indirect request strategies. They have observed that English and German relied mostly on speaker perspective, however, Greek, Polish, and Russian had a high tendency of hearer perspective. The participants had different perspectives employed compared with their first language request perspectives however, the overall outcome of the study is that there is a significant preference for the hearer perspectives observed in requests.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the research design, the participants, research context, data collection tools, the pilot study and the DCT construction process are presented and discussed in detail.

3.1. Research Design

This study is designed as a qualitative study. The qualitative data were discourse-analyzed at first based on the coding scheme suggested in the CCSARP (Blum-Kulka et al.,1989), then the coded data were quantized. This process denotes that the qualitatively gathered data was transformed into quantitative data.

3.2. Research Context

The main study was conducted at Başkent University in Ankara, Turkey in the 2021-2022 educational year. The data were collected from pre-service EFL teachers.

(1) The main participants of the DCT were pre-service EFL teachers studying at the department of foreign languages, in the English language teaching program. The program aims to provide pre-service teachers with the most recent advancements in English language teaching methods, approaches, and theories as well as the knowledge and skills necessary to use them successfully. Although Turkish is the primary language of teaching at Başkent University, courses in this program are delivered in English. In order to gather background information about the participants (See Appendix 3), the courses, and the syllabi in the scope of the four-year program were investigated. Specifically, pragmatics and related courses were taken into account regarding the aim of this study. Mainly, pragmatics and related courses were considered regarding this study's aim. Specifically, oral communication skills and English Language Teaching skills, and English language courses were taken by the participants. Freshman, sophomore, junior and senior pre-service EFL teachers specifically completed linguistics courses at micro and macro levels and structure of English courses. Pragmatics and language teaching course was also among the departmental elective courses. EFL teacher educators who provide pragmatics and linguistics-related courses in the ELT

program were interviewed about the content and the scope of these classes, therefore, background information about the participants regarding the instruction were taken.

(2) The researcher herself and 8 Turkish EFL instructors in her working environment ad in some other private universities participated in the construction process of the DCT. EFL instructors were asked to tell the common requests they get from students. The answers were then gathered with the researcher's knowledge and the most common requests were scripted. Then, an expert opinion was taken from a Turkish EFL teacher educator who has research in pragmatics and interlanguage pragmatics, working at a private university for the final version of the DCT to ensure inter-rater reliability.

3.2.1. Participants in the Study

The data in the study were received from 89 Turkish pre-service EFL teachers (56 (%62.9) female and 33 (%37.1) male. They were students studying at a private university in the English Language Teaching Department and their classes ranged from being freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors. In order to find out the socio demographic information about the participants, descriptive statistics analysis was carried out. The results are depicted in the table below.

Table 3.1. Socio-Demographic Information Related to Pre-Service EFL Teachers

		f	%
Gender	Female	56	62.9
	Male	33	37.1
	Total	89	100
Class	1 (Freshmen)	22	24.7
	2 (Sophomores)	8	9
	3 (Juniors)	20	22.5
	4 (Seniors)	39	43.8
	Total	89	100
Duration of Being Abroad	Not been abroad	48	53.9
	Less than 3 months	25	28.1
	3 months - 1 year	10	11.2
	More than 1 year	6	6.7
	Total	89	100
Desire to be an EFL Teacher	No	4	4.5
	Not sure	32	36
	Yes	53	59.6
	Total	89	100

Among the participants, 22 (%24.7) were freshmen, 8 (%9) sophomores, 20 (%22.5) juniors and 39 (%43.8) seniors in their departments. The participants were asked to state whether they would like to work as an EFL teacher after graduation. It was observed that only 4 (%4.5) participants do not plan to work as a teacher, while 32 (%36) participants are not sure, and 53 (%59.6) participants are planning to work as a teacher.

Besides, the participants were asked to indicate whether they have been abroad. It was noted that 48 (%53.9) participants had never been abroad while 25 (%28.1) participants have been abroad less than 3 months, and 10 (%11.2) participants have been abroad between 3 months and 1 year. Only 6 (%6.7) participants have been abroad above 1 year. Additionally, the average age of the participants is 22.12, the youngest being 18 and the oldest being 22. Participants were also asked to indicate how long they have been learning English, and the average years for learning English was almost 13 years, and minimum year of learning English was 5, while maximum year of learning English was 15.

3.3. Data Collection Instruments

The data for the study were collected through a Discourse Completion Task (See Appendix 2). "Discourse Completion tasks are written questionnaires including a number of brief situational descriptions, followed by a short dialogue with an empty slot for the speech act under study" (Kasper & Dahl, 1991, p. 14). Therefore, data collection procedure began by administering pre-service EFL teachers the DCT on using speech act of requests in the academic context. DCTs were created by the researcher depending on the probable situations where pre-service EFL teachers make requests in the academic contexts. The reason for choosing DCT as a data collection tool is also because it is widely used in the field and a certain way of receiving the targeted speech act from the informants. Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (2005) also affirm this statement by emphasizing that "the survey of methods in use in interlanguage pragmatics done by Kasper and Dahl in 1991 shows that out of 34 production studies, reporting 35 data collection procedures, only 2 (6%) used authentic data, 19 (54%) used discourse completion tasks (DCTs), and 14 (40%) used role plays" (p.9). Based on this, DCT as a data collection tool was used due to being accepted and widely used in pragmatics studies.

3.4. Data Collection Procedures

3.4.1. DCT Construction Process

The DCT construction was completed in two steps; at first it was designed for the pilot study then it was redesigned for the main data collection tool.

3.4.1.1. Constructing the DCT before pilot study

Step 1

To construct the DCT scenarios on making requests in the academic context, university instructors were asked to tell the most common requests they get from their students. This was done to get the most natural and probable requests that real instructors in the real academic context usually encounter. Also, the researcher herself was a pre-service EFL teacher once so she contributed to the construction of the scenarios regarding what she used to ask her instructors at her times at the university. DCT scenarios were constructed in line with real life experiences and the most likely situations that instructors and pre-service teachers may face.

Step 2

The possible situations to be faced between EFL teacher educators and pre-service EFL teachers were received, and they were evaluated according to the speaking model introduced by Dell Hymes (1974). They were then assessed in terms of having enough clues to make the respondents feel as if they were in the situation. Dell Hymes's (1974) speaking model comprises components in specific speech acts within a situational and cultural context. There are eight main components of the speaking model, that are: message form, message content, setting, scene, purpose, key, channels, and forms of speech (Hymes, 1974, p. 55-58).

Setting is explained by Hymes (1974) as the time and place of a speaking act, as well as the physical circumstances in general, unlike the 'setting', 'scene' denotes the "cultural characteristic of an occasion" or the "psychological context" of an occasion. As another component of the speaking model, the 'purpose' of speech events is typically described by

known and anticipated consequences, with the main public discourse occasion being the goal to be fulfilled and 'key' is familiar with the appropriate volume, manner, or alternatively soul at which a demonstration is concluded. (Hymes, 1974). Lastly, speech events have 'channels' which are noted as "the choice of oral, written, telegraphic, semaphore, or other medium of transmission of speech. Regarding channels, one must further distinguish modes of use" (Hymes, 1974, p.58, as cited in Şahin, 2011).

Step 3

After checking each situation in terms of Hymes' (1974) speaking model, the DCT was constructed with 10 scenarios. Each DCT was constructed concerning social distance, degree of imposition and the social power between the hearers and speakers. As a summary, DCT was constructed as follows:

Table 3.2. Summary of Discourse Completion Test

Sit. No	Situations	SD	SP	DOI
1	asking the instructor about an exam score	High	S<H	High
2	asking the instructor about retaking an exam	High	S<H	High
3	asking the instructor to leave the class early	High	S<H	Low
4	asking the instructor about not seeing the name in the class list	High	S<H	Low
5	asking about doing a minor or double major	High	S<H	Low
6	asking the instructor about what the exam will cover	High	S<H	High
7	asking to find an instructor	High	S<H	Low
8	asking the instructor for an appointment about graduate studies	High	S<H	High
9	asking the instructor for guidance to find resources	High	S<H	Low
10	asking the instructor to see the exam paper	High	S<H	High

*SD: Social Distance, SP: Social Power, DOI: Degree of imposition

When constructing the DCT, the social distance between the speakers and hearers remained high since the aim of this study was to analyze pre–service EFL teachers'

employment of requests to EFL teacher educators. According to the sociological variables to be considered when performing FTAs by Brown & Levinson (1987), the social distance between students (pre-service EFL teachers) and EFL teacher educators was high due to the interaction frequency among interlocuters being low in the academic context. Additionally, social power is a value associated with roles/status. Therefore, regarding the social power between students and EFL teacher educators in the scope of this study, it was highlighted that due to teacher educators being in a higher status/role compared to students, the social power between them were evaluated as high. By means of academic context, pre-service ELT teachers were considered as speakers and EFL teachers educators as hearers receiving the requests since they make up the academic context. Considering this aim, it was decided to induce the participants to make requests to EFL teacher educators only. Therefore, the social distance between the hearers and the speakers remained high.

Step 4

Since there are both male and female EFL teacher educators in the context of the research, the researcher decided to make pre-service EFL teachers make the same requests to both male and female EFL teacher educators. The reason for this decision was to see whether participants' ways of making requests differ in terms of politeness and language use according to gender. As a result, each scenario was designed as follows:

Table 3.3. Design of a sample scenario in the DCT

Scenario X		
You have recently had an exam that made you worried so you are curious about your result. You are in your instructor's office and want to ask **him** about your exam result. How do you ask **him**?	You have recently had an exam that made you worried so you are curious about your result. You are in your instructor's office and want to ask **her** about your exam result. How do you ask **her**?	
Your answer:	**Your answer:**	
1.1 How natural is this situation?	☐ Not natural ☐ Very Natural	☐ Somewhat Natural ☐ Natural
1.2 How likely are you to encounter this situation in real life?	☐ Never likely ☐ Likely	☐ Somewhat likely ☐ Very likely

(See Appendix 1)

As can be seen above (See table 3.3), below the answering section, there are two follow up questions to be answered. These questions (1.1 and 1.2) were asked in order to assess the reality and the likeness of encountering the given situation in the real academic context from the speakers' perspective.

Step 5

After constructing the DCT, a background questionnaire was prepared. Then, inter-rater reliability was ensured by getting an expert opinion in the field. This was also done to ensure content and construct validity. The questionnaire included a variety of variables that may have an effect on the participants' answers and their politeness strategies, as well as their pragmatic competence in making requests.

Step 6

As for the final step, a background questionnaire was designed (see appendix 3), adapted from *"American English, Turkish and Interlanguage Refusals: A Cross-Cultural Communication and Interlanguage Pragmatics Study"* by Şahin, S., 2011. Master Thesis, Middle East Technical University, Ankara). When constructing the background questionnaire, the possible variables were considered and listed. Besides the basic background information questions of participants, some other variables such as family income, being abroad, the desire to become an EFL teacher and family education levels and their occupations. Also, the participants were asked to answer where they were born and raised separately since the place they were raised may have an effect on their pragmatic competencies.

3.4.2. Piloting the DCT

Kezar (2000) indicates that pilot studies, a strategy that is underutilized, can aid in the development of an experiential understanding that reshapes the final study in significant ways. The goal in this pilot study was to examine the data collection tool in terms of its feasibility and practicality to understand the written scenarios and to complete the background questionnaire smoothly without any misunderstandings. The clarity of the scenarios and the instructions provided were tested. The pilot study was conducted to affirm

whether the questions- situations are practical and feasible to answer. Furthermore, with the help of the pilot study, it was aimed to test the probability of encountering the given situations in real life, as well as the reality of each scenario.

The pilot study (See Appendix 1) was conducted with 20 pre-service EFL teachers on a voluntary basis, consisting of 5 freshmen, five sophomores, five juniors and 5 more seniors. The researcher herself administered the DCTs face-to-face in the classroom environment. In case of any misunderstandings and probable questions about the DCT, the researcher was in the classroom until the end of the process. Internal validity was ensured by the researcher by making sure that every scenario was clearly understood. Additionally, all the necessary information and guidance were provided for the participants before administering the pilot study. The participants were asked to read the consent form, which included information about the task, and the researcher herself reminded the participants of the importance in contributing to the study. It was highlighted that they should think of themselves as if they are in the given situations and make requests accordingly by stating what they would really say in such situations. The main observation of the pilot study showed that almost all the participants made the same requests to both male and female instructors and therefore, for the main data collection process, this distinction was removed. Rather than making the same requests to both male and female instructors, the DCT was redesigned by equally distributing male and female genders to the scenarios. Finally, out of 10 scenarios, 5 scenarios were made participants make requests to male instructors and 5 of them were made participants make requests to female instructors.

Another observation was made about the background questionnaire section. Some of the students found it confusing to follow the lines to tick, so they were made bold and clearer for the main study. The researcher also observed a minor observation which was about the duration of the test. Normally, the researcher assumed that the DCT would take 15 to 20 minutes, however, the real duration of completing the DCT appeared to be a minimum of 30 minutes. Although the timing was more than expected, it appeared not to be an obstacle for the participants as well as for the researcher herself.

3.4.3. The Main Study

For the main study, the redesigned version of the DCT was administered to a total of 89 pre-service EFL teachers (See Appendix 2). The last version of the distributed scenarios according to gender, social distance, social power, and degree of imposition are as follows:

Table 3.4. Redesigned summary of the Discourse Completion Test

No	Situations	SD	SP	DOI	HEARER
1	Asking the instructor about an exam score	High	S<H	High	female
2	Asking the instructor about retaking an exam	High	S<H	High	female
3	Asking the instructor to leave the class early	High	S<H	Low	male
4	asking the instructor about not seeing the name in the class list	High	S<H	Low	male
5	Asking about doing a minor or double major	High	S<H	Low	female
6	Asking the instructor about what the exam will cover	High	S<H	High	female
7	Asking to find an instructor	High	S<H	Low	female
8	Asking the instructor for an appointment about graduate studies	High	S<H	High	male
9	Asking the instructor for guidance to find resources	High	S<H	Low	female
10	Asking the instructor to see the exam paper	High	S<H	High	male

As mentioned earlier, it was observed in the pilot study that the participants' ways of making requests did not differ between genders, therefore, it was decided not to make participants make the same requests to both genders in each scenario, so the genders of the hearers were distributed equally in each scenario. The social distance in each situation remained high since the hearers in all the scenarios were EFL teacher educators who are in higher status than pre-service EFL teachers.

As for the final design of the DCT, it was decided to keep all the scenarios same and not to make any differences, however, for the demographic information part, the outline of the part was redesigned in order to omit any misunderstandings between the linings and each question since the components of this part was detailed.

Table 3.5. A sample of the redesigned version of the scenarios

Scenario X
You have recently had an exam that made you worried so you are curious about your result. You are in your instructor's office and want to ask **him** about your exam result. How do you ask **him**? **Your answer:**

(See Appendix 2)

3.5. DCT Analysis Procedures

Analysis of the DCT procedures were followed within the CCSARP framework developed by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1983). Speech acts were analyzed linguistically by identifying main linguistic expressions by classifying them into various directness levels based on the coding system adopted from Blum-Kulka et al.'s CCSARP framework (1989) that has been widely used in interlanguage pragmatics studies.

This coding framework has three main categories of directness: Direct, conventional-indirect, and non-conventional indirect. Various request strategies are present at each level that are shown in Table 3.6:

Table 3.6. Request Strategy Types; Coding Framework for requests based on Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989) CCSARP (as cited in Woodfield, 2008, p.240) *Adapted from Biesenbach-Lucas, 2007

1. Direct Requests
1. Mood Derivable. e.g., 'Clean up the kitchen'.
2. Explicit Performative e.g., 'I am *asking* you to move your car'.
3. Hedged Performative e.g., 'I *must/have* to ask you to clean the kitchen right now'.
4. Locution Derivable. e.g., 'You'll *have to/should/must/ought to* move your car'.
5. Want Statements e.g., 'I'*d like* to borrow your notes for a little while'.
6. Need Statement e.g., 'I need a little more time'.
2. Conventionally Indirect Requests
7. Suggestory Formula e.g., '*How about* cleaning up the kitchen'.
8. Query Preparatory e.g., '*Can/ Could* I borrow your notes?'
3. Non-Conventionally Indirect Requests
9. Strong Hint e.g., 'Will you be going home now?'. Intent: getting a lift home.
10. Mild Hint. e.g., 'You've been busy here, haven't you?'. Intent: Getting hearer to clean the kitchen.

As main components of the coding framework, nine types of request expressions/strategies are presented in the CCSARP coding manual. However, while analyzing the data, a need for adding a sub-strategy occurred and therefore a need *statement* was added as a sub-strategy to the framework (Biesenbach–Lucas, 2007).

Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) state that there are three major levels of directness in requesting:

1. *The Direct Level*: The level of directness that is achieved by requests that are verbally identified as requests, such as imperatives or other syntactically defined demands.
2. *The Conventionally Indirect Level*: Processes that carry out the act by referencing the context-dependent requirements for performing it, as standardized in a specific language.
3. *Non-conventionally Indirect Level*: The open-ended collection of indirect strategies (hints) that fulfill the request by making only occasional reference to an essential component or item for carrying out the act.

The directness levels have nine sub-strategies according to the CCSARP framework, and are as follows:

Direct Questions: The expression that directly signifies asking a question and expecting a direct answer in return.

Mood Derivable: The verb in the sentence is marked by its grammatical mood to indicate that it is making a request.

Explicit Performative: The speakers specifically describe the utterance's illocutionary force.

Hedged Performative: Expressions that include the illocutionary force's name.

Locution Derivable: The semantic meaning of the locution directly leads to the illocutionary point.

Want Statement: The utterance conveys the speaker's desires, objectives, or emotions.

Need Statement: The utterance includes the expression of a need for a request.

Suggestory Formula: The utterance contains a suggestion to the listener.

Query Preparatory: An utterance may refer to preliminary circumstances as they are usually understood in a given language, such as ability or willingness or the likelihood that the act will be carried out.

Strong Hint: Utterance makes only a brief reference to an object or to a component required for the performance of the act (directly pragmatically signifying the act).

Mild Hint: No-reference statements that can nonetheless be interpreted as requests because of the context (indirectly pragmatically implying the act)

Units for Analysis

Besides these mentioned strategy types, units of analysis for requests in the DCT are created in the coding manual as well within the CCSARP project. By considering the following example, how request speech acts can be identified and analyzed according to Blum-Kulka et al. 's (1989) coding framework (as cited in Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984) can be seen.

Danny / could you lend me £100 for a week? / I've run into problems with the rent for my apartment.

The sequence in the speech act would be divided into the following three sections:

a. **Address Term:** 'Danny'
b. **Head act:** 'Could you …. etc.'

These head acts are the steps in the sequence that might be used to carry out the action without the support of other components.

c. **Adjunct to Head Act:** 'I've run into problems…'

Adjuncts, named as *external modifications* (supportive moves) are usually used to persuade the hearer to comply with the request.

Alerters

Alerters as utterances are made in order to draw the listener's attention. Alerters include nominal categories, appellations, and semantic variants.

Table 3.7. Alerters categories by Blum-Kulka et al.,'s (1989) adapted from Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2011

Alerters	
1. Title/Role	e.g., Professor, waiter
2. Surname	e.g., Johnson
3. First Name	e.g., Nick, Judith
4. Nickname	e.g., Judy
5. Endearment term	e.g., Honey
6. Offensive term	e.g., Stupid cow
7. Pronoun	e.g., You
8. Attention getter-greeting	e.g., Hey, hi, good morning etc.
9. Attention getter-apology	e.g., Sorry, excuse me, pardon

Attention getters were categorized into two components: greeting and apology. This classification was done due to having realized more than one alerter use in some of the requests made by the participants. As a result, these were separately considered as variables.

Additionally, since the present study aimed to assess the pragmatic competence of pre-service ELT teachers as well as their politeness strategies, address terms will be taken into consideration. By considering what address terms the participants used, it was aimed to analyze how the participants address the hearers, the EFL educators.

Internal Modification

When formulating requests, participants may use a variety of linguistic devices to lessen, soften or increase the force of a request since request is a face threatening act. Also, the speakers may want a positive face in return of their request, therefore, they may prefer mitigating the force of their requests. These linguistic devices are presented in the CCSARP coding scheme, and are as follows:

Table 3.8. Coding Framework for requests based on Blum-Kulka et al.,'s (1989) CCSARP (as cited in Woodfield, 2008, p.241)

1. Syntactic Downgraders	
a. Negation of preparatory condition	e.g., '*I don't suppose* you'd like to'
b. Subjunctive	e.g., 'Might be better if you *were to leave* now.
c. Conditional	e.g., 'I would suggest you leave now.
d. Aspect	e.g., 'I'*m wondering* if I could get a lift home with you.
e. Tense	e.g., 'I *wanted to* ask you to present your paper a week earlier.
f. Conditional Clause	e.g., 'I was wondering if you could present your paper a week earlier than planned.
2. Lexical and Phrasal Downgraders	
a. Politeness marker	e.g., 'please'
b. Understater	e.g., 'Could you tidy up *a bit*?
c. Hedge	e.g., 'It would fit much better *somehow* if you did your paper next week'.
d. Subjectivizer	e.g., 'I'*m afraid* you're going to have to move your car'.
e. Downtoner	e.g., 'Could you *possibly/perhaps* lend me your notes?
f. Cajoler	e.g, '*You know*, I'd really like you to present your paper next week'.
g. Appealer	e.g., 'Clean up the kitchen, *will you/okay*?'

External Modification

Unlike internal modification, which operates with the head act, external modification operates within the adjunct to head act. Speakers may choose to aggravate or support the speech act by external modifications.

Table 3.9. Coding framework for requests, specifically for external modifications based on Blum-Kulka et al.,'s (1989) CCSARP (Edmondson (1981), Edmondson and House (1981) and House and Kasper (1981) as cited in Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984))

1. Checking on Availability	*Are you going in the direction of the town?* And if so, is it possible to join you?
2. Getting a precommitment	*Will you do me a favor?* Could you perhaps lend me your notes?
3. Grounder	*I missed class yesterday*, could I borrow your notes?
4. Sweetener	*You have beautiful handwriting*, would it be possible to borrow your notes?
5. Disarmer	*I hope you don't think I'm being forward,* but is there a chance of a lift home?
6. Cost Minimizer	Pardon me, but could you give me a lift, *if you're going on my way,* as I just missed the bus.
7. Thanking	*Thanks, thank you*

When analyzing the data, thanking strategies were encountered in some of the requests. Since thanking acts as support for a request to be positively answered, it was added to the external modification framework as a unit for analysis. Therefore, the CCSARP framework for external modifications were adapted as follows:

Checking on Availability: The speaker checks whether the precondition required for compliance is true before beginning the main speech act.

Getting a precommitment: The act is preceded by a speech from the speaker that may be regarded as an attempt to get a precommital.

Grounder: The speaker provides a reason and/or explanation for the request.

Sweetener: The speaker lessens the imposition by overly praising the hearer's capacity to comply with the request.

Disarmer: The speaker emphasizes the importance of expressing awareness of a potential offense in an effort to foresee a probable refusal.

Cost Minimizer: The speaker implies that they have thought about what it will "cost" the hearer to fulfill the request.

Thanking: The speaker softens the request to get a positive answer from the hearer.

Perspective

Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984), in their coding manual, stated that any attempts to avoid identifying the addressee as the main actor of the act assist to lessen the impact of the imposition given that in requests it is the hearer who is "under threat". Therefore, they have identified the categories of perspectives as shown:

a. Hearer oriented:

"Could *you* tell me the topic?"

b. Speaker oriented:

"Could *I* get my score?"

c. Speaker and hearer oriented:

"Could *we* have a look at the exam dates?"

d. Impersonal (The use of passivation and/or people/they/one as agents):

"It may be a good idea to *get it checked.*"

3.5.1. Steps and Methods of Analysis

The data collected were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. The Analysis procedure began by analyzing the data qualitatively. The current data that were gathered from the DCT were coded according to the adapted version of the CCSARP framework.

Step 1: Firstly, each request was analyzed according to the units for analysis as the following sample request;

Scenario 1: You have recently had an exam that made you worried, so you are curious about your score. You are in your instructor's office and want to ask her about your exam result. How do you ask her?

Participant answer: *Good afternoon ma'am. How are you? I have to learn my exam result. Could you please tell me the result. Thank you very much.*

Table 3.10. Qualitative Analysis Sample

Good afternoon ma'am. Attention getter (Greeting) + Address term (Title/Role)
How are you? I have to learn my exam result. Attention getter (Greeting) + External modifier (Grounder)
Could you please tell me the result. Conventionally indirect request (Query Preparatory) + Lexical Downgrader (Politeness marker)
Thank you very much. External Modifier (Thanking)

Each request was qualitatively analyzed regarding forms of address terms, alerters, internal and external modifications, and the directness of request strategies. Then the numbers of units used for each request were noted as well.

Step 2: In step 1, the researcher gathered and coded all the data for quantitative analysis. For quantifying the data, descriptive statistics and chi-squared test were used. Descriptive statistics were used in order to answer the first research question and its sub-questions to provide the frequency of strategy, modifier and alerter use.

Step 3: After having analyzed the data descriptively, a chi-squared test was conducted for revealing if the level of imposition would make any differences in terms of the degree of directness employed in request strategies by pre-service EFL teachers.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

In this chapter, the findings of the study are discussed under each research question. Then, they are discussed in line with similar studies and politeness frameworks to draw conclusions on the findings.

4.1. Research Question 1: What is the degree of directness in request strategies employed by pre-service EFL teachers in the academic context?

To find out the distribution of the directness in request strategies employed by the Turkish pre-service EFL teachers, a descriptive statistical analysis was run to reveal the frequency distributions of request strategies in general as can be seen in Table 4.1.

In total, the participants employed 874 request tokens. Among these tokens, the most frequently utilized strategy was conventionally indirect requests with almost 90% (n.752), while 7.5% (n.67) of the requests were direct requests. The least common strategy was found to be non-conventionally indirect request with only 3.5% (n.31).

Table 4.1. Frequency Distribution of Directness in Request Strategies Employed by Pre-Service EFL Teachers

	n	***%***
Nothing	24	2.7
Direct Request	**67**	**7.5**
Mood Derivable	7	0.8
Explicit Performative	1	0.1
Hedged Performative	1	0.1
Locution Derivable	1	0.1
Want Statement	50	5.6
Need Statement	7	0.8
Conventionally Indirect Request	**752**	**84.8**
Query Preparatory	752	84.8
Non-Conventionally Indirect Request	**31**	**3.5**
Strong Hint	29	3.3
Mild Hint	2	0.2
Total	874	98.5

Conventionally indirect request strategies were employed with 84.8% (n.752), with the highest frequency among the three request directness levels by the participants. Out of

conventionally indirect request strategies, query preparatory was employed with 84.8% (n.752) by the participants. No “Suggestory Formula” was used as a conventionally indirect request strategy. In ‘query preparatory’ request strategy, the utterance refers to possible actions such as ability, willingness, or the likelihood that the act will be carried out. Some representative requests are displayed in the quotations below:

> ***P87*** *(Scenario 6)**:** “I couldn't come last week sorry.* ***Can I learn about what finals will cover****?”*

> ***P12*** *(Scenario 1)**:** “Hello ma'am, I've been curious about the result of my exam**, may I learn my score?**”*

> ***P60*** *(Scenario 9)**:** “I need appropriate resources.* ***Could you recommend something?****”*

Results of the analysis revealed that direct request strategies were employed with 7.5% (n.67) by the participants. Out of direct request strategies, mood derivable was employed with 0.8% (n.7), explicit performative was employed only with 1% (n.1), hedged performative was employed with only 1% (n.1), locution derivable was employed also with 1% (n.1) time, want statement was employed with 5.6% (n.50), and need statement was employed with 8% (n.7) by the participants. ‘Explicit performative’, ‘hedged performative’, and ‘locution derivable’ as sub-request strategies were the least preferred strategies among direct requests.

When ‘mood derivable’ as a request strategy was employed, the speaker used a grammatical mood to show that a request is being made. For instance, in the request *“Teacher,* ***what is my grade?****” (P61, scenario 1),* the participant directly asks a question. In the utterance where ‘explicit performative’ is used, the speaker specifically describes the illocutionary force as in *“Ma'am**, I'm asking you to tell my score.”** (P87, Scenario 1).* Likewise, in "hedged performative" requests, it can be seen that the speaker provides the name of the illocutionary force, as in "I have a very important appointment and I really want to go and, in this situation, ***I have to ask you to leave the class early*** but if you don't let me I can stay in class and postpone my appointment." *(P81, Scenario 3).* Another sub-strategy of direct requests appears to be ‘locution derivable’, where the speaker directly refers to the

illocutionary point, as in ***"****I'm currently studying ELT, but I'm wondering about American Literature too.* ***You should tell me to do a minor or double major.****" (P52, Scenario 5).* When 'want statement' is employed, desires or objectives are told by the speaker as in ***"****Excuse me! I was surprised at my score of my midterm exam. If it's okay with you****, I would like to review the paper and also detect my mistakes****." (P55, Scenario 10).* In a 'need statement', the speaker expresses a need for a request. A sample 'need statement' is *"Hi professor* ***I need your help to find appropriate resources."*** *(P40, Scenario 9)*

Finally, non-conventionally indirect request strategies were employed with 3.5% (n.31) by the participants. Out of conventionally indirect request strategies, "strong hint" strategy was employed with 3.3% (n.29) with the highest frequency, mild hint strategy was employed with 2% (n.2) by the participants. 'Strong Hint' strategy directly signifies the act, which means a reference to a component is included in the strategy as in *"Hi Mrs. Since I missed most of my classes****, I'm unaware about what will the final exam cover****." (P43, Scenario 6).* In this request, the speaker is directly implying that he/she wants the hearer to check his/her name on the attendance sheet. When a reference to a component or statement is not directly included, 'Mild Hint' strategy is employed, such as *"Excuse me, Mister.* ***I couldn't see my name on the attendance sheet.****" (P5, Scenario 4).*

Pre-service EFL teachers mostly preferred conventionally indirect request strategies in all situations. Out of conventionally indirect strategies, they mostly preferred 'query preparatory' as a sub-request strategy.

4.2. Research Question 1.1: What forms of alerters do pre-service EFL teachers tend to employ in direct, conventionally indirect, and non-conventionally indirect request strategies in the academic context?

In order to carry out the analysis, cross tables analysis was conducted. Table 4.2 displays the results related to the use of alerters employed in direct, conventionally indirect, and non-conventionally indirect request strategies among pre-service EFL teachers in the academic context.

The results of the analysis revealed that the use of the alerter as an "attention getter-greeting" occurred 310 (35.5%) times, and the use of the alerter as an "attention getter-

apology" appeared 111 (12.7%) times in request strategies. 10 (3.2%) out of 310 usages of "attention getter-greeting" as alerters were observed in non-conventionally indirect requests, 270 (87.1%) out of 310 uses of "attention getter-greeting" as alerters resulted in conventionally indirect requests and 30 (9.7%) out of 310 uses of "attention getter-greeting" as alerters took place in direct requests. Additionally, 9 (8.1%) out of 111 uses of "attention getter-apology" as alerters were inspected in non-conventionally indirect requests. However, 93 (83.8%) out of 111 uses of "attention getter-apology" as alerters were observed in conventionally indirect requests with the highest frequency. In addition, 9 (8.1%) out of 111 uses of "attention getter-apology" as alerters showed up in direct requests. Some of the representative findings are given in quotations below:

> ***Participant 8*** *(Scenario 5): "**Hi, how are you?** I wonder that can I doing a minor or double major in AMER?" (Attention getter- greeting)*

> ***Participant 85*** *(Scenario 7): "**Sorry**, can you tell me where my advisor is?" (Attention getter- apology)*

Table 4.2. The Employment of Alerters in Direct, Conventionally Indirect and Non-Conventionally Indirect Request Strategies

		ALERTERS			
		None	**Attention getter- greeting**	**Attention getter- apology**	**Total**
No Request	f	20	0	0	20
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	100%	0%	0%	100%
	% within ALERTERS	4.40%	0.00%	0.00%	2.30%
Direct Request	f	28	30	9	67
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	41.8%	44.8%	13.4%	100%
	% within ALERTERS	6.2%	9.70%	8.10%	7.70%
Conventionally Indirect Request	f	393	270	93	756
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	52%	35.7%	12.3%	100%
	% within ALERTERS	86.8%	87.1%	83.8%	86.5%
Non-Conventionally Indirect Request	f	12	10	9	31
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	38.7%	32.3%	29%	100%
	% within ALERTERS	2.6%	3.2%	8.1%	3.5%
Total	f	453	310	111	874
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	51.8%	35.5%	12.7%	100.00%
	% within ALERTERS	100%	100%	100.00%	100.00%

4.3. Research Question 1.2: What forms of internal modifiers do pre-service EFL teachers tend to employ in direct, conventionally indirect, and non-conventionally indirect request strategies in the academic context?

Internal modifiers are categorized as syntactic downgraders and lexical and phrasal downgraders. Due to this categorization, the findings related to the use of each of the categories are shown separately and as a whole.

4.3.1. Syntactic Downgrader Employment in Requests

In order to carry out the analysis crosstables analysis was conducted. The results are shown in Table 4.3.

The results of the analysis revealed that the use of “conditional” appeared 1 (0.10%) time, use of “aspect” occurred 25 (2.9%) times, “tense” use was observed 20 (2.30%) times and the preference of “conditional clause” occurred 49 (5.60%) times with the highest density in request strategies. Specifically, the use of “conditional” occurred only in conventionally indirect requests.

2 (8%) out of 25 of “aspect” as syntactic downgraders appeared to have been used in direct requests, 22 (88%) out of 25 uses of “aspect” syntactic downgraders occurred in conventionally indirect requests with the highest tendency of employment among syntactic downgraders, and 1 (3.20%) out of 25 uses of “aspect” syntactic downgraders was observed in non-conventionally indirect requests. The following quotation serves as an example of the use of "aspect" as a syntactic downgrader:

> ***P4*** *(Scenario 4)****:*** *“I couldn't see my name on the attendance sheet.* ***I'm wondering*** *if there is a mistake on it.” (Aspect)*

5 (25%) out of 20 uses of “tense” as syntactic downgraders occurred in direct requests, 14 (70%) out of 20 uses of “tense” as syntactic downgraders occurred in conventionally indirect requests and 1 (5%) out of 25 uses of “tense” as syntactic downgraders occurred in non-conventionally indirect requests. As a sample of the use of “tense” can be considered below:

***P77** (Scenario 8)**:** "Hello, professor. I'm planning to pursue graduate studies so **I wanted to get an appointment to ask you** some questions about it. When are you available?" (Tense)*

Table 4.3. The Employment of Syntactic Downgraders in Direct, Conventionally Indirect and Non-Conventionally Indirect Request Strategies

		SYNTACTIC DOWNGRADERS					
		None	**Conditional**	**Aspect**	**Tense**	**Conditional Clause**	**Total**
None	f	20	0	0	0	0	20
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	100%
	% within SYN_DWNGRD	2.6%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.3%
Direct Request	f	58	0	2	5	2	67
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	86.6%	0%	3%	7.5%	3%	100%
	% within SYN_DWNGRD	7.50%	0.00%	8.00%	25.00%	4.10%	7.70%
Conventionally Indirect Request	f	676	1	22	14	42	755
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	89.5%	0.1%	2.9%	1.0%	5.6%	100%
	% within SYN_DWNGRD	86.9%	100%	88%	70%	85.7%	86.5%
Non-Conventionally Indirect Request	f	24	0	1	1	5	31
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	77.4%	0%	3.2%	3.2%	16.1%	100%
	% within SYN_DWNGRD	3.1%	0%	4%	5%	10.2%	3.6%
Total	f	778	1	25	20	49	873
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	89.1%	0.1%	2.9%	2.3%	5.6%	100%
	% within SYN_DWNGRD	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Only 2 (4.1%) out of 49 "conditional clause" usages, "syntactic downgraders" occurred in direct requests indicating the lowest frequency, 42 (85.7%) out of 49 uses of "conditional clause" syntactic downgraders occurred in conventionally indirect requests with the maximum frequency, and 5 (10.2%) out of 49 uses of "conditional clause" syntactic downgraders occurred in non-conventionally indirect requests. An example finding of the use of 'conditional clause' can be noticed in the quotation below:

***P25** (Scenario 5): "Dear Mrs., **I was wondering if you could help me** with something. You see, I want to study in American Literature and do a minor or double major in it. Is there any advice you could give me?" (Conditional Clause)*

4.3.2. Lexical and Phrasal Downgraders Employment in Requests

To carry out the analysis, crosstables analysis was conducted. The results are demonstrated in Table 4.4.

The results of the analysis revealed that the use of "politeness marker" occurred 102 (11.70%) times with the highest preference among lexical downgraders, the use of "understater" occurred 1 (0.10%) time and the use of "downtoner" occurred 8 (0.90%) times in request strategies.

4 (6%) out of 102 uses of "politeness marker" as a lexical downgrader occurred in direct requests, 98 (96.10%) out of 102 uses of "politeness marker" as a lexical downgrader significantly occurred in conventionally indirect requests.

1 (100%) out of 1 use of "understater" as a phrasal downgrader occurred in conventionally indirect requests.

6 (75%) out of 8 uses of "downtoner" as a phrasal downgraders occurred in conventionally indirect requests and 2 (25%) out of 8 uses of the phrasal downgrader "downtoner" occurred in non-conventionally indirect requests.

Some of the representative findings can be seen in the quotations below:

P70 *(Scenario 10)**:** "Professor, sorry to trouble you. But could I **please** see my exam paper?"* ***(Politeness marker)***

P7 *(Scenario 1)**:** Hi Sir, I am curious about my exam score. Could you give **a little** information about this?* ***(Understater)***

P43 *(Scenario 1)**:** Hi, Ms... I would like to talk to you about my exam result. I'm worried about it and unsure about if I could pass this course. Can you **possibly** tell me my score?* ***(Downtoner)***

Table 4.4. The Employment of Lexical and Phrasal Downgraders in Direct, Conventionally Indirect and Non-Conventionally Indirect Request Strategies

		LEXICAL and PHRASAL DOWNGRADERS				
		None	**Politeness Marker**	**Understater**	**Downtoner**	**Total**
No Request	f	20	0	0	0	20
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	100%	0%	0%	0%	100%
	% within LXCL_DWNGRD	2.6%	0%	0%	0%	2.3%
Direct Request	f	63	4	0	0	67
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	94%	6%	0%	0%	100%
	% within LXCL_DWNGRD	8.30%	3.9%	0%	0%	7.7%
Conventionally Indirect Request	f	651	98	1	6	756
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	86.1%	13%	0.1%	0.8%	100%
	% within LXCL_DWNGRD	85.3%	96.1%	100%	75%	86.5%
Non-Conventionally Indirect Request	f	29	0	0	2	31
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	93.5%	0%	0%	6.5%	100%
	% within LXCL_DWNGRD	3.8%	0%	0%	25%	3.5%
Total	f	763	102	1	8	874
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	87.3%	11.7%	0.1%	0.9%	100%
	% within LXCL_DWNGRD	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

4.4. Research Question: 1.3: What forms of external modifiers do pre-service EFL teachers tend to employ in direct, conventionally indirect, and non-conventionally indirect request strategies in the academic context?

In order to carry out the analysis crosstables analysis was conducted. The results are shown in Tables 4.5 and 4.6.

The results of the analysis revealed that the use of "COA" was observed 15 (1.7%) times, employment of "grounder" as an external modifier occurred 565 (64.6%) times with the highest frequency among external modifiers, use of "sweetener" appeared only 1 (0.1%) time, use of "disarmer" took place 10 (1.1%) times, use of "cost minimizer" arised 5 (0.6%) times, use of "COA+grounder" occurred 51 (5.8%) times, use of "COA+disarmer" occurred 5 (0.6%) times, use of "grounder+sweetener" was noticed 7 (0.8%) times, use of "grounder+disarmer" occurred 44 (5%) times and use of "grounder+cost minimizer" was observed 8 (0.90%) times in request strategies.

Use of “sweetener, disarmer, cost minimizer, COA+disarmer, COA+disarmer+grounder, grounder+cost minimizer” appeared only in conventionally indirect requests, respectively 1, 10, 5, 5, 8 and 8 times.

6 (40%) out of 15 uses of “COA” external modifiers were realized in direct requests, 9 (60%) out of 15 uses of “COA” external modifier occurred in conventionally indirect requests.

35(6.2%) out of 565 uses of the external modifier “grounder” occurred in direct requests, 511 (90.4%) out of 565 uses of “grounder” occurred in conventionally indirect requests, being the most preferred external modifier and 19 (3.4%) out of 565 usages of the external modifier “grounder” were noticed in non-conventionally indirect requests.

8(15.7%) out of 51 uses of “COA+grounder” external modifiers appeared in direct requests, whereas 43 (84.30%) out of 51 use of “COA+grounder” external modifier were employed in conventionally indirect requests.

1(14.3%) out of 7 uses of “grounder+sweetener” external modifiers occurred in direct requests, 6 (85.7%) out of 7 use of “grounder+sweetener” external modifier took place in conventionally indirect requests.

Table 4.5. The Employment of External Modifiers in Direct, Conventionally Indirect and Non-Conventionally Indirect Request Strategies

		REQUEST STRATEGY				
		No Request	**Direct Request**	**Conventionally Indirect Request**	**Non-Conventionally Indirect Request**	**Total**
None	f	20	16	107	12	155
	% within EXT_MODIF	12.9%	10.3%	69%	7.7%	100%
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	100%	23.9%	14.2%	38.7%	17.7%
Checking on availability (COA)	f	0	6	9	0	15
	% within EXT_MODIF	0%	40%	60%	0%	100%
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	0%	9%	1.2%	0%	1.7%
Grounder	f	0	35	511	19	565
	% within EXT_MODIF	0%	6.2%	90.4%	3.4%	100%
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	0%	52.2%	67.6%	61.3%	64.6%
Sweetener	f	0	0	1	0	1
	% within EXT_MODIF	0%	0 %	100%	0%	100%
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	0%	0%	0.1%	0.%	0.1%
Disarmer	f	0	0	10	0	10
	% within EXT_MODIF	0%	0%	100%	0%	100%
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	0%	0%	1.3%	0%	1.1%
Cost minimizer	f	0	0	5	0	5
	% within EXT_MODIF	0%	0%	100%	0.%	100%
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	0%	0%	0.7%	0%	0.6%

1 (2.30%) out of 44 uses of "grounder+disarmer" external modifiers occurred in direct request, 43 (97.7%) out of 44 use of "grounder+disarmer" external modifier appeared in conventionally indirect request.

"Grounders" were the most preferred external modifier among all request strategies.

External modifiers are mitigation devices used to soften the force of the requests, such as in ***P8*** *(Scenario 5): "Hi, how are you?* ***You seem happy today.*** *I wonder that can I do a minor or double major in AMER?,* where the speaker seeks a positive face by using a phrase that may imply a positive attitude and face. Also, "Disarmer" is used when speakers may want to express their apology to the addressee to mitigate the force of the request as in ***P70*** *(Scenario 10):* ***"****Professor,* ***sorry to trouble you****. But could I please see my exam paper?* In addition, the requestees may minimize the threat they may give to the hearers and therefore use "cost minimizers" as in ***P****4 (Scenario 9)****: "Do you mind*** *if I ask about finding resources? Because I am having some difficulties in it."*. The use of "grounders" was observed frequently, indicating the need for a reason or explanation to make a request, as in ***P52*** *(Scenario 3):* ***"I have an important appointment.*** *May I leave the class early?"*

Table 4.6. The Employment of External Modifiers in Direct, Conventionally Indirect and Non-Conventionally Indirect Request Strategies

		REQUEST STRATEGY				
		No Request	**Direct Request**	**Conventionally Indirect Request**	**Non-Conventionally Indirect Request**	**Total**
COA+ Grounder	f	0	8	43	0	51
	% within EXT_MODIF	0%	15.7%	84.3%	0%	100%
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	0%	11.9%	5.7%	0%	5.8%
COA+ Disarmer	f	0	0	5	0	5
	% within EXT_MODIF	0%	0%	100%	0%	100%
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	0%	0.0%	0.7%	0.0%	0.6%
COA+ Grounder+ Disarmer	f	0	0	8	0	8
	% within EXT_MODIF	0%	0%	100%	0%	100%
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	0%	0%	1.1%	0%	0.9%
Grounder+ Sweetener	f	0	1	6	0	7
	% within EXT_MODIF	0%	14.3%	85.7%	0%	100%
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	0%	1.5%	0.8%	0%	0.8%
Grounder+ Disarmer	f	0	1	43	0	44
	% within EXT_MODIF	0%	2.3%	97.7%	0%	100%
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	0%	1.5%	5.7%	0%	5%
Grounder+ Cost Minimizer	f	0	0	8	0	8
	% within EXT_MODIF	0%	0%	100%	0%	100%
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	0%	0%	1.1%	0%	0.9%
Total	f	20	67	756	31	874
	% within EXT_MODIF	2.3%	7.7%	86.5%	3.5%	100%
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Pre-service EFL teachers employed some of the external modifiers in line with each other, as a strategy to mitigate the force of the request they make. For instance, the use of *"COA+Disarmer" was noticed such as* ***"Sorry for your time, if you don't mind,*** *I need to ask a question ma'am? I was wondering, if I have the chance of doing a minor or double major in American Literature." (P30, Scenario 5).* The participant checks on availability first, then disarms the utterance. A combination of "COA+Disarmer+Grounder" was also observed in some of the requests such as in ***"I'm very sorry teacher but can I ask something? I have missed most of the classes, so I don't know about the final exam.*** *Can you summarize the matters of the exam?" (P19, Scenario 6). Another use of some external modifiers together was* "*Hello Teacher, I am Meltem from your teaching class.* ***I am not happy because of my exam score****. Can I look at my paper? or* ***do you mind looking at my exam paper?"*** *(P2, Scenario 10)* where the participant gives a reason for requesting, then

tries to minimize the cost of the request on the hearer. A combination of "Grounder+sweetener" can be seen as in ***"****Hello sir****, firstly I want to tell this I really like your class*** *but I have a request from you. Can I leave the class early today, it is just one time thing,* ***I have an appointment at 3 p.m., I don't want to miss it.*** *Thanks for your understanding." (P38, Scenario 4). "COA+ grounder*" use may be observed in the following example: ***"****Sir or ma'am* ***I was wondering my exam paper*** *could I see my paper* ***if it is possible."*** *(P77, Scenario 10).* The use of "Grounder+disarmer" appeared in requests as in *"****I apologize for bothering*** *but* ***I've been thinking about doing a minor or double major in American literature because I've been into it for a while now.*** *Would you mind informing me on this matter?" (P88, Scenario 20)*

4.4.1. Thanking Strategies Used in Requests

In order to carry out the analysis crosstables analysis was conducted. The findings are presented in Table 4.6.

The results of the analysis revealed that all of thanking is employed with 4.5%. in conventionally indirect requests only, and this finding can be seen in table 4.7. A representative finding can be seen below in quotations:

> **Participant 6** (Scenario 10): "Hi, teacher. If you have time, could I check my exam paper to see my mistakes. I want to correct them for the final exams. **Thank you."** (Thanking)

Besides the highest occurrence of thanking in conventionally indirect request strategies, no thanking is employed in direct and non-conventionally indirect request strategies.

Table 4.7. The Employment of Thanking in Direct, Conventionally Indirect and Non-Conventionally Indirect Request Strategies

		THANKING		
		None	**Thanking**	**Total**
None	f	20	0	20
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	100%	0%	100%
	% within THANKING	2.4%	0%	2.3%
Direct Request	f	67	0	67
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	100%	0%	100%
	% within THANKING	8%	0%	7.7%
Conventionally Indirect Request	f	722	34	756
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	95.5%	4.5%	100%
	% within THANKING	86%	100%	86.5%
Non-Conventionally Indirect Request	f	31	0	31
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	100%	0%	100%
	% within THANKING	3.7%	0%	3.5%
Total	f	840	34	874
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	96.1%	3.9%	100%
	% within THANKING	100%	100%	100%

4.5. Research Question 1.4: What forms of perspectives do pre-service EFL teachers tend to employ in direct, conventionally indirect, and non-conventionally indirect request strategies in the academic context?

To carry out the analysis crosstables analysis was conducted. The results are shown in Table 4.7.

The results of the analysis revealed that requests with “hearer oriented” perspectives were used 349 (39.9%) times, requests with “speaker oriented” perspectives occurred 464 (53.1%) times with the highest frequency, requests with “speaker and hearer oriented” perspectives took place 21 (2.41%) times, and requests with “impersonal” perspectives occurred 19 (2.2%) times in all request strategies.

14 (4%) out of 349 uses of “hearer oriented” perspectives occurred in direct requests, 324 (92.8%) out of 349 uses of “hearer oriented” perspectives occurred in conventionally indirect requests, signifying the maximum tendency, and 11 (3.2%) out of 349 use of “hearer oriented” perspectives occurred in non-conventionally indirect requests.

53 (11.4%) out of 464 uses of “speaker oriented” perspectives occurred in direct requests, 395 (85.1%) out of 464 uses of “speaker oriented” perspectives occurred in conventionally indirect requests with the highest frequency, 16 (3.4%) out of 464 uses of “speaker oriented” perspectives were noticed in non-conventionally indirect requests.

Table 4.8. The Employment of Perspectives in Direct, Conventionally Indirect and Non-Conventionally Indirect Request Strategies

		PERSPECTIVES					
		None	**Hearer Oriented**	**Speaker Oriented**	**Speaker and Hearer Oriented**	**Impersonal**	**Total**
No Request	f	20	0	0	0	0	20
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%
	% within PERSPECTIVE	95.20%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	2.30%
Direct Request	f	0	14	53	0	0	67
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	0.00%	20.90%	79.10%	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%
	% within PERSPECTIVE	0.00%	4.00%	11.40%	0.00%	0.00%	7.70%
Conventionally Indirect Request	f	1	324	395	21	15	756
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	0.10%	42.90%	52.20%	2.80%	2.00%	100.00%
	% within PERSPECTIVE	4.80%	92.80%	85.10%	100.00%	78.90%	86.50%
Non-Conventionally Indirect Request	f	0	11	16	0	4	31
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	0.00%	35.50%	51.60%	0.00%	12.90%	100.00%
	% within PERSPECTIVE	0.00%	3.20%	3.40%	0.00%	21.10%	3.50%
Total	f	21	349	464	21	19	874
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	2.40%	39.90%	53.10%	2.40%	2.20%	100.00%
	% within PERSPECTIVE	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%

15 (78.9%) out of 19 uses of "impersonal" perspective appeared in conventionally indirect requests and 4 (21.1%) out of 19 uses of "impersonal" perspectives occurred in non-conventionally indirect requests.

21 (100%) out of 21 uses of "speaker and hearer oriented" perspective was observed in conventionally indirect requests.

P73 *(Scenario 4): "I could not see my name on the attendance sheet. Can* ***you*** *add my name on it please?"* ***(Hearer oriented request)***

P34 *(Scenario 1): "Is there any chance that I can learn my exam result?"* ***(Speaker oriented request)***

P53 *(Scenario 8):* ***"****I need to help. I have some questions and need some suggestion. Can* ***we*** *have an appointment for this?"* ***(Speaker and hearer-oriented request)***

P32 *(Scenario 6): "What topics will be covered in the exams?"****(Impersonal)***

4.6. Research Question 1.5: What forms of address terms do pre-service EFL teachers tend to employ in direct, conventionally indirect, and non-conventionally indirect request strategies in the academic context?

In order to carry out the analysis crosstables analysis was conducted. The results are shown in Table 4.8.

The results of the analysis revealed that use of "title/role" appeared 412 (58.1%) times with the highest preference of address term, use of "endearment term" was observed only 1 (0.1%) time with the lowest frequency, use of "pronoun" occurred 7 (.8%) times, and use of "title/role+endearment term" was inspected 7 (.80%) times in request strategies. The address term "nickname" did not occur in any of the request strategies.

30 (7.5%) out of 412 uses of "title/role" address terms were noticed in direct requests, 364 (88.30%) out of 412 uses of "title/role" address terms occurred in conventionally indirect requests with the highest tendency, 18 (4.4%) out of 412 uses of "title/role" address terms occurred in non-conventionally indirect requests.

2 (28.6%) out of 7 uses of "title/role+endearment term" address terms arised in direct requests, 5 (0.7%) out of 7 use of "title/role+endearment term" address terms existed in conventionally indirect requests.

1 (0.1%) out of 7 uses of "pronoun" address term was noticed in direct requests, 5 (0.7%) out of 7 uses of "pronoun" address terms occurred in conventionally indirect requests, 1 (0.1%) out of 7 use of "pronoun" address term was observed in non-conventionally indirect requests. Lastly, the address term "endearment" is only used in conventionally indirect request strategies.

Table 4.9. The Employment of Address Terms in Direct, Conventionally Indirect and Non-Conventionally Indirect Request Strategies

		ADDRESS TERMS						
		None	**Title/ Role**	**Nickname**	**Endearment Term**	**Pronoun**	**Title/Role + Endearment Term**	**Total**
No Request	f	20	0	0	0	0	0	20
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	100%
	% within ADDRESS_TERM	4.5%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.3%
Direct Request	f	34	30	0	0	1	2	67
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	50.7%	44.8%	0%	0%	1.5%	3%	100%
	% within ADDRESS_TERM	7.6%	7.3%	0%	0%	14.3%	28.60%	7.7%
Conventionally Indirect Request	f	380	364	1	1	5	5	756
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	50.3%	48.1%	0.1%	0.1%	0.7%	0.7%	100%
	% within ADDRESS_TERM	85.2%	88.3%	100%	100%	71.4%	71.4%	86.5%
Non-Conventionally Indirect Request	f	12	18	0	0	1	0	31
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	38.7%	58.1%	0%	0%	3.2%	0%	100%
	% within ADDRESS_TERM	2.7%	4.4%	0%	0%	14.0%	0%	3.5%
Total	f	446	412	1	1	7	7	874
	% within RQ_STRATEGY	51%	47.1%	0.1%	0.1%	0.8%	0.8%	100%
	% within ADDRESS_TERM	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

The address term 'title/role' includes an utterance that expresses the role or the title of the addressee as in *"**Ma'am,** if you read my exam paper, can I see my result please?" (P30, Scenario 1).* In the following example, 'endearment term' can be observed:

*"**Dear** sir, I wonder doing a minor or double major in American Literature. Could you give me a brief information about this subject?" (P7, Scenario 5)*

The use of 'pronoun' appears such as in *"Hi **there**, I was missed my exam because of my illness. Is there any chance to take the exam in a different way?" (P34, Scenario 2).* A combination of 'Tile/Role+Endearment term' can be seen in the sample "***Dear ma'am**, could you tell me my exam score?" (P11, Scenario 1).*

4.7. Research Question 2: Does the level of imposition in request strategies make any differences in terms of the degree of directness in request strategies employed by pre-service EFL teachers in the academic context?

First of all, the distribution of the request strategy types is investigated within groups of imposition type to observe whether there is a difference in terms of the use of request types. In order to examine the difference within groups, since the data type is categorical, chi square goodness of fit test was conducted. The results are presented in Table 4.9.

The results revealed that, in high imposition scenarios, the participants used conventionally indirect strategies significantly more compared to no answers strategy, direct strategy and non-conventionally indirect strategies, $X^2(3) = 886.95$, $p < .001$. In low imposition scenarios, the participants used conventionally indirect strategies significantly more compared to no answers, direct strategy, and non-conventionally indirect strategies, $X^2(3) = 859.28$, $p < .001$.

Table 4.10. Difference Between the Use of Request Strategies in High Imposition Scenarios

			Observed N	Expected N	Residual	X^2	p
High Imposition	RQST	No Answer	11	109	-98	886.95	0.000
		Direct Rq	44	109	-65		
		Conventionally Indirect Rq	377	109	268		
		Non Conventionally Indirect Rq	4	109	-105		
	RQST_0	Other	425	218	207	393.11	0.000
		No Answer	11	218	-207		
	RQST_1	Other	392	218	174	277.76	0.000
		Direct Rq	44	218	-174		
	RQST_2	Other	59	218	-159	231.94	0.000
		Conventional Indirect Request	377	218	159		
	RQST_3	Other	432	218	214	420.15	0.000
		Non Conventionally Indirect Rq	4	218	-214		
Low Imposition	RQST	No Answer	13	109.5	-96.5	859.28	0.000
		Direct Rq	23	109.5	-86.5		
		Conventionally Indirect Rq	375	109.5	265.5		
		Non Conventionally Indirect Rq	27	109.5	-82.5		
		Non Conventionally Indirect Rq	27	219	-192		

In order to investigate whether there is such a difference in terms of the use of request strategies between the high-level imposition or low level of imposition scenarios, chi square independence test was conducted. The result of the test is shown in Table 4.10 .

Table 4.11. The Difference Between High and Low Imposition Scenarios in Terms of Request Strategy Use Chi Square Independence Test

REQUEST STRATEGY TYPE

		No Answer	Direct Rq	Conventionally Indirect Rq	Non Conventionally Indirect Rq	X^2	*p*	Phi	*p*
High imposition	f	11	44	377	4	23.81	0.000	0.16	0.000
	%	2.5%	10.1%	86.5%	0.9%				
Low Imposition	f	13	23	375	27				
	%	3%	5.3%	85.6%	6.2%				
		Others		No Answer		0.16	0.687	0.01	0.687
High imposition	f	425		11					
	%	97.5%		2.5%					
Low Imposition	f	425		13					
	%	97%		3%					
		Others		Direct Request		7.23	0.007	0.09	0.007
High imposition	f	392		44					
	%	89.9%		10.1%					
Low Imposition	f	415		23					
	%	94.7%		5.3%					
		Others		Conventional Indirect Request		0.13	0.716	0.01	0.716
High imposition	f	59		377					
	%	13.5%		86.5%					
Low Imposition	f	63		375					
	%	14.4%		85.6%					
		Others		Non-Conventionally Indirect Request		17.58	0.000	0.14	0.000
High imposition	f	432		4					
	%	99.1%		0.9%					
Low Imposition	f	411		27					
	%	93.8%		6.2%					

The results of the chi square independence analysis revealed that there is a difference between the levels of imposition in terms of the use of request strategy, $X^2(3) = 23.81$, $p < .001$ and 16% of the variance is explained by request strategy use, phi=.16, $p < .001$.

In order to find out where exactly the difference is lying, partitioning is carried out (Sharpe, 2015). In this respect, the result of the chi-square analysis revealed that there is a significant difference between the levels of imposition in terms of the use of direct request strategy use, $X^2(1) = 7.23$, $p < .007$ and 9% of the variance is explained by direct request strategy use, phi=.07, $p < .001$. In high imposition scenarios, the use of direct strategy is more than in low imposition scenarios.

In addition to the direct strategy use, a statistically significant difference was found between the levels of imposition in terms of the use of non-conventionally indirect strategy use, $X^2(1)=17.58$, $p < .007$ and 14% of the variance is explained by non-conventionally indirect strategy use, phi=.14, $p < .001$. In low imposition scenarios, the use of non-conventionally indirect strategy is more than in high imposition scenarios.

In terms of the other request strategies, no statistically significant differences are found.

4.7.1. Does the level of imposition in request strategies make any differences in terms of sub-request strategies employed by pre-service EFL teachers in the academic context?

First of all, the distribution of the sub-request strategy types is investigated within groups of imposition type to observe whether there is a difference in terms of the use of request type. In order to inspect the difference within groups, since the data type is categorical, chi square goodness of fit test was conducted. The results are shown in Table 4.12.

The results revealed that, in high imposition scenarios, the participants used query preparatory strategies significantly more compared to other sub-request strategies, $X^2(5) = 1599.41$, $p < .001$. "Hedged performance, locution derivable, mild hint and suggestory formula" sub-request strategies were not used by participants in high imposition scenarios. In low imposition scenarios, the participants used query preparatory strategies significantly more compared to other sub-request strategies, $X^2(7) = 2238.55$, $p < .001$. "Suggestory formula" sub-request strategy was not used by participants in low imposition scenarios.

Table 4.12. Difference Between the Use of Request Strategies in High and Low Imposition Scenarios

			Observed N	Expected N	Residual	X^2	p
High Imposition	Sub-RQST	Mood Derivable	5	70.8	-65.8	1599.54	0.000
		Explicit Performative	1	70.8	-69.8		
		Want Statement	35	70.8	-35.8		
		Query Preparatory	377	70.8	306.2		
		Strong Hint	4	70.8	-66.8		
		Need Statement	3	70.8	-67.8		
Low Imposition	Sub-RQST	Mood Derivable	2	53.1	-51.1	2238.55	0.000
		Hedged Performative	1	53.1	-52.1		
		Locution Derivable	1	53.1	-52.1		
		Want Statement	15	53.1	-38.1		
		Query Preparatory	375	53.1	321.9		
		Strong Hint	25	53.1	-28.1		
		Mild Hint	2	53.1	-51.1		
		Need Statement	4	53.1	-49.1		

In order to investigate whether there is such a difference in terms of the use of request strategies between the high-level imposition or low level of imposition scenarios, chi square independence test was conducted. The result of the test is shown in Table 4.12.

Table 4.13. Difference Between Imposition Types in Terms of Sub-Request Strategy Use

		Mood Derivable	Explicit Performative	Hedged Performative	Locution Derivable	Want Statement	Query Preparatory	Strong Hint	Mild Hint	Need Statement
High Imposition	f	5	1	0	0	35	377	4	0	3
	%	1.1%	0.2%	0%	0%	8%	86.5%	0.9%	0%	0.7%
Low Imposition	f	2	0	1	1	15	375	25	2	4
	%	0.5%	0%	0.2%	0.2%	3.4%	85.6%	5.7%	0.5%	0.9%

Chi Square $X^2(9)=29.80$, $p<.001$, phi=.19, $p<.001$

The results of the chi square independence analysis revealed that there is a difference between imposition types in terms of the use of request strategy, $X^2(9)=29.80$, $p<.001$ and 19% of the variance is explained by sub-request strategy use, phi=.19, $p<.001$.

In order to find out where exactly the difference is lying, partitioning is carried out (Sharpe, 2015). In this respect, difference between imposition types is to be investigated in terms of "want statement, query preparatory and strong hint" sub-request strategies since there are enough numbers in each group to make analysis. The results of the analysis are given in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14. Difference Between Imposition Types in Terms of Sub-Request Strategy Use

		Others	Want Statement	X^2	*p*	Phi	*p*
High Imposition	f	401	35	8.58	0.003	0.10	0.003
	%	92%	8%				
Low Imposition	f	423	15				
	%	96.6%	3.4%				
		Others	Query Preparatory				
High Imposition	f	59	377	0.13	0.716	0.01	0.716
	%	13.5%	86.5%				
Low Imposition	f	63	375				
	%	14.4%	85.6%				
		Others	Strong Hint				
High Imposition	f	432	4	15.63	0.000	0.13	0.000
	%	99.1%	0.9%				
Low Imposition	f	413	25				
	%	94.3%	5.7%				

The result of the chi-square analysis revealed that there is a significant difference between imposition types in terms of the use of want statement strategy use, $X^2(1)=8.58$, $p=<.003$ and 10% of the variance is explained by want statement strategy use, phi=.10, $p=.003$. In high imposition scenarios, the use of want statement strategy use is more than low imposition scenarios.

Additionally, the result of the chi-square analysis revealed that there is a significant difference between imposition types in terms of the use of strong hint strategy use, $X^2(1)=15.63$, $p<.001$ and 13% of the variance is explained by strong hint strategy use, phi=.13, $p=.003$. In low imposition scenarios, the use of strong hint strategy use is more than high imposition scenarios.

On the other hand, there was not a statistically significant difference between imposition types in terms of query preparatory strategy use, ($p>.050$).

4.8. Discussion

4.8.1. Discussion on the Findings of Research Question 1

To reveal the levels of directness employed in the request strategies, various scenarios were provided for participants to make requests according to the given scenarios. The findings displayed that nearly out of all request strategies, conventionally indirect request strategies were the most employed directness level in all the requests in the academic context.

Direct request strategies were preferred after conventionally indirect strategies; lastly, non-conventionally indirect strategies were employed the least. Following the theory of Brown & Levinson (1987), it can be said that the more indirect an utterance is, the more polite it is. Therefore, pre-service EFL teachers tend to be polite in the academic context when requesting.

As Leech (1983) has pointed out that since indirect illocutions increase the degree of optionality and because their force tends to be lessened and hesitant, indirect illocutions are often considered to be more polite. Therefore, finding out most request strategies to be conventionally indirect strategies showed that pre-service EFL teachers mostly tend to make

polite requests in the academic context. This finding was in line with Mitrani's (2016) study where she revealed that Turkish EFL instructors, like Turkish pre-service EFL teachers in the present study, to a great extent preferred conventionally indirect request strategies. Also, the findings showed that participants employed conventionally indirect request strategies using 'query preparatory' as a sub-request strategy. Also, Balcı (2009) has found that native teenage speakers of English mostly preferred 'query preparatory' as request strategies, which appear to be conventionally indirect request strategies.

Otcu & Zeyrek (2008) revealed a high tendency of the employment of conventionally indirect request strategies using 'query preparatory'. The present study's findings supported this investigation. The findings demonstrated that pre-service EFL teachers can use this strategy in different request situations. They implied that this strategy employment might be due to early introduction and use of the 'query preparatory' as the essential requesting strategy in English classes. This implication might be commented for the findings of this study as well, since the participants are Turkish and are introduced English classes.

Direct request strategies followed indirect request strategies in the present study. When employing direct request strategies, participants mostly used 'want statements', followed by 'mood derivables' and 'need statements'. Similarly, Otcu & Zeyrek (2008) found out that Turkish upper-intermediate English speakers preferred 'want statements' in direct request strategies. However, unlike these findings, Mitrani (2016) revealed that 'mood derivables' were the most preferred strategy in direct requests.

Interestingly, Eliçin (2011) revealed that pre-service EFL teachers mainly employed direct strategies in requests, specifically' mood derivable', in contrast to native English speakers, who used 'query preparatory' in their requests. This outcome might imply a similarity of request strategy preferences between Turkish pre-service EFL teachers and native English speakers. Therefore, it can be said that pre-service EFL teachers who have taken part in this study tend to employ native-like request strategies in various situations. Additionally, concerning request production in complaint letters sent to an academic addressee, Karatepe (2016) discovered that native speakers of English used direct requests more, unlike pre-service EFL teachers, who preferred conventionally indirect request strategies, particularly 'want statements.' Thus, compared with the preference for directness in the present study, Karatepe's (2016) study was in harmony with the findings. Likewise,

Chen &Chen (2006) found that American native English speakers tended to use conventionally indirect request strategies.

Unlike the present study, Economidou-Kogetsidis (2011) found that non-native Greek speakers of English employed direct request strategies in e-mail requests. They mostly used 'want statements' in their requests, and this request strategy was considered as impolite by native British speakers of English.

Regarding the use of alerters, the study's findings revealed that most participants did not use any alerters in their requests; however, there was a high tendency to use alerters as attention getters, specifically greetings. These alerters were mostly employed in conventionally indirect request strategies. Similarly, the use of alerters as attention getters of apology appeared mostly in conventionally indirect request strategies as well. This may imply a significant preference of initiating requests to impact the requests to be answered in return positively. Also, initiating a request with a greeting softens the force of the request. However, out of all the alerter categories, almost half of these categories appeared as 'no alerters', which means alerters were not used to a great extent. This also highlights a lack of pragmatic knowledge concerning politeness realization. Economidou-Kogetsidis (2011), following the findings regarding directness levels employed in e-mail requests by non-native Greek speakers of English, has also revealed that these speakers lacked the use of alerters as greetings and closings, which implied pragmatic failure. Native speakers of British English evaluated this finding as inappropriate and impolite as well. Similar to this study, the present study's findings showed that out of 874 alerters, 'no alerter' category seemed to have been used to a great extent with a number of 453 in all request strategies. This meant that pre-service EFL teachers did not prefer to use alerters to initiate their requests. However, there was a tendency to use 'greetings' as alerters and some tendency to use 'apologizing' as alerters, specifically in conventionally indirect request strategies. This showed that some pre-service EFL teachers tended to initiate their requests positively towards the hearer.

A speech act like request can be used in a way or with additions and modifications to show that there is no face threat intended in an effort to lessen the possible face damage of the request. In short, the speaker is aware of hearer's face wants and he/she wants this awareness to be realized (Brown & Levinson, 1987). The mentioned modifications and additions can be made by using modification devices such as internal modifiers and external

modifiers to lessen the potential face damage of the request being made. The findings concerning the use of syntactic downgraders as internal modifiers revealed that although pre-service EFL teachers mostly did not prefer to mitigate their requests by using syntactic downgraders, there was a tendency to use some of them. To clarify this point, it was observed that the participants mostly preferred to mitigate their requests by using the lexical downgrader' politeness marker' as 'please', followed by 'conditional clause'. As Brown & Levinson (1987) stated that given mutual sensitivity, any reasonable person would wish to avoid face-threatening activities or employ particular strategies to lessen the threat. Therefore, as a strategy, politeness markers are used to soften the threat that may be given to the hearer by receiving a request. Also, 'conditional clause' as a strategy to mitigate the force of requests was used in requests. These common strategies were outstandingly employed in conventionally indirect request strategies and occurred to have been underused in direct and non-conventionally indirect request strategies. In addition to this, out of syntactic downgraders, there seemed to be a great amount of a lack of these strategies use by the participants. This highlighted that despite the trend to use syntactic downgraders in conventionally indirect request strategies, there was a significant absence of syntactic downgraders.

In line with this study, Ren's (2019) study on the speech act of requests by L2 Chinese speakers showed that in their request strategies, when in their stay abroad duration, participants appeared to have used fewer syntactic downgraders than native speakers of Chinese. However, when employing internal modification, politeness markers such as 'please' were the most commonly used modifiers. This finding is in line with the present findings of a high tendency to use 'please' as a politeness marker despite a general failure to employ internal modifiers. The present study also indicated a lack of pragmatic competence regarding using internal modifiers when requesting despite a specific tendency of internal modifier use in conventionally indirect request strategies.

The use of external modifiers was identified by requesting strategies employed in the academic context. It was found that pre-service EFL teachers show a great tendency to employ external modifiers in their requests. Specifically, the most common external modifier appeared to be 'grounders'. Since grounders are explanations and reasons provided when requesting, it can be inferred that the participants mitigate the force of their requests on the interlocuters by trying to get a positive face in return. Thus, this preference does not

directly suggest a high level of politeness strategy use; nevertheless, it may stand as a mitigation strategy to soften the impact of the request on the hearer. Almost all the use of ‘grounders’ appeared in conventionally indirect requests, which signifies a high tendency for positive politeness strategy use.

The conclusions regarding a high tendency to use external modifiers as ‘grounders’ are in line with Fukushima’s study (1996), where the researcher revealed that ‘grounders’ were predominantly used by both British and Japanese undergraduate students when requesting. However, British participants appeared to have used more external modifiers than Japanese subjects, and these modifiers were ‘grounders.’ Furthermore, British speakers specifically used more grounders in their requests when compared with Japanese speakers in high imposition situations. This finding is similar to the present study’s finding on the high preference for using external modifiers when requesting in the academic context.

The results concerning request perspectives implied that pre-service EFL teachers mainly employed requests from the 'speaker perspective.' Therefore, the overall requests made were 'speaker-oriented.' This perspective was frequently observed in conventionally indirect request strategies. This finding signifies that the participants are aware of the force of the requests they employ and try to soften the force on the addressee. As Blum-Kulka&Olshtain (1984) highlighted, the request perspective emphasizes the speaker's or hearer's role in the speech event. Therefore, any avoidance of naming the addressee as the primary performer of the act serves to lessen the impact of the imposition given that in requests, it is the hearer who is "under threat." The subjects of the present study know how requests are face threatening acts and employ them concerning this issue. Nevertheless, it has been noted that pre-service EFL teachers frequently used "speaker-oriented" requests as well, but the results were not as high as "hearer-oriented" requests.

Request perspectives used in the findings were evaluated in terms of politeness according to the generosity maxim of Leech (1983). A speaker-oriented utterance implies a benefit to the hearer and implies a cost to the speaker; the utterance is assumed to be polite; however, a hearer-oriented utterance implies a cost to the hearer and benefit to the speaker and therefore is considered impolite (Leech, 1983). In light of this evaluation of politeness, the findings regarding perspectives observed in requests suggest that pre-service EFL

teachers were polite in terms of employing requests from appropriate perspectives in the academic context.

Ogiermann & Bella (2020), in the study with native speakers of English, German, Greek, Polish, and German, also found that in requests, there was a high tendency to use conventionally indirect strategies. Besides the directness levels, the study's main focus was on perspectives. Similar to the present study, it was found that English and German native speakers appeared to have made requests from the speakers' perspectives. This finding supports the present study's finding regarding pre-service EFL teachers having employed native-like requests regarding perspectives.

As a result of the investigation on the use of address terms in request strategies in the present study, it was found that the most common address term preference was 'title/role' and only a few 'pronouns', 'nicknames', and 'title/role+endearment terms' were used for addressing the hearers. Contrarily, there was no address term use in half of the requests made in the academic context. This outcome signifies that pre-service EFL teachers are to some extent aware of the importance of addressing the hearers when requesting since address terms appeared only in half of the requests made. Therefore, this finding can imply that pre-service EFL teachers have a limited knowledge of using address terms when requesting. A specific study conducted on the use of address terms by pre-service EFL teachers by Terzi (2014) showed that senior pre-service EFL teachers tended to use the address term 'title/role', specifically the title 'teacher' more than freshman pre-service EFL teachers. This outcome revealed that senior pre-service EFL teachers are less likely to use improper address terms than freshman pre-service EFL teachers. Terzi (2014) has also highlighted that pre-service EFL teachers in Turkey have a minimal repertoire of forms of address, and using 'title/role' as addressing terms, they often use this common address form when addressing academic staff. This study was also in line with the present study, where pre-service EFL teachers used only mostly 'title/role' when requesting. Additionally, they seemed not to address the hearers in most of the requests, which implied a lack of pragmatic performance in using address terms.

4.8.2. Discussion on the Findings of Research Question 2

For revealing whether the level of imposition affects participants' directness of requests and request strategy use, the DCT was designed to include both high and low imposition requests. The chi-square analysis showed that there wasn't a significant difference between the request strategy preferences in both low and high imposition scenarios. Therefore, the results showed that in both high and low imposition situations, participants frequently preferred conventionally indirect request strategies. In contrast, there was a difference between the directness employed in low and high imposition situations in terms of direct requests. On the one hand, in high imposition situations, direct requests were employed more than in low imposition situations. Normally, participants are expected to make polite requests more in high imposition situations since the speakers may try to lessen the threat on the hearer because he/she desires a positive face in return, and therefore prefer more polite and indirect request strategies. On the other hand, in high imposition situations non-conventionally indirect requests were preferred less than in low imposition situations. There was no statistically different request directness levels employed between high and low imposition scenarios. This finding highlighted that the participants are not aware of the imposition degrees in the situations in the academic context since their strategy choices did not differ regarding low and high imposition levels. Leech (1983), in his framework of directness scales, has highlighted that the more indirect an utterance is, the more polite it can be. Therefore, it can be said that the participants are aware of politeness when requesting in the academic context since there was a high tendency for using conventionally indirect request strategies both in high and low imposition situations.

In his study on e-mail requests, Biesenbach-Lucas (2007) found that native speakers of English preferred to employ direct request strategies in low imposition situations however they mostly employed conventionally indirect request strategies in high imposition situations. He also revealed that both native and non-native speakers of English employed similar directness levels in their requests. This study was in line with the present study in terms of the directness employed in high imposition requests, however for low imposition levels, unlike the findings of the present study, participants preferred direct requests Therefore, it was also found that non-native speakers seemed to have used fewer hints than native speakers, which highlighted that non-native speakers are unaware of politeness in institutional settings.

Unlike the findings regarding the present research question, Fukushima's (1996) study on request employment in different levels of imposition has revealed that in both high and low imposition requests, British speakers frequently preferred conventionally indirect request strategies. However, Japanese speakers employed direct and conventionally indirect request strategies in high imposition situations whereas they used conventionally indirect request strategies in low imposition situations. Therefore, it was highlighted that the higher the degree of impositions, the more politeness strategies are employed in English and Japanese. Likewise, Kılıçkaya's (2010) study on the pragmatic ability of pre-service EFL teachers displayed a high shift towards the use of conventionally indirect request strategies in situations where the levels of imposition were high and low. This finding agreed with the present findings.

When evaluating the participants' rapport management, the ways that cultural elements (together with linguistic conventions and participants' knowledge with them) may or may not influence people perceptions of their interactional goals, face sensitivities, and perceived rights and obligations are key issues to consider when thinking about the evaluation process in intercultural communication. In terms of the directness levels employed in the requests, the findings suggested that there was a great tendency to use conventionally indirect strategies, which may be noted as the participants face sensitivities' have influenced their directness in making requests, which was evaluated as polite regarding Spencer-Oatey's rapport management (Spencer-Oatey and Kádár, 2020). Regarding request strategy types, there was a significant difference between the strategy choices in high and low imposition scenarios. It was revealed that the participants frequently preferred to employ non-conventionally indirect requests in low imposition scenarios compared to high imposition scenarios. This outcome was regarded as polite, according to Grice's (1989) belief where he emphasizes that non-conventional implicatures are regarded as polite. However, in high imposition scenarios, preference of non-conventionally indirect strategies would be expected more since the chance of threatening the face of the addressee is higher.

In their model of possible strategies for doing FTAs, Brown & Levinson (1987) have clarified that when a speech act goes off-record, the meaning is ambiguous, and the speaker intends to say something explicitly without doing so. Therefore, off-record strategies were explained by using 'hints.' Regarding the use of 'hints' in making requests, it was found that the least preferred request strategies were 'strong hints' and 'mild hints.' Since 'hints' are off-

record strategies, they are not involved in the politeness evaluation process; they neither indicate negative politeness nor positive politeness.

Indirect request strategies were evaluated as ‘on-record’ strategies, where a speaker unambiguously intends to engage in the future act. Nevertheless, a speaker goes 'on-record' by employing indirect strategies in which the politeness evaluation process begins since indirect acts are 'redressive actions' that give a face to the addressee, and they imply that there is no face threat intended or wanted (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Following indirect strategies, the findings demonstrated a preference for direct strategies by the participants noting that the acts are ‘on record.’ However, by employing these strategies, the participants did the acts 'baldy' without redress, which means they employed the acts in the most direct way. This outcome revealed that positive or negative politeness evaluation is not applicable due to the strategies employed 'baldly.'

Regarding the politeness theory of Brown and Levinson (1987), which highlights that any reasonable person would wish to avoid face-threatening acts and employ particular strategies to lessen the threat that may be given to the addressee, the findings showed that the participants tended to avoid face-threatening acts and mitigated their request by employing strategies such as using internal and external modifiers to soften the force of their requests.

It was found that the participants used the lexical modifier ‘please,’ the external modifier ‘grounders,’ and syntactic downgraders as ‘conditional clauses’ often to mitigate their requests. In addition, attention getters as ‘greetings’ were employed frequently, which appeared as minimizing the threat that may be given to the hearer’s positive face. Although using limited mitigation strategy choices, the subjects showed a trend in mitigating their requests, which meant attempting to be more polite when requesting EFL teacher educators in the academic context. In addition, by using indirect and mitigation strategies, the speakers did not desire to be imposed on and showed awareness of hearers' negative faces. Although a few, there were no requests made in some of the situations provided; this outcome indicated no desire to do the FTA, that is, to request, according to Brown and Levinson (1987).

The requests made in both low imposition situations, where the favor asked by the speaker does not impose a cost to the hearer, occurred to be primarily indirect requests.

Likewise, indirect strategies were preferred in high imposition situations, where the favor asked is likely to impose a cost to the hearer. Therefore, when the level of imposition was high, there was a cost on the hearer, and the favor wanted to interfere with the hearer's desire for acceptance (negative politeness), whereas when the degree was low, the hearer was not likely to be threatened to accept the utterance of the interlocutor.

Request perspectives appeared in the findings were evaluated in terms of politeness according to the generosity maxim of Leech (1983). A speaker-oriented utterance implies a benefit to the hearer and implies a cost to the speaker, the utterance is assumed to be polite, however, a hearer-oriented utterance implies cost to the hearer and benefit to the speaker and therefore is considered impolite (Leech, 1983). Therefore, the findings regarding perspectives observed in requests suggest that pre-service EFL teachers were polite in terms of employing requests from appropriate perspectives in the academic context.

Interactional goals correlated with the particular intent that individuals could have when engaging in interpersonal interaction. For instance, people generally have a fundamental need for others to perceive them favorably; therefore, they often want others to notice (implicitly and explicitly) their positive attributes and not their negative features (Spencer-Oatey, 2008). This basic concept of 'face' is associated with these effectively sensitive features. By employing indirect strategies in line with mitigation strategies, the participants desired to be perceived appreciatively.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

This chapter includes the summary of the thesis study with its key findings, pedagogical implications, and limitations of the study and suggestions for further research.

5.1. Summary of the Study

The present thesis study, from an interlanguage pragmatics perspective, explores the request strategies regarding politeness strategies used by pre-service EFL teachers. The aim of the study is to investigate how pre-service EFL teachers fulfill the speech act of request in terms of politeness strategies, levels of directness, alerters, internal and external modifiers, perspectives, and address terms in the academic context. The study also uncovers whether the directness of request strategies differ in low and high levels of imposition situations. In order to reveal the request strategies, the data were gathered from 89 Turkish pre-service EFL teachers studying ELT at Başkent University. The data collection tool, DCT, was developed regarding the possible situations to be encountered in the academic context by the aid of some representatives in the context, who are exposed to academic context frequently. Then, both low and high imposition situations were written in the DCT. The DCT was pilot tested with 20 pre-service EFL teachers, then the last version of the DCT was administered to 89 pre-service EFL teachers. At first, the collected data were analyzed qualitatively by using an adapted version of the CCSARP coding manual for requests (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1983). Each request was discourse-analyzed, and manually coded in terms of directness levels and linguistic expressions. Descriptive statistics were used to determine the percentages and frequencies of request strategies employed.

Key findings of the present study suggest that pre-service EFL teachers display a high tendency in employing conventionally indirect request strategies, with a high frequency of ‘query preparatory’ strategy use, followed by ‘want statements’. Additionally, there was no significant difference between the request strategy preferences regarding low and high imposition situations, however, although to some extent, direct request strategies were employed more in low imposition situations compared to high imposition situations. Also, non-conventionally indirect request strategies were used more in low imposition situations

in comparison to high imposition situations, although a difference would have been expected. When requesting, the subjects mostly used alerters as attention getters, namely 'greetings', specifically in conventionally indirect request strategies, however, almost in half of the requests, alerters were not observed. The use of 'greetings' were communication indicators, implying a warm welcoming to the addressee. When this was not observed, it can be said that the participants did not initiate their utterances with a greeting, which implied a negative face on the addressees. When employing conventionally indirect request strategies, it was found that the subjects of this study tended to use internal modifiers, namely syntactic downgraders, to some extent, indicating a high preference of the politeness marker 'please' and the syntactic phrasal downgrader 'conditional clause' to mitigate the force of their requests. With the high frequency of 'please' use, it can be noted that it is most conventional way of being polite and thus, participants apply for the use of it very often. Another strategy for request mitigation was the use of external modifiers within requests, which mostly appeared in most of the requests. The most common external modifier used in requests were 'grounders', specifically in conventionally indirect requests. All the use of 'thanking' as external modifiers were observed only in conventionally indirect request strategies. Regarding request perspective, it is revealed that almost half of the requests were 'speaker-oriented', outweighing 'hearer-oriented' requests, both frequently have been observed in conventionally indirect requests. This finding implied a positive politeness strategy employment by the subjects (Leech, 1983). When initiating their requests, pre-service EFL teachers tended to use the address term 'title/role' to a great extent specifically in conventionally indirect requests, which implied a formal way of addressing the interlocuters in respect.

Consequently, considering the findings of the study, pre-service EFL teachers tended to make conventionally indirect requests in the academic context. Thus, they could not realize the impositions in situations where they may have made more polite and indirect requests compared to low imposition situations. The mitigating their requests, they often used 'please' as lexical downgraders and 'grounders' as external modifiers. This outcome signified that the participants felt the need to explain why they are asking a question by reasoning their requests. Although there was a balance between speaker and hearer-oriented requests, speaker-oriented requests outweighed the latter, which highlighted that the participants imposed benefit to addressees and cost to themselves. Overall, the findings of the present revealed that pre-service EFL teachers are aware of pragmatic norms of English

to some extent, however, when mitigating their requests in the academic context, they may need to comprehend the needed skills and competencies to be pragmatically competent and become pragmatically competent EFL teachers.

5.2. Pedagogical Implications

This study enlighted how the speech act of requests is fulfilled in the academic context from an interlanguage pragmatics perspective. It also suggests implications regarding request production and politeness awareness of pre-service EFL teachers. The drawn conclusions may be constructive in terms of employing and teaching the speech act of requests, which are face-threatening. This study has some implications for the following stakeholders: Pre-service EFL teachers, EFL teacher educators, and material designers.

Implications for pre-service EFL teachers

Language teachers are expected to use the target language effectively and appropriately as competent users of the language themselves since they are the subjects to teach it to the learners. If not, this may cause a communication breakdown (Thomas, 1983). In other words, when teachers pragmatically fail to perform the language appropriately, they may also fail in teaching the pragmatic aspect of language. When teaching English, it is not only essential to teach the rules of the language but the pragmatic aspects of it as well. As Chomsky (1980) has highlighted, language study concerns performance. Therefore, teaching the communicative aspects of language regarding performative speech acts such as requesting is of great importance. To be prepared to teach these aspects of language, pre- and in-service EFL teachers should be pragmatically competent at first so that they can teach these aspects of language to learners. The study's findings suggest that pre-service EFL teachers tend to politely employ the speech act of requests in the academic context. However, they lack the use of mitigation strategies to some extent. Since requests are face-threatening speech acts (Brown & Levinson, 1987), politeness strategies such as using appropriate alerters, address terms and modifiers are expected of language speakers to soften the impact of requests on the addresses. It can be concluded that future EFL teachers should be well prepared for adequate language use to teach the required pragmatic aspects of language. Although ELT departments include pragmatics courses along with linguistics courses and language teaching courses, pre-service EFL teachers may only have the chance to be exposed

to some aspects of language. To be competent in English, in line with grammatical instruction, varied pragmatics-focused language instruction should be given to them before they start their graduate studies in ELT.

Implications for EFL teacher educators

EFL educators train pre-service EFL teachers at Faculties of Education in a 4-year-undergraduate education program, which means that they play a significant role in their development in terms of teaching the language and their language development in gaining the necessary competencies and skills. Thus, they may integrate the pragmatic aspects of language in their language classes and create opportunities where students can be exposed to English in its native-like discourse. Besides this, EFL teacher educators, since they are frequently encountering pre-service EFL teachers in the academic context, may realize pre-service EFL teachers' lack of pragmatic competence when speaking and communicating in English and work on adapting their syllabi concerning this issue. This can also be done through various language competency assessment tools before they become EFL teachers to detect their language competencies. This may help them see their low level of pragmatic competence before starting to teach. The study's conclusions may be considered when educating pre-service EFL teachers to lead them to become pragmatically competent EFL teachers. In addition, eclectic courses can be designed to practice the pragmatic aspects of language to prepare pre-service EFL teachers better to become pragmatically competent language teachers.

Material designers

Studying a language without studying speech acts would be incomplete (Searle, 1969). However, when exposed to a target language with its rules and grammatical aspects, the performative side of language should not be overlooked. When teaching the speech act of requests, the common requesting strategy provided by EFL teachers and books is the use of 'can' and 'may,' which are regarded as query preparatory strategies. The findings suggest that learners were exposed to only a few ways of making requests but not other linguistic devices, although there are various ways to request. This was observed in the findings of the study; however, mitigation strategies were not frequently used with the requests. Therefore, materials developers for English learners may include modifiers for mitigating requests

because they soften the force of requests. Language speakers are expected to be polite when specifically employing face-threatening speech acts like requests, so integrating mitigation strategies in textbooks may help learners raise pragmatic awareness and competence.

5.3. Limitations to the Study and Suggestions for Further Studies

There were particular limitations in this study:

The first limitation of the study was the number of pre-service EFL teachers participating in the study focusing on a specific educational context. The DCT was administered to a total of 89 pre-service EFL teachers studying ELT at Baskent University, ranging from freshmen to seniors; however, sophomore students participated less than expected. Although the number of pre-service EFL teachers was 250, and they were sent the data collection tool online and provided in class, only 89 subjects participated. Also, this study is specific to a context, which is the academic context. In addition, it is a case study that draws conclusions from pre-service EFL teachers studying in the ELT department at Baskent University. Therefore, the limited number of participants and the specific context may have prevented the generalizability of the results.

Participants were administered a discourse completion test, which provides data on non-verbal usage rather than verbal. However, in actual situations where they have to make face-to-face requests, participants may have performed different politeness strategies from the ones they reported in the written discourse completion test. Therefore, the reported data in the discourse completion task (DCT) may not have reflected participants' actual politeness strategy preferences in making requests. Nevertheless, using DCT as a data collection tool was necessary for the aim of this study regarding the practicality criterion of the present research and was expected to be an appropriate and systematic data collection tool.

Additionally, this study explores only speaker perspectives. Since the context of the present study is academic discourse consisting of students and instructors as interlocutors, further studies may investigate an in-depth analysis of the hearers' evaluations, who are EFL teacher educators, in terms of politeness, and therefore make inferences on how the students that they have educated are managing their politeness strategies and on how pragmatically competent they are when they are requesting. Requesting as part of the act of speaking is

expected to be used politely and appropriately due to various circumstances, such as in an academic context. However, it may not be done accordingly due to a lack of pragmatic competence. This phenomenon can be evaluated by the hearers of the requests made by the speakers.

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APPENDIX 1: DISCOURSE COMPLETION TEST FIRST VERSION

DISCOURSE COMPLETION TEST

Instruction: Try to imagine yourself in the following situations. Then, respond to the questions in the most natural way as if you are talking to the person in each situation.
In each scenario, you will be making a request to **both male and female instructors.**

Scenario 1		
You have recently had an exam that made you worried, so you are curious about your score. You are in your instructor's office and want to ask **him** about your exam result. How do you ask **him**?	You have recently had an exam that made you worried so you are curious about your score. You are in your instructor's office and want to ask **her** about your exam result. How do you ask **her**?	
Your answer:	**Your answer:**	
1.1 How natural is this situation?	Not natural ☐ Very Natural ☐	Somewhat Natural ☐ Natural ☐
1.2 How likely are you to encounter this situation in real life?	Never Likely ☐ Likely ☐	Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely ☐

Scenario 2		
You are ill and can't take the midterm exam. You go by your advisor instructor and ask whether you can take the exam at another time or not. You need to ask **him** about what you need to do. How do you ask **him**?	You are ill and can't take the midterm exam. You go by your advisor instructor and ask whether you can take the exam at another time or not. You need to ask **her** about what you need to do. How do you ask **her**?	
Your answer:	**Your answer:**	
2.1 How natural is this situation?	Not natural ☐ Very Natural ☐	Somewhat Natural ☐ Natural ☐
2.2 How likely are you to encounter this situation in real life?	Never Likely ☐ Likely ☐	Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely ☐

Scenario 3		
You have an appointment at 3 p.m., but unfortunately you have a class at that time with your favorite instructor. You don't want to miss the appointment, so you need to ask your instructor to leave the class early. How do you ask **him**?	You have an appointment at 3 p.m., but unfortunately you have a class at that time with your favorite instructor. You don't want to miss the appointment, so you need to ask your instructor to leave the class early. How do you ask **her**?	
Your answer:	**Your answer:**	
3.1 How natural is this situation?	Not natural ☐ Very Natural ☐	Somewhat Natural ☐ Natural ☐
3.2 How likely are you to encounter this situation in real life?	Never Likely ☐ Likely ☐	Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely ☐

Scenario 4		
It's your first week at school and your first class at school. While the instructor was taking attendance, you couldn't see your name on the attendance sheet. You urgently feel the need to ask your instructor. During break time, you go by the instructor to ask about the situation. How do you ask **him**?	It's your first week at school and your first class at school. While the instructor was taking attendance, you couldn't see your name on the attendance sheet. You urgently feel the need to ask your instructor. During break time, you go by the instructor to ask about the situation. How do you ask **her**?	
Your answer:	**Your answer:**	
4.1 How natural is this situation?	Not natural ☐ Very Natural ☐	Somewhat Natural ☐ Natural ☐
4.2 How likely are you to encounter this situation in real life?	Never Likely ☐ Likely ☐	Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely ☐

Scenario 5		
You currently study English Language Teaching; however, you are mainly interested in American literature. You wonder about doing a minor or double major in American Literature. You go to the office of the head of your department to ask about your question. How do you ask **him**?	You currently study English Language Teaching; however, you are mainly interested in American literature. You wonder about doing a minor or double major in American Literature. You go to the office of the head of your department to ask about your question. How do you ask **her**?	
Your answer:	**Your answer:**	
5.1 How natural is this situation?	Not natural ☐ Very Natural ☐	Somewhat Natural ☐ Natural ☐
5.2 How likely are you to encounter this situation in real life?	Never Likely ☐ Likely ☐	Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely ☐

Scenario 6	
It's your last week at the university, and you have missed most of your classes. You need to ask your instructor about what the final exam will cover. You go to **his** office to ask him.	It's your last week at the university, and you have missed most of your classes. You need to ask your instructor about what the final exam will cover. You go to **her** office to ask her.

How do you ask **him**?	How do you ask **her**?	
Your answer:	**Your answer:**	
6.1 How natural is this situation?	Not natural ☐ Very Natural ☐	Somewhat Natural ☐ Natural ☐
6.2 How likely are you to encounter this situation in real life?	Never Likely ☐ Likely ☐	Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely ☐

Scenario 7		
It's your first week at the university. You go by your advisor instructor, but you can't see him at the office so you decide to go to the office of another instructor to ask about where **he** is. How do you ask **him**?	It's your first week at the university. You go by your advisor instructor, but you can't see her at the office so you decide to go to the office of another instructor to ask about where **she** is. How do you ask **her**?	
Your answer:	**Your answer:**	
7.1 How natural is this situation?	Not natural ☐ Very Natural ☐	Somewhat Natural ☐ Natural ☐
7.2 How likely are you to encounter this situation in real life?	Never Likely ☐ Likely ☐	Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely ☐
Scenario 8		
You are about to graduate, and you want to pursue graduate studies. You need some suggestions from your advisor instructor, so you need to get an appointment from him. You go to **his** office and request an appointment. How do you ask **him**?	You are about to graduate, and you want to pursue graduate studies. You need some suggestions from your advisor instructor, so you need to get an appointment from her. You go to **her** office and request an appointment. How do you ask **her**?	
Your answer:	**Your answer:**	
8.1 How natural is this situation?	Not natural ☐ Very Natural ☐	Somewhat Natural ☐ Natural ☐
8.2 How likely are you to encounter this situation in real life?	Never Likely ☐ Likely ☐	Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely ☐

Scenario 9		
You are working on an assignment for one of your methodology courses. You are having difficulty in finding resources to complete your assignment. You want to go by your instructor and ask **him** for some guidance to find appropriate resources. How do you ask **him**?	You are working on an assignment for one of your methodology courses. You are having difficulty in finding resources to complete your assignment. You want to go by your instructor and ask **her** for some guidance to find appropriate resources. How do you ask **her**?	
Your answer:	**Your answer:**	
9.1 How natural is this situation?	Not natural ☐ Very Natural ☐	Somewhat Natural ☐ Natural ☐
9.2 How likely are you to encounter this situation in real life?	Never Likely ☐ Likely ☐	Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely ☐

Scenario 10		
You have recently had your midterm exam, but you are not satisfied with your score. To make sure, you want to see your exam paper. You go to your instructor's office and ask him to see your exam paper. How do you ask **him**?	You have recently had your midterm exam, but you are not satisfied with your score. To make sure, you want to see your exam paper. You go to your instructor's office and ask him to see your exam paper. How do you ask **her**?	
Your answer:	**Your answer:**	
10.1 How natural is this situation?	Not natural ☐ Very Natural ☐	Somewhat Natural ☐ Natural ☐
10.2 How likely are you to encounter this situation in real life?	Never Likely ☐ Likely ☐	Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely ☐

APPENDIX 2: DISCOURSE COMPLETION TEST LAST VERSION DISCOURSE COMPLETION TEST

Instruction: Try to imagine yourself in the following situations. Then, respond to the questions in the most natural way as if you are talking to the person in each situation.
In each scenario, you will be making a request according to the given situations.

Scenario 1		
You have recently had an exam that made you worried, so you are curious about your score. You are in your instructor's office and want to ask **her** about your exam result. How do you ask **her**?		
Your answer:		
1.1 How natural is this situation?	☐ Not natural ☐ Natural	☐ Somewhat Natural ☐ Very Natural
	☐ Never Likely ☐ Likely	☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely
1.2 How likely are you to encounter this situation in real life?	☐ Not natural ☐ Natural	☐ Somewhat Natural ☐ Very Natural
	☐ Never Likely ☐ Likely	☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely
Scenario 2		
You are ill and can't take the midterm exam. You go by your advisor instructor and ask whether you can take the exam at another time or not. You need to ask **her** about what you need to do. How do you ask **her**?		
Your answer:		
2.1 How natural is this situation?	☐ Not natural ☐ Natural	☐ Somewhat Natural ☐ Very Natural
	☐ Never Likely ☐ Likely	☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely
2.2 How likely are you to encounter this situation in real life?	☐ Not natural ☐ Natural	☐ Somewhat Natural ☐ Very Natural
	☐ Never Likely ☐ Likely	☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely

Scenario 3		
You have an appointment at 3 p.m., but unfortunately you have a class at that time with your favorite instructor. You don't want to miss the appointment, so you need to ask your instructor to leave the class early. How do you ask **him**?		
Your answer:		
3.1 How natural is this situation?	☐ Not natural ☐ Natural	☐ Somewhat Natural ☐ Very Natural
	☐ Never Likely ☐ Likely	☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely
3.2 How likely are you to encounter this situation in real life?	☐ Not natural ☐ Natural	☐ Somewhat Natural ☐ Very Natural
	☐ Never Likely ☐ Likely	☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely

Scenario 4		
It's your first week at school and your first class at school. While the instructor was taking attendance, you couldn't see your name on the attendance sheet. You urgently feel the need to ask your instructor. During break time, you go by the instructor to ask about the situation. How do you ask **him**?		
Your answer:		
4.1 How natural is this situation?	☐ Not natural ☐ Natural	☐ Somewhat Natural ☐ Very Natural
	☐ Never Likely ☐ Likely	☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely
4.2 How likely are you to encounter this situation in real life?	☐ Not natural ☐ Natural	☐ Somewhat Natural ☐ Very Natural
	☐ Never Likely ☐ Likely	☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely

Scenario 5		
You currently study English Language Teaching; however, you are mainly interested in American literature. You wonder about doing a minor or double major in American Literature. You go to the office of the head of your department to ask about your question. How do you ask **her**?		
Your answer:		
5.1 How natural is this situation?	☐ Not natural ☐ Natural	☐ Somewhat Natural ☐ Very Natural
	☐ Never Likely ☐ Likely	☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely
5.2 How likely are you to encounter this situation in real life?	☐ Not natural ☐ Natural	☐ Somewhat Natural ☐ Very Natural
	☐ Never Likely ☐ Likely	☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely

Scenario 6		
It's your last week in the term, and you have missed most of your classes. Because of this, you don't have much information about the exams.You need to ask your instructor about what the final exam will cover. You go to **her** office to ask him. How do you ask **her**?		
Your answer:		
6.1 How natural is this situation?	☐ Not natural ☐ Natural	☐ Somewhat Natural ☐ Very Natural
	☐ Never Likely ☐ Likely	☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely
6.2 How likely are you to encounter this situation in real life?	☐ Not natural ☐ Natural	☐ Somewhat Natural ☐ Very Natural
	☐ Never Likely ☐ Likely	☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely

Scenario 7		
It's your first week at the university. You go by your advisor instructor, but you can't see him at the office, so you decide to go to the office of another instructor to ask about where **she** is. How do you ask **her**?		
Your answer:		
7.1 How natural is this situation?	☐ Not natural ☐ Natural	☐ Somewhat Natural ☐ Very Natural
	☐ Never Likely ☐ Likely	☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely
7.2 How likely are you to encounter this situation in real life?	☐ Not natural ☐ Natural	☐ Somewhat Natural ☐ Very Natural
	☐ Never Likely ☐ Likely	☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely

Scenario 8		
You are about to graduate, and you want to pursue graduate studies but you have some questions in mind. You need some suggestions from your advisor instructor, so you need to get an appointment from him. You go to **his** office and request an appointment. How do you ask **him**?		
Your answer:		
8.1 How natural is this situation?	☐ Not natural ☐ Natural	☐ Somewhat Natural ☐ Very Natural
	☐ Never Likely ☐ Likely	☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely
8.2 How likely are you to encounter this situation in real life?	☐ Not natural ☐ Natural	☐ Somewhat Natural ☐ Very Natural
	☐ Never Likely ☐ Likely	☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely

Scenario 9		
You are working on an assignment for one of your methodology courses. You are having difficulty in finding resources to complete your assignment. You want to go by your instructor and ask **her** for some guidance to find appropriate resources. How do you ask **her**?		
Your answer:		
9.1 How natural is this situation?	☐ Not natural ☐ Natural	☐ Somewhat Natural ☐ Very Natural
	☐ Never Likely ☐ Likely	☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely
9.2 How likely are you to encounter this situation in real life?	☐ Not natural ☐ Natural	☐ Somewhat Natural ☐ Very Natural
	☐ Never Likely ☐ Likely	☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely

Scenario 10		
You have recently had your midterm exam, but you are not satisfied with your score. To make sure, you want to see your exam paper. You go to your instructor's office and ask **him** to see your exam paper. How do you ask **him**?		
Your answer:		
10.1 How natural is this situation?	☐ Not natural ☐ Natural	☐ Somewhat Natural ☐ Very Natural
	☐ Never Likely ☐ Likely	☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely
10.2 How likely are you to encounter this situation in real life?	☐ Not natural ☐ Natural	☐ Somewhat Natural ☐ Very Natural
	☐ Never Likely ☐ Likely	☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Very Likely

APPENDIX 3: THE DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS FOR PRE-SERVICE EFL TEACHERS

1. Gender:	Male ☐			Female ☐			
2. Age:							
3. Class:							
4. Nationality:							
4.1 Where were you born?				4.2 Where were you raised?			
5. Your mother's education level:	None ☐	Primary ☐	Secondary ☐	High School ☐	University ☐	Graduate ☐	Doctorate ☐
5.1 Your mother's job:				5.2 If she is retired from which job:			
6. Your father's education level:	None ☐	Primary ☐	Secondary ☐	High School ☐	University ☐	Graduate ☐	Doctorate ☐
6.1 Your father's job:				6.2 If he is retired from which job:			
7. Tick up (✓) your family's average monthly income :	☐ 4000 TL or less			☐ 4000TL-10000TL			
	☐ 10000TL-15000TL			☐ 15000TL and more			
8. How many years have you been learning English?:							
9. Have you ever been abroad before? If yes, please fill in the chart below.	Yes ☐			No ☐			

Country	**Duration (Days, months or years)**	**The purpose of the visit (education, vacation, job etc.)**
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		

10. Would you like to work as an EFL teacher?	Yes ☐	No ☐	Not sure ☐

APPENDIX 4: INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR THE DCT ADMINISTRATION

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

This present study is conducted for a thesis work titled "An evaluation of the pragmatic competence of pre-service English language teachers: Politeness strategies used in making requests" by Elif Düşünceli Keleş and her thesis advisor Assist. Prof. Dr. Sevgi Şahin. The present study aims to investigate the use of politeness strategies when making requests in academic context of pre-service EFL teachers who are studying at the department of English Language Teaching, and therefore to contribute to the scope of ELT programs and to evaluate EFL pre-services teachers' pragmatic competence in terms of the use of politeness strategies in making requests in the academic contexts.

Participation in this study is on a voluntary basis. Your answers will be kept anonymous. Your answers will be kept strictly confidential and evaluated only by the researchers; the obtained data will be used for academic purposes only. We expect you to read the questions and statements carefully and answer them sincerely. The DCT does not contain any questions that may cause discomfort in the participants. We would like to thank you in advance for your contributions to this study. For further information about the study, contact information about the researchers is given below:

Assist. Prof. Dr. Sevgi Şahin
Baskent University

Elif Düşünceli Keleş
Baskent University

I am told what the study is about, and I am participating in this study totally on my own will and I am aware that I can quit anytime I want. I also know that my responses will be kept anonymous and used for only the study. I give my consent for the use of the information I provide for academic purposes.

Name Surname Date Signature

APPENDIX 5: ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL

APPENDIX 6: RESEARCH APPROVAL