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TEACHING REQUEST SPEECH ACT

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Dedication

To our dear parents

To our lovely family



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ABSTRACT

This research aims first at identifying and then discovering how EFL learners produce a correct request sentence. We will conduct the study using the qualitative approach, on a sample of 37 students from 2nd and 3rd-year language stream classes of Med-El Aid Alkhalifa High School, Ouargla, Algeria. To achieve the study questionnaire and test made for the students and the data analysis using a descriptive method. The result shows that EFL learners use the indirect strategies to express their choices in producing a correct request statements.

Keywords: EFL learners, pragmatics, speech act, request, qualitative approach, Med-El Aid Alkhalifa high school.

List of abbreviations:

CCSARP: Cross-cultural speech act realization project

CP: Cooperative Principle

DSC: Discourse Completion Task

EFL: English as Foreign language

EFLT : English Foreign Language Teaching

ESL: English as a second language

FGD: Focus Group Discussion

FTA: face treating act

ICC: Intercultural Communicative Competence

LAD: Language Acquisition Device

MCDCT: Multiple-Choice Discourse Completion Test

SA: speech acts

SAT: speech act theory

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Abstract

Introduction

Introducing the topic and statement of the problem

From the first men kind, language is the only mean that human communicate with. Communication never go without language. It is sending and receiving information. Thus, it help people to express their feeling via writing pieces of sheets and translate expressions into words. Yet, there are different communities and variety of it is big deal with the field of language. Since, the different communities and each community has its own language. Nowadays, different languages are the most likely field that attract people.

People want to communicate more with the other languages. This lead people learn more about the language they used to learn it. The field of language is big deal for most researchers. Where they have to study all what related to language. They choose linguistics as an approach to study this phenomena. Since pragmatics is one of the fields included in the umbrella of linguistics, it is yet an isolated fields and has its own studies and subfields. Pragmatics is the study of the speakers' meaning. Thus pragmatics related each sing in language and its meaning by their users. Moreover, this study many branches such as speech act, which means the actions behind words. It is the study of how to use words and how to perform them as an actions. Speech act also is how person produce an utterances by performing actions. Request included in what speech act studied; request means demand, order or ask for something to be done by someone.

This study attempts to reveal if people who learn new language, they learn all what do the language include. Moreover, such speech acts like request; weather they learn the strategies and types of this actions. This study seeks first to find out if student of high school know how to make a correct request statement.

The aim of the study:

The overall aim of this study is to find and show how do a student make a request statement. First, explain the different ways of expressing request by EFL learners, then Enable students with the key linguistics expressions of request such as: please, can, could...Second, make students master and differentiate between types of request in order not to mix them with other types such as: command, apologize....finally, teach them how to produce request according to « context ».

Literature review:

Dendenne, B.(2014). The Pragmatic Suitability of the Algerian ELT Secondary School Textbooks: A Focus on Speech Acts. The study investigates to what extent the Algerian ELTsecondary school textbooks are pragmatically-suitable with regard to speech acts, with a focus on two of the most frequent ones: request and apology. All the requests and apologies that appear in the material are identified, then coded and analyzed. Findings show that although the textbooks provide a minimum of the linguistic forms used for the realization of these two speech acts, they are rather limited when it comes to associating them with the relevant contextual and cultural factors. The input is, on the whole, implicitly presented while there is paucity in the meta-pragmatic information that is necessary to guide the learners to the best production of these two acts.

The study by Nugroho and Rekha.(2020). Speech Acts of Requests: A Case of Indonesian EFL Learners sheds light on the delineation of the most frequently used request strategies as realized by Indonesian EFL learners and their reasons of utilizing such strategies. A descriptive qualitative study was employed by involving forty (40) English learners of a university at Surakarta as the participants. The data were ga-

thered by means of DCTquestionnaire,Role-plays, and Focus Group Discussion (FGD). The obtained data weredescriptively analyzed by referring to Blum-Kulka and Olshtain's Cross-Cultural Study ofSpeech Act Realization Patterns (CCSARP) followed by transcribing the result of FGD. Thefindings illustrated that Indonesian EFL learners made use of conventionally indirectrequest more frequently than other strategies. This study offers some input enhancement both in terms ofprocess (teaching activities) and in terms of product (realizing speech act of requests) for ELT practices in Indonesian context.

Saadatmandi ,Khiabani,Pourdana.(2018). In their study attempted to explore the possible impacts of teaching English pragmatic features to Iranian high school students' use of request speech acts. To this end, a sample of Iranian female high school students (n=50) between 12 to 18 years range of age participated in the study. The students with the same level of proficiency were assigned into two experimental and control groups. The data were collected by administering Multiple-Choice Discourse Completion Test (MDCT) as both the pre and the post-tests. The pragmatic features were selected from the high school English textbooks and the excerpts taken from the *Top Notch series* (2A, 3A, 2B). With the focus on request speech acts, the control group received conventional instructions whereas the experimental group was exposed to the researchers' request speech act interventions, the data revealed that teaching pragmatic features has significant impact on the Iranian high school students' performance on request speech acts. Besides, the overall responses by the experimental group showed that indirect request speech acts were more widely used than direct request speech acts as the sign of social and cultural politeness.

In the light of this, we can come up with the following research questions:

Research questions

The first research question is to identify the request strategies used by EFL learners.

The second question is to define the factors contributed in choosing strategies of request used by EFL learners and what is the most useful strategy.

The last question is to what extent do we notice the differences in speech in terms of gender.

Hypothesize :

For the first research question, we hypothesize that EFL learners can produce a request statement using the indirect strategy. For the second research question hypothesize that EFL learners do not know how to identify the request strategy that they use. For the last question hypothesize that there is differences in speech term of gender.

Methodology

The qualitative research was adopted by using questionnaire and test were made for students to find out the differences which face them in making and producing the different types of request statements and the strategies that they use in producing it. The aim of this chapter is to analyze the result of the data gathered. And to show the found result of the tools used the questionnaire and the test. The study was conducted from 16th March to 20th April.

The outline of the study:

This research has two chapters including the general introduction, the latter includes the statement of the problem, research questions, research hypothesize, the aim of the study and the literature review.

The first chapter is the theoretical chapter which include an introduction where we introduces the background of the study.

The second chapter is the analytical chapter where we presents the method used and the population. Also, the results of the data gathered.



CHAPTER-I. Theoretical Background

1.1. Introduction

In this chapter, we are going to deal with the background of our study and what are the main components of it. We start from general information which include pragmatics; from where it began and where we get it, also, we discuss some of the language competences. In addition to pragmatics and what included we have speech acts, we dealt with this phenomena as branch from pragmatics and what is the relationship between all the acts used. We move to the main component of this study, which is request and politeness. We define request and classified its strategies. At the end of this chapter we relate request with politeness.

1.2. Pragmatics

Linguistics is the study which attempts to language and its variety, and how do people use this language to communicate. The umbrella of Linguistics involves many fields. All these fields are studying how we use language and why we use it for. Syntax, semantics and pragmatics. The latter contributed to study how the speaker use the language and how the hearer draw the image that is meant by the speaker. It study the relationship between signs and their users, where it is not the word and its literally meaning; it is the utterances behind the meaning.

Pragmatics when analyzed the sentence, it brings that sentence as whole utterances and not translate each word as literally meaning.

It takes place when literally meaning doesn't serve the situation where the speaker and the hearer are in.

Pragmatics deals more with "context". So, context is the fundamental part of pragmatics.

Many researchers decades ago try to defined and to search for this term “Pragmatics”. Each one traced back pragmatics to an aspect. Crystel, Morris and many philosophers who begin to study the field of Pragmatics.

When it comes to a sentence; when it is understood while it doesn't literally mean this is Pragmatics.

1.2.1. Historical development

Pragmatics started from the theory of philosophy and it was started from the western. Where the philosophers start to study the codes of language where they have to write and speak. They start from the shift of the language, philosophers start to create symbols at first and relate each symbol to a sign or a such things. Here philosophers start to study the meaning and how this relationship between this signs and the symbols.

As the other fields pragmatics is developed from semiotics where it was like syntax and semantics. Where they were all relate their studies to the meaning while pragmatics study that meaning as whole and one utterance.

First, the term “Pragmatics” first appears in linguistic philosophy in 1930s, for then, western philosophers have begun to shift their focus on studies of language symbols, which develops into Semiology later. Early Pragmatics is just a branch of Semiology under philosophers' studies and this shows clearly that it originates from their (philosophers') study of language. *Second*, the theoretic basis for Pragmatics is from philosophy. To be more specific, Pragmatics originates from the following aspects: the study of Semiology, the study of linguistic Philosophy in 20th century and the study of functional Linguistics on language forms. *Third*, the main studies of

Pragmatics such as indexicality and presupposition also have philosophical background. (Unubi, 2016. PP 37)

1.2.2. The origins of pragmatics

Many philosophers in the past studied how meaning related to their signs. The first philosopher was Charles Morris in the late 1930. Morris started by studying the semiotics which he divided the semiotic in three terms.

Pragmatics in Linguistics it is a broad likely to the ancient philosophers who begin to study the words and their meaning; here there were such fields in linguistics. Syntax, semantics and pragmatics. Although all these terms study the meaning in sentences, the latter study that meaning as one context and not the literally meaning. The pragmatics term refers to the history of the philosophers since decades ago. It is the meaning of a certain sentences as one utterances. The origin of modern pragmatics is attributable to Charles Morris (1938), a philosopher who was concerned with the study of the science of signs or “semiotics”. According to Morris, semiotics consisted of three (3) broad branches such as (a) syntax being the formal relation of signs to one another (b) semantics being the formal relations of signs to objects to which they refer (c) pragmatics being the formal relations of signs to interpreter which is the language user. Within each of these branches (e.g. syntax) Morris also distinguished between “pure studies” and “descriptive studies” pure studies concerned with the explanation or elaboration of a sign system and symbols used to describe language called meta-language. (Igiri et. Al, 2020. PP 51)

1.2.3. Defining pragmatics

According to (Siddiqui,A. p 77) Pragmatics is a study in linguistics that identifies the meanings behind the writer and speaker speeches toward linguistic form.

Pragmatics give an importance more likely to context, where there are encoded meaning between the speech of the speaker and the hearer.

According to the Crystal (1987:62-5); Pragmatics deals with the factors that manages the language for what we want to choose within the pool of language that could satisfy whenever it is used within a social interaction and its effects on others.

Robin (1964:23) stated that “ the field of pragmatics that is understood as the phenomena around the different factors in speech”.

Leech (1983:13-4), pointed that the pragmatics study the meaning and its relationship to the situation and all the aspect that is used in certain situation. Leech (1983, P. 6) defines pragmatics as “the study of those aspects of the relationship situations”, the speech situation enables the speaker use language to achieve a particular effect on the mind of the hearer”. Thus, Leech relate pragmatics study with the meaning to situations that the speaker and the hearer are involved in where the speaker use the language to achieve certain situations.

While (Yule, 1996:127) defined Pragmatics as the study of ‘invisible’ meaning or how we recognize what is meant even when it is not actually said (or written). Here Yule defined pragmatics that investigate what is meant by the speaker when produce a certain speech even when it is not literally meaning the same.

1.2.4. Language competences

Competence is Perhaps one of the most debatable terms ever coined in the history of linguistics. It can be accepted as a kind of subconscious schemata that exists within the minds of individuals.

Linguistic competence is a term used by speech experts and anthropologists to describe how language is defined within a community of speakers. This term applies to

mastering the combination of sounds, syntax and semantics known as the grammar of a language. People with such competence have learned to utilize the grammar of their spoken language to generate an unlimited amount of statements. This term is distinct from the concept of communicative competence, which determines what is socially appropriate speech.

Linguistic competence constitutes knowledge of language, but that knowledge is tacit and implicit. This means that people do not have conscious access to the principles and rules that govern the combination of sounds, words, and sentences; however, they do recognize when those rules and principles have been violated." (Eva M. Fernandez and Helen Smith Cairns, *Fundamentals of Psycholinguistics*. Wiley-Blackwell, 2011).

Linguistic competence in relation to speech act: speech act is based on the premise that utterances are made for specific functions to send the message for the receiver, which are communicative acts that convey an intended language function. On the other hand, linguistic competence is to produce knowledge not antecedent present in the mind of the subject because it refers to the unconscious knowledge of grammar that allows a speaker to use and understand a language by both the writer and the speaker.

The term '*communicative competence*' is closely associated with the linguistic distinction between the notions of 'competence' and 'performance' and what knowledge in a language entail. Chomsky (1965: 4) defines knowledge of language 'form' as 'competence' (narrowed down to 'grammar') while knowledge of language 'function or use' is referred to as 'performance'. Competence, therefore, refers to one's underlying knowledge of a system, event or fact. It is the non-observable theoretical

ability. The components of communicative competence was detailed by Canale and Swain in another study in 1980 which divided the notion of communicative competence into four parts as follows:

Grammatical competence remains concerned with mastery of the language code (verbal or non-verbal) itself. Thus, included here are features and rules of the languagesuch as vocabulary, word formation, sentence formation, pronunciation, spelling and linguistic semantics. Such competence focuses directly on the knowledge and skill required to understand and express accurately the literal meaning of utterances.

Sociolinguistic competence included both socio-cultural rules of use and rules of discourse; here only the former set of rules is referred to. Sociolinguistic competence thus addresses the extent to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts depending on contextual factors such as status of participants, purposes of the interaction, and norms or conventions of interaction.

Discourse competence described it as mastery of rules that determine ways in which forms and meanings are combined to achieve a meaningful unity of spoken or written texts. The unity of a text is enabled by cohesion in form and coherence in meaning. Cohesion is achieved by the use of cohesion devices (e.g. pronouns, conjunctions, synonyms, parallel structures etc.)which help to link individual sentences and utterances to a structural whole. Themans for achieving coherence, for instance repetition, progression, consistency, relevance of ideas etc., enable the organisation of meaning, i.e. establish a logical relationship between groups of utterances.

Strategic competence is composed of knowledge of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that are recalled to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to insufficient competence in one or more components of communicative competence. These strategies include paraphrase, circumlocution, repetition, reluctance, avoidance of words, structures or themes, guessing, changes of register and style, modifications of messages etc.

In pragmatic competence, it concerns the relationships between signs and referents on the one hand, and the language users and the context of communication on the other. It includes the knowledge of the pragmatic conventions to perform acceptable language functions as well as the knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions to perform language functions appropriately in a given context (Bachman, 1990, pp. 89-90). Like what Stalker (1989, p. 184) has generalized, pragmatics is a set of rules that enable us to match the functions with linguistic structures in the certain contexts in which we are operating. Their components are Illocutionary and Sociolinguistic competence.

Communicative competence and speech act are acts that refer to the action performed by produced utterances and the function of an utterance enables speakers to use language to articulate their intentions such as request, communicative competence involves knowing not only the language codes, but also what to say to whom and how to say it appropriately, in any given situation. It is consonant with a semiotic approach to language, which holds that language consists of arbitrary symbols in semantic.

The concept of "socio-cultural competence" involves the ability to use specific information about nation, speech etiquette knowledge and communication technology

in order to achieve mutual understanding with other culture bearers (Chomsky, 1965). Socio-cultural competence is the result of the development of the “linguistic competence” which makes reference to the linguistic knowledge native speakers have and which allows them to build up and understand sentences in their language

Socio-cultural competence and speech act: socio-cultural competence is the ability to apply a set of multicultural knowledge, skills and qualities in the process of intercultural communication in the specific conditions of life and tolerance toward people of other nationalities. We focus that speech act and culture as unit in the ability of the speaker to perform an utterance. when speakers are performing social exchange, they need to be able to have a certain control of speech act, because speaker’s utterances are affected by cultural forms, so speech act is important to convey different function like apologizing.

Pragmatic competence in relation to speech act: pragmatic competence is one of the essential components of communication competence. pragmatics is the study of language and consists of conventional rules of language which are manifested in the production and interpretation of utterances, whereas speech act is one of the central concepts of pragmatics and all the acts we performe through speaking, all the things we do when we speak and the interpretation and negotiation of speech act are dependent on context.

1.1.5. The context:

As we mention that pragmatics deals with the context here it differentiate the context that used in this study. Igiri et al; (2020)outlined and explained’ the followings types of context in pragmatics :

Meaning and features of context: the meaning of context refers to the context that is used, context may refer to the situation when it comes to this it is divided in many ways where the context is different from each other. (Igiri et al; (2020)PP 52)

Linguistics context: This refers to the set of words in the same sentence or utterance. This forms the linguistic environment that determines the sense of the words in the context. (Igiri et al; (2020)PP 53)

Physical/environmental context: we know that words mean in the physical or environmental context. Our understanding of words or expressions is much more tied to the physical context particularly in terms of the time and place being referred to in the expressions. (Igiri et al; (2020) PP 53)

Interpersonal context: The interpretation context focuses on the influence of socio-cultural variables that affect the production of discourse, or text. But the fact remains that individual speakers or writers do make linguistic choices and decide what to say and how to say it. (Igiri et al; (2020)PP 53)

Situational/socio-cultural context: Unlike the other contexts discussed above, the situational context concerns mainly with socio-cultural considerations. The context of culture includes beliefs, value system, religion, conventions that control individuals' behavior and their relationship with others. (Igiri et al; (2020)PP 53)

Institutional context: Much of what we refer to here as "institutional context" may have actually been covered as part of the social/cultural context, but it is necessary to identify certain elements of the context in some specialized kind of settings like educational institutions, which impose some constraints in language use. (Igiri et al; (2020) PP 53)

Text and context: Igiri T. O. et al (2018:46-47) a text can simply be described as a type of written or spoken discourse or a sequence of paragraphs that represent an extended unit of speech. A text is not just a random collection of sentences. A text must be meaningful, in the sense that the Halliday and Hasan (1976) as quoted by the same Igiri T. O. et al (2018) described a text as “a semantic unit” typically in any text, every sentence except the first exhibits some form of cohesion with the preceding (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:292) in Igiri T. O. et al (2018).(Igiri et al; (2020)PP 54)

1.2.6. The goal of pragmatics

From the definitions of the term pragmatics we can draw the goal of pragmatics as a field to understand the use of language by the speaker and the hearer in such situations, we can add that pragmatics clarify the meanings behind each sing and why do the speaker use to bring a meaning. Pragmatics make the use of language easy to understand even if it is complex such idioms and fixed expressions. Here we notice that all the definitions and the researchers relate pragmatics to how we understand the reason behind using language in certain situations. Igiri, et al ; state that what is important is how language users communicate in oral conservations or in writing not necessarily how grammatically correct the sentences are. Discourse/utterance rather than sentence. The context of the speech – location of participants in a conversation/discourse. (Igiri et. Al, 2020. PP 52)

1.3. Speech Acts

The speech act theory considers language as a sort of action rather than a medium to convey and express. It developed by J.L. Austin the British philosopher. He introduced this theory in 1975 in his famous book “How do things with words” later

John Searle brought the aspects of theory into much higher dimensions. It is often used in the field of philosophy of languages. Austin is the one who came up with the findings that people not only use that language to assert things but also to do things.

The speech is suggested that production or issuance happens during the process of performance of speech act. It emphasizes that the utterances have a different or specific meaning to its user and listener other than its meaning according to the language. The theory further identifies that there are called constative and performative utterances. In his book of “How to do things with words” Austin clearly talks about the disparities between the constative and performative utterances. As Yule states that in attempting to express themselves, people do not only produce utterance containing grammatical structures and words, they perform action via utterances. From Yule’s statement, we can conclude that an utterance not only consists of grammatical structure and words, but also has actions or meaning. Speech act is a part of pragmatics where there are certain aims beyond the words or phrases when a speaker says something. Speech acts are acts that refer to the action performed by produced utterances. In regard to the English as a foreign language, there are things to consider. It is easy for the speakers or listeners to determine the intended meaning of utterances if they are spoken in the mother tongue. Factors such as idiomatic expressions and cultural norms are not function as barriers to determine the intended meaning.

Although the focus of SAT has been on utterances, especially those made in conversation, the phrase ‘speech act’ is taken as a generic term for any sort of language use, oral or otherwise. Speech acts, whatever the medium of their articulation, fall under the broad category of intentional acts, and hence are part of the theory of action. That is because one of the theory’s pertinent features is that when one acts in-

tentionally, generally one has a fixed intention in one's mind, similar to reasons for making an utterance.

Austin (1962) realises that viewing sentences as an act, is a novel way, as sentences have always been seen as describing world facts. More clarity, therefore, was needed in what ways a sentence or discourse might be said to be performing actions. Austin isolates three basic senses in which saying something equals doing something. Austin states that "speech act is a theory in which to say something is to do something". It means that when someone says something, he or she is not only saying something but also uses it to do things or perform act.

1.3.1. Definition of Speech Act

A speech act is an utterance that serves a function in communication. we perform speech acts when we offer an apology, greeting, request, complaint, invitation, compliment, or refusal. A speech act might contain just one word like 'sorry' to perform an apology or several words or sentences: "I'm sorry I forget your birthday. I just let it slip mu mind ". Speech acts includes real life interactions and require not only knowledge of the language but also appropriate use of that language within a given culture.

Austin differs of speech act in three kinds. He divides the kinds of speech act into locutionary act, illocutionary act, and perlocutionary act. The following are the explanation of kinds of speech act according to Austin.

The theory of Speech Actis partly taxonomic and partly explanatory as it is not only an attempt to break down scientifically and philosophically the procedures involved in making an utterance, but also an attempt to classify systematically the rea-

sons for the linguistic acts we make. Both Austin and Searle base their theories on the hypothesis that ‘speaking a language is engaging in a rule governed form of behaviour’ (Searle 1969: 11), which results in the accomplishment of some specific social act, function or intention.

1.3.2. Types of speech Acts

1.3.2.1. Locutionary Act is the act of saying something. A locutionary act is an act of how a person produces the utterance or to produce a meaningful linguistic expression. In other word, it is the act of saying the literal meaning of the utterance. Locutionary act also can be called speaker’s utterance.

1.3.2.2. Perlocutionary Act is The Act of affecting something. It concerns the effect an utterance may have on the addressee. A Perlocution is the act by which the illocution produces a certain effect in or exerts a certain influence of addressee. It means, perlocutionary act is the hearer’s reaction toward the speaker’s utterance. Those acts above will be explained with the examples below: “It is rain outside!”

1.3.2.3. Illocutionary Act is The Act of Doing something. It is not only used for informing something, but also doing something. Illocutionary act is related to speaker’s intention. In other words, every speaker has the intention through their utterance.

- Locutionary act is the meaning of the utterance itself. It means that it is raining outside.

- Illocutionary act is the speaker wish the hearer use umbrella if the hearer wants to go outside or the speaker wish the hearer not to go outside and stay still in the room.

- Perlocutionary act is the effect from the utterance. The hearer use umbrella when he or she go to outside, or the hearer keep stay still in the room. Every utterance created

by people in their communication consists of three acts that are locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary.

1.3.2.3.1 Implicit and explicit illocutionary force

The illocutionary act aimed at producing an utterance is known as the illocutionary force. There is no communication without illocutionary force. How does a speaker convey, or a hearer understand, the illocutionary force of an utterance? We can first of all distinguish between **explicit** and **implicit** illocutionary force. In the former case, there is a specific linguistic signal whose function is to encode illocutionary force. We can distinguish two types, lexical and grammatical. The lexical type are illustrated by the following:

- 1- I promise you I will leave in five minutes.
- 2- I warn you I shall leave in five minutes.
- 3- I beg you not to leave so soon.
- 4- I thank you for staying.

The verbs *promise*, *warn*, *beg*, *thank* are known as performative verbs: they function specifically to encode illocutionary force. The grammatical type is illustrated by the following:

- 1- You wrote the article.
- 2- Did you write the article?
- 3- Write the article!

In these cases it is the grammatical form that encodes the illocutionary force. According to what has just been said, it would appear that illocutionary force is always explicit. In the sense that every utterance encodes some indication of illocutionary force, this is probably true. However, the illocutionary force of an utterance is not

always fully specified linguistically: what is not so specified is implicit. There are two main ways in which the effective force of an utterance may deviate from the overtly expressed force. First of all, it may differ in strength. For instance, the difference between a statement and an emphatic assertion is one of strength. A declarative sentence simply encodes the force of a statement: where it functions as an emphatic assertion, the difference may well be implicit, and must be recovered on the basis of context. The second way in which the effective force of an utterance may differ from the overtly expressed force is when it performs a different illocutionary act.

1.3.2.3.2. The Classification of Illocutionary Acts

Searle in Levinson (1983) :Searle divides the kind of speech acts (especially illocutionary acts) into Assertive, directive, commissive, expressive and declarative. Searle (1969), Op. Cit., p.10. The following are the explanation of kinds of speech act according to Searle:

Assertive is kinds of speech acts that state or express what the speaker believes to be the case or not. Yule (1996), Op. Cit., p. 53. It shows the truth condition of the meaning of the utterance. The examples of this type are stating, suggesting, boasting, complaining, claiming, reporting. Geoffrey N. Leech. *Principle of Pragmatics*. (New York: Longman Inc. 1983), p. 105. For examples, (a) *The earth is flat*. (b) *It was a warm sunny day*. Yule (1996), Op. Cit., p.53. All of the examples above illustrate the speaker who represents the world as he/she believes it is. In example (a), the speaker states his/her belief that the earth is flat as the true one. In example (b), the speaker describes his/her opinion that the day is warm and sunny as his/her belief although maybe it is a hot sunny day. In using a representative, the speaker makes words fit the world.

Directives is speech act that speakers use to get someone else to do something. *Ibid.*, p. 54. It is a condition when the speaker requests the hearer to carry out some actions or to bring out some states or affairs. This directive can make the hearer under an obligation. The examples of this type are ordering, commanding, requesting, advising, and recommending. Leech (1983), *Op. Cit.*, p.106. For examples, (a) *Gimme a cup of coffee.* (b)*Make it black.* Yule (1996), *Op. Cit.*, p. 54. The example shows the direction to the hearer to do what the speaker said that is to make a cup of coffee and to make it black. This speech act embodies an effort to direct the hearer towards the speaker's goal.

Commissives is kind of speech acts that speakers use to commit themselves to do some future action. *Ibid.* They express what the speakers intends. The examples of this type are promising, vowing, offering. Leech (1983), *Op. Cit.*, p.106. The examples are (a) *I'll be back.* and (b) *We will not do that.* Yule (1996), *Op. Cit.*, p.54. Speaker in example (a) commits to the future action that he/she will come back again. Speaker in example (b) promises that he/she will not do the same thing again in the future. Both speakers are committing some future course of action which means they apply commissive.

Expressive is speech acts that stated what the speaker feels. *Ibid.*, p.53. It expresses the psychological states and can be statements of pleasure, pain, likes, dislikes, joy or sorrow. *Ibid.* They can be caused by something the speaker does or the hearer does, but they are about the speaker's experience.

The examples of this type are thanking, congratulating, pardoning, blaming, praising, condoling. Leech (1983), *Op. Cit.*, p.106. The examples are (a) *I'm really sorry!* and (b) *Congratulations!* Yule (1996), *Op. Cit.*, p. 53. Both of the speakers in

the example (a) and (b) show their psychological states. Speaker (a) expresses his/her psychological state of pardoning and speaker (b) expresses his/her psychological state of congratulating.

Declaratives is kind of illocutionary acts that can changes world by the utterance which is produced. As Searle in Yule states that declarative is kinds of speech acts that change the world via their utterance. *Ibid.* The word changes which is intended here refers to any situation. It can be the changing of the status of a person or the ownership of something. The examples of this type are resigning, dismissing, christening, naming, excommunicating, appointing, sentencing. Leech (1983), *Op. Cit.*, p. 106. The examples are (a) *Priest: I now pronounce you husband and wife This court sentences you to ten years imprisonment.* Yule(1996), *Op. Cit.*, p. 53. All of the examples change the world via utterance. In example (a), the priest changes the life of two persons. of a single being to be husband and wife as a new family. In example (b), the court which is led by a judge makes a free-man to be imprisoned-man.

Table of comparison of five classifications of illocutionary types :

Austin (1962)	Searle (1969)	Vendler (1972)	Bach and Harnish (1979)	Allan (1986)
Expositives	Assertives	Expositives	Assertives	Statements
Commissives	Commissives	Commissives	Commissives	
Behabitives	Expressives	Behabitives	Acknowledgement	Expressives
Exercitives	Directives	Interrogatives	Directives	Invitationals
		Exercitives		Authoritatives
Verdictives	Declaratives	Verdictives	Verdictives	

Table 01: comparison of five classifications of illocutionary types

(Koyookaburise (2004),)

1.3.3 DIRECT AND INDIRECT SPEECH ACT

Speech acts can be classified into Direct Speech Act and Indirect Speech Act. Furthermore, Yule (1996) state that Direct Speech Act will happen if there is direct relationship between the structure and the function of the utterance.

There are only two types of indirect speech acts performed by the main characters. They are declarative, and interrogative. Each of these sentence type has a different illocutionary force. Declarative for instance has the asserting illocutionary force, while interrogative is for asking/ questioning, and imperative is for ordering /requesting.

According to Austin (1962: 94), speech act is everything which we do at the time of conversing or set of verbal discussion. Speech acts are not descriptive, instead they are pronounced to affect an actual situation. Speech acts usually do not refer to

the past events. Speech act is the action performed by language to modify the state of the object on which the action performed. Speech act analysis can be applied in linguistics and literary works like poems, short stories, novels, movie and song. The dialogues in the literature can be analysed by speech act, because we know that the main point of speech acts is the utterance or conversation.

1.3.3.1. Direct Speech acts

An utterance is seen as a direct speech act when there is a direct relationship between the structure and the communicative function of the utterance. Direct speech act is the utterance which is based on the aim of the sentence.

The following examples show that the form correspondences with the function:

A declarative is used to make a statement: “You wear a seat belt.”

An interrogative is used to ask a question: “Do you wear a seat belt?”

An imperative is used to make a command: “Wear a seat belt!”

(Yule (1996,p 55)

Direct speech acts therefore explicitly illustrate the intended meaning the speaker has behind making that utterance. So the hearer is easy to understand because the utterances have direct meaning

1.3.3.1. Indirect speech act:

Indirect speech act is defined as an utterance in which one illocutionary act (a primary act) is performed by way of the performance of another act (a ‘literal act’). That is, situations where speech act verbs are not literally employed or are employed for a variety of dissimilar acts pave the way for the indirect creation of linguistic meaning

or indirect speech acts. The indirect speech can be understood by the hearer who has been trained in understanding situational context sentences meaning.

The concept of indirect speech is premised by the notion of 'literal force', that is, illocutionary acts are built into sentence forms and performative verbs. Austin asserts that the three major sentence types in English, namely the imperative, the interrogative and the declarative, have the forces or functions associated with them, that is, ordering, requesting and stating respectively; and, secondly that there are specialised categories of speech act verbs to go with these functions. All speech acts are represented by specific speech act verbs, but may be represented by several with the exception of the strictly institutionalised speech acts. Thus, a speech act, like ordering, may be expressed in various ways: by a direct 'ordering' verb by an ordinary verb in the imperative or even by circumlocution or implication. Searle stated that an indirect speech is one that is "performed by means of another" (Searle quoted in Thomas, 1995, p.93). Which means that there is an indirect relationship between the form and the function of the utterance. The following examples show that the form does not correspond with the function:

An interrogative is used to make a request: "Could you pass the salt?"

A declarative is used to make a request: "You're standing in front of the TV." (Yule 1996, 56)

The speaker does not explicitly state the intended meaning behind the utterance. It is the hearer's task to analyse the utterance to understand its meaning.

Indirect Speech Acts will happen if there is an indirect relationship between the structure and the function of the utterance. Relationship between the structure and the

function of the utterances, indirect speech acts are generally associated with greater politeness in English than direct speech act.

1.3.4. Performatives VS Constatives

1.3.4.1. Constatives

In ‘How to Do Things with Words’, Austin pointed out that “it has come to be commonly held that many utterances which look like statements are either not intended at all, or only intended in part, to record or impact straightforward information about the facts” (Austin 2002: p. 2), he noticed that many seemingly descriptive statements do not serve to indicate some specially odd additionally feature in the reality reported, but “to indicate (not to report) the circumstances in which the statement is made or reservations to which it is subject or the way in which it is to be taken and the like” (Austin 2002: p. 3). Philosophers before would rather call these possibilities “descriptive” fallacy; but Austin argued that “descriptive” the word itself is special and not all true or false statements are descriptions. Hence the word “descriptive” is not a good name, he preferred to use the word “constative”. Here we have some examples for constatives, e.g. “China is in Asia”, “John has five children” or “France is hexagonal”. About all these statements we may ask “Are they true or false”.

1.3.4.2. Performatives

According to Austin, performative is the term that “indicates that the issuing of the utterance is the performing of an action—it is not normally thought of as just saying something” (2002: p 6). The term “performative” is derived from “perform”, the usual word with the noun “action”. Though Austin found there are a number of terms that may suggest themselves like “contractual” (“I bet”) or “declaratory” (I

declare war), no term is wide enough to cover all classes of performative. Actually, the term “operative” comes nearest to his “performative”, but it is used strictly by the lawyers. On account of the above reason, Austin himself invented the term “performative”. He also provided the criteria of identifying those performatives (2002: p. 5). Performative verbs, that is, those verbs one of whose functions is to signal specific speech acts, have certain peculiar properties which set them apart from non-performative verbs.

I hereby undertake to carry out faithfully the duties of Royal Egg-Sexer.

I hereby declare the bridge open.

I hereby command you to surrender.

This use of hereby is not possible with non-performative verbs of speaking:

I hereby persuade you to accompany me.

I hereby recount the history of my family.

I hereby tell the truth.

it can be used either performatively or descriptively; in the latter use they are no different from non-performative verbs:

John is always promising to do things, but he never does them.

He ordered them to leave the premises.

Who is going to christen the baby?

The performative use of performative verbs is extremely restricted grammatically.

They

must be in the simple present tense. They may be active or passive; if active, then they

must also be in the first person. Consider, first, active uses.

In his chapter on ‘Semantic Analysis of English Performative Verbs’, Vanderveken (1990: 167) also attacks the notion of performatives being based on verbs, giving the following reasons:

Many performative verbs do not name an illocutionary force but rather a kind of illocutionary force.

Some performative verbs like “state” and “assert” which name the same illocutionary force are not synonymous. Their difference of meaning derives from conversational features which are independent from logical forms.

Some speech act verbs which name illocutionary forces do not have a performative use.

Some performative verbs can have non-illocutionary meanings

The distinction between performatives and constatives is often invoked in work on the law, in literary criticism, in political analysis, and in other areas, it is a distinction that Austin argued was not ultimately defensible. The point of Austin’s lectures was, in fact, that every normal utterance has both a descriptive and an effective aspect: that saying something is also doing something.

1.3.5. Speech Acts and Grammar

Working within the framework of Transformational Grammar (TG), Katz and Postal (1964) proposed that a grammar of this kind should be constructed in such a way that transformational rules not change meaning. In a grammar that is constrained in this way, the deep structure would be all that is required for semantic interpretation. Obvious counterexamples to the proposal in the early TG literature included the rules that derived imperative and interrogative sentences from deep structures identical to

those of the corresponding declarative sentences. Such transformations obviously change meaning, at least in a broad sense of the word that would count illocutionary force as a part of meaning. Katz and Postal proposed to eliminate these counter examples by including markers of force in the deep structures of imperative and interrogative sentences. The transformations in question would apply only in the presence of these markers and would, therefore, not change meaning. In a footnote (Katz and Postal 1964: 149), they also considered the possibility that

instead of an unanalysed marker, the deep structures of interrogative and imperative sentences might include whole performative clauses. Thus, the deep structure of *Go home!* would be similar to that of the explicit performative sentence *I request that you go home*, and the deep structure of *Did you go home?* would be similar to the performative *I ask you whether you went home*.

Ross (1970), pursuing this idea within the framework of Generative Semantics, proposed to extend the proposal to declarative sentences as well, thus modelling, in grammatical terms, Austin's and Searle's suggestion that all normal sentences have both a locutionary and an illocutionary aspect. The underlying performative clause in Ross's proposal would correspond to Searle's illocutionary operator *F*, and its deep structure object clause would correspond to Searle's propositional content, *p*. Ross provided a number of arguments for the existence of such abstract performative clauses; some of these pointed to the existence of a higher verb of speaking, some to an element referring to the speaker, and some to an element referring to the addressee. Additional arguments of a similar sort were adduced by Sadock (1969, 1974), Davison (1973), and others. The grammatical arguments for abstract performative clauses were generally of the following form:

A - P is a property characteristic of clauses that are subordinate to a higher clause of form F.

B - P', a special case of P, is found in main clauses.

C - P' would be explained if in underlying structure, the main clause is subordinate to a higher clause of the form F'.

1.4.1. Request

In social interaction as we act and interact in many ways. We send and receive utterances by using speech acts. Such speech acts have an influence in our daily speech, request is one of these speech acts. You have something desired to be done then you ask a person to do it.

Request is ask for something to be done by someone; as we ask or request for help. Trosborg (1995) states that “ a request is an impositive act performed by a speaker to impact on the intentional behavior of the hearer for the benefits of the former only and the cost of the latter.” Moreover, this act is that the speaker conveys an utterance by using such speech to persuade the hearer to do the requested thing. Bach and Harnich (1984: 48) defined request as “ the speech act which is used to express the speakers’ desire so that the hearer does what the speaker wants”. Here Bach and Harnich classified the request as the desire or the want of the speakers, so that means request is the relationship between the speaker and the hearer to have something wanted to be done. In every day speaking request take a place where it is forming such action and interactions that produced by the speaker to the hearer. As stated by Achiba (2003)” a request is face threatening act. A speaker needs to follow some strategies to lesson or alleviate causing offence.” However, the sender of this

request have to form the request according to the strategies that made by the researchers such Trosborg. Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) defines request as the speech that includes many parts when asking for something (p. 200). In learning new language forming such acts is too difficult due to the differences between the languages. As we notice the major types of request are the direct and the indirect one. The direct strategy is using the appropriate expressions that means this act is request: could, can, would, please.....whereas the indirect is different in which the speaker use an utterances that may not mean request as a literally meaning but when we have it as whole it became a request statement.

The main rule of a request is to bring the requestee to the awareness that some action is desired of him, but there are various ways in which this action can be achieved (Sadock, 1974, p. 74).

Blum-Kulka and Olshtain specified three levels of directness that could be seen as universal (p. 201): 1. Explicit level, the most direct form of request, which includes imperatives. 2. Conventionally indirect level, which includes contextualized predictions that include could and would in the request form. 3. Nonconventional indirect level in which the request will be made more as a hint. These three levels of directness were divided into nine request categories, illustrated in Table 1 (reproduced from Blum-Kulka, 1987, p. 133 -134; Blum-Kulka&Olshtain, 1984, p. 201-202), which form an indirectness scale starting with the explicit type of requests and ending with the most indirect requests. There are different strategies when it comes to the realization of the request and the level of directness that will play a part in how politely the request is made.

1.4.2. Request strategies

In request there are two main strategies the first one is the direct and the other one is the indirect one. In other words, direct strategy is the act of asking directly the hearer to do something or give an understandable demand; while the indirect one is the most complex to be understood because it is carried out according to the utterances and it is sometimes misunderstood by the hearer. These strategies make the request that is produced by the speaker either understandable or not. Otherwise, here we can include the other hidden types which are the formal and the informal one. The speaker or the requester can make the formality with the requestee who is higher level or aged, whereas the use of informality with his same age or same level.

“Direct strategy carry only one meaning or illocutionary force, on the other hand, indirect strategy have more than one meaning”. Clark (1979).

Indirectness = Request size + Power (of hearer over speaker) + social distance
(cited in Dittrich et al., 2011, p. 3809)

“Request size” refers to the type of request that is made and how much of an imposition it has.

“Power” refers to the status distance between the hearer and the speaker. “Social distance” indicates whether the listener and speaker know each other well on a personal level or if they are strangers (Dittrich et al., 2011, p. 3809). To make a request more indirect and polite, the word *please* may be added and the request itself will be made in an indirect manner rather than explicitly.

Trosborg (1995) based the four forms of request: direct, indirect, conventionally indirect (hearer-based) and conventionally indirect (speaker-based).

In the following table the taxonomy of request realization strategies (Trosborg; 1995:205)

	Category	Request strategy	Examples
1	Direct	1- obligation 2- performative 3- imperative	You must/ have to lend me your car I would like to ask you to lend me your car Lend me your car(please?)
2	Conventinally indirect (hearer-based)	1- ability 2- willingness 3- permission 4- suggestory formulae	Can/ could you lend me your car? Would you lend me your car? May I borrow your car? How about lending me your car?
3	Conventinally indirect (speaker-based)	1- wishes 2- desire/ needs	I would like to borrow your car? I want/ need to borrow your car?
4	Indirect	1- hints	I have to be at the airport in half an hour.

Table02: The taxonomy of request realization strategies (Trosborg; 1995:205)

(Dendenne, 2013 Pp 170)

While Blum-Kulka and Olshtain preferred to the types and their strategies as a classifications. In the Cross Cultural Speech Act Realization Project, they divided the strategies into three levels each level with its specific types. Everyone in his speech include some speech acts and has a certain strategy, Blum-Kulka et (1989:18), as stated by them everyone use different acts to perform action and they use a different strategies.

In the CCSARP scheme classifies there are three levels of directness in nine strategy types of request speech act (on a scale of indirectness) those are direct strategies,

conventionally indirect strategies and non-conventionally indirect strategies. (Hardyanti, 2015 Pp 11)

Level 1: Direct Strategies (Impositives)

Mood Derivable

The grammatical mood (imperative) used in this form is conventionally regarded as a request. And utterances in which the grammatical mood of the verb signals illocutionary force (e.g. leave me alone, clean up that mess).(Hardyanti, 2015 Pp 12)

Performatives

Utterances in which the illocutionary force is explicitly named. The speaker conveys the illocutionary intent by using a relevant illocutionary verb, making the utterance an order, a plea or begging (e.g. I am asking you to clean up the mess).(Hardyanti, 2015 Pp 12)

Hedged Performatives

The utterances in which the naming of the illocutionary force is modified by hedging expressions (e.g. I would like to ask you to lend me a pen).(Hardyanti, 2015 Pp 12)

Obligation Statements

Utterances which state the obligation of the hearer carry out the act. The speaker conveys the illocutionary intent by stating moral obligation directly (e.g. you'll have to move that car).(Hardyanti, 2015 Pp 12)

Want Statements

Utterances which state the speaker's desire that the hearer carries out the act. The speaker conveys the illocutionary intent by asserting a particular want, desire or wish (e.g. I really wish you'd stop bothering me).(Hardyanti, 2015 Pp 12)

Level 2: Conventionally Indirect Strategies

Suggestory Formulae

Utterances which contain a suggestion to do x. The speaker conveys the illocutionary intent expressed as a suggestion (e.g. How about cleaning up?).(Hardyanti, 2015 Pp 12)

Query Preparatory

Utterances containing reference to preparatory conditions as conventionalized in any specific language. The utterance contains a preparatory question referring to the feasibility of the request.(Hardyanti, 2015 Pp 12)

Level 3: Non-conventionally Indirect Strategies (Hints)

Strong Hints

Utterances containing partial reference to object or element. While the illocutionary intent is not expressed overtly, the speaker provides strong clues for the hearer to construe the request (e.g. you have left the kitchen in a right mess).(Hardyanti, 2015 Pp 13)

Mild Hints

Utterances that make no reference to the request proper (or any of its elements) but are interpretable as request by context. In other word, the speaker conveys the illocutionary intent by providing less strong clues, but it is still

interpretable as a request with the help of the context. (Hardyanti, 2015 Pp 13)

Blum-Kulka's (1987) research aimed at eliciting request strategies in five different situations of diverse context. The results are presented below:


Mood Derivable	Direct  Indirect
Obligation Statements	
Performatives	
Want Statements	
Hedged Performatives	
Query Preparatory	
Suggestory Formulae	
Hints (strong)	
Hints (mild)	

Table 03: Directness scale


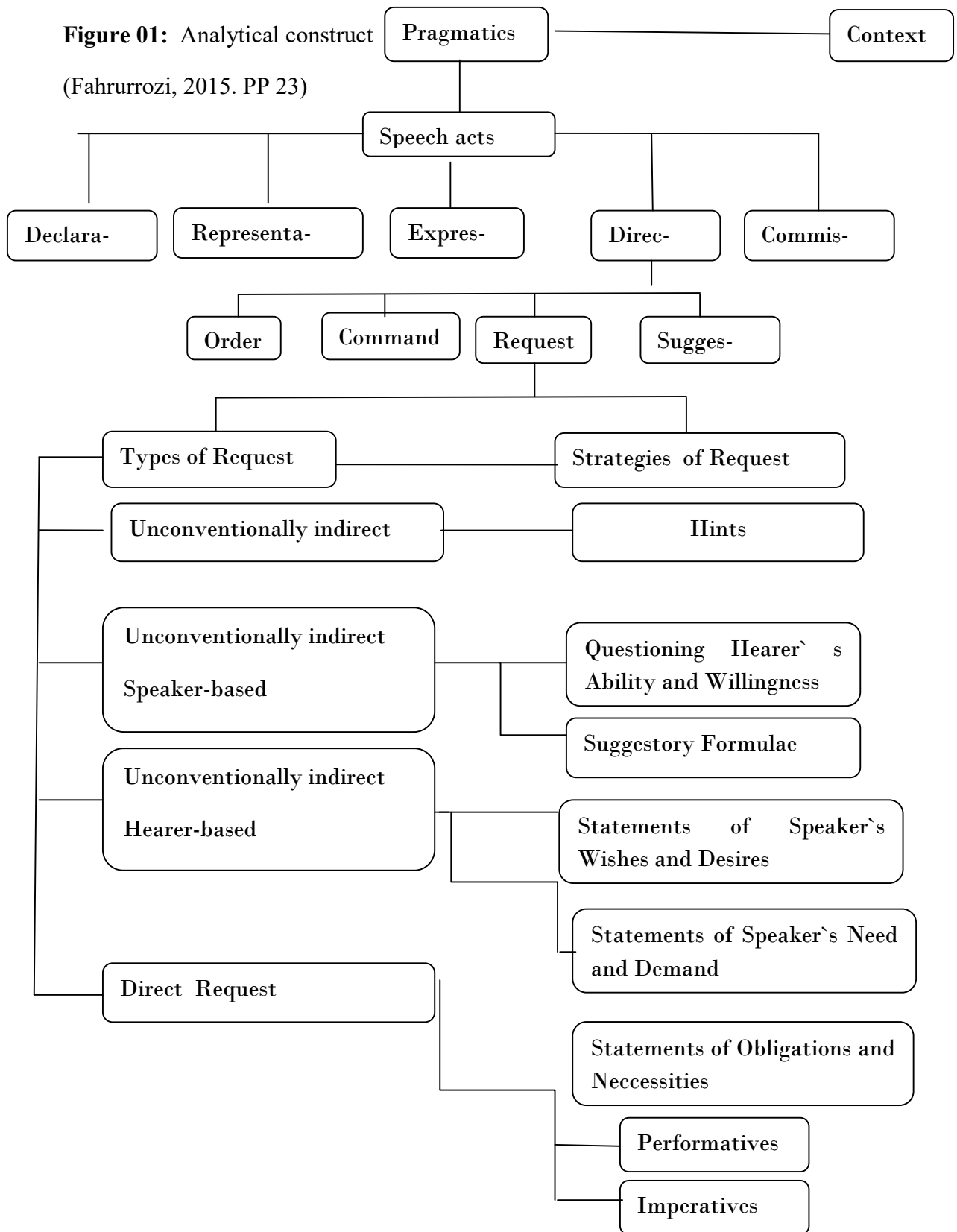
Query Preparatory	Most polite  Least polite
Hints (mild)	
Hints (strong)	
Hedged Performatives	
Suggestory Formulae	
Performatives	
Want Statements	
Obligation Statements	
MoodDerivable	

Table 04: Politeness scale



(Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Ellis, 1992). All different languages have the main categories of request, which are (direct, conventionally indirect, and non-conventionally indirect). While there are differences between these forms of request in certain situations.

Request has three outcomes. First, the speaker says his/her request and wants the hearer to do the desired act. Second, the hearer may perform the desired act. Third, it is unsure that the hearer will perform the desired act. (p 12) .

1.4.3. Formal and informal request

Since request is the act of asking for something, there are two types for asking for something. It is the formal or the informal request where it is the way on how people make the statement of request.

The formal request refers to the formality or the high level of asking by using appropriate statements. Formal request is the direct way on which the requester ask on formal way; here the formality belong to the people who were high level such as inspectors, president, teachers or someone is aged then you. Formal request is always having a special or an appropriate expressions in asking like the model verbs: would, may, could... or such expression like please.

Informal request refers to the use of dialect language with friends or people who are aged the same with you. In the informal request, the request goes directly without using the appropriate words for making request. Informal request takes place where the requester make impolite request, thus, he ask the requestee without taking into consideration others behavior.

Here the following table illustrate some of the examples of formal and informal request :

	Formal	Informal
1	Good morning, good evening	Hi, hello
2	May I ask you?.....	Give me.....
3	Could we leave?.....	Let's go?.....
4	I apologize for	Sorry.....
5	Can you	Hey, stop.....
6	Sir, Mm	Bro, guy

Table 05:Examples of formal and informal request

1.5.1. Politeness

In all interaction we use every day it is not in the same level as someone is closer not as the one who is not. This lead the requestee to pay attention to the person who is requested. Here it will make the request either polite or impolite.

When we make a request we are taking into account the face of the requestee and his/her feeling because we want the request to be done by the requestee.

In other hand, this request attempts to be polite or impolite. Politeness in request is the act of being politely requester what makes the requester do the desired request. Otherwise, impolite request is not the same; here the requester doesn't take much consideration or much attention to the feeling of the requestee. Politeness is a dis-course strategy that enable speaker or listener to save face in an interaction.

A request is a speech act whereby a requester conveys to a requestee that he/she wants the requestee to perform an act which is for the benefit of the requester (Tros-

borg, 1995, p. 187). Thus, the requester wants the requestee to perform such actions which benefits him. This actions may be anything in same time or in the next time. The act may be a request for an object, an action or some kind of service, etc. Or it can be a request for information. The desired act is to occur after the utterance, either in the immediate future or at some later stage (Edmondson-House, 1981, p. 99). Since it is the desired action that wanted to be performed, here this request must to be in polite way which attempts the requestee to perform it. Thuspolite requests can be characterized as pre-event (for further details, see Blum-Kulka et al, 1989, p. 150; 1990, p. 259; and Gu, 1990, p. 240).

The main rule of a request is to bring the requestee to the awareness that some action is desired of him, but there are various ways in which this action can be achieved (Sadock, 1974, p. 74).Politeness is defined by Meyerhoff (2011) as “the actions taken by competent speakers in acommunity in order to attend to the possible social or interpersonal disturbance” (p. 312). Than politeness is preserving the gestures when making a request or when asking for something.

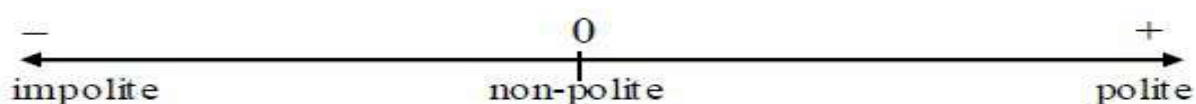


Figure 2. represents scale of politeness (Ide et al, 1992)

However, Watts (2003) suggested that polite behavior and polite language need to be taught. Hestated that politeness is not something we are born with but rather it is learned in social contexts. A language learner may need to learn the social rules in order to be able to develop communicative competence.

Thomas (1995) points out that the concept of politeness is misinterpreted with cumbersome frequency: pragmatics is blamed for holding favourably disposed opinions with regard to people's behavior. Indeed, the term "politeness" and the way it is used in everyday interaction stimulates such misinterpretation (p.178). Mey(1993) defines politeness as a pragmatic mechanism in which a variety of structures work together according to the speaker's intention of achieving smooth communication (p.23). Politeness that is make many structures work together not only one.

(Ho, 1976, p. 867). Levinson and Brown specified politeness as the face reactions, where the face is key in politeness. Then, the requestee not just aware of the way the request goes also being aware of the feelings and behavior of the requestee while he asked to perform an action. So, in order to make that, Brown and Levinson suggested that the reason why we choose to be polite is that we are concerned about maintaining two different types of face:

(a) *negative face*, the want of every competent adult member of a community that their actions beunimpeded by others, i.e., "don't tread on me" (p. 88), and (b) *positive face*, the want of every competent adult member of a community that their wants be desirable to at least some others, i.e., "love me, love my dog" (Meyerhoff, 2011, p. 88). In social interaction, the positive and negative face wants of each participant determine our choice of words and how polite we choose to be, for example, in requests.

Take into consideration three factors in both polite and impolite that identified by and Levinson : power, social distance, and the cost of the imposition. It is the efforts we make when we want to be more polite in requesting to have a respectful request made.

To have an appropriate polite request you strategies made for this.

Politeness strategy is a particular strategy used in communication to maintain and develop relationship (Kitao, 2000). By this, polite strategy it the way you show the attention of your politeness and respect. Yule (1997:60).

1.5.2. Types of politeness

Like other strategies politeness has two types: positive and negative.

First positive politeness is about the positive reactions of the addresser when he was asked to do something, while the negative one is about the negative reactions or the negative answer.

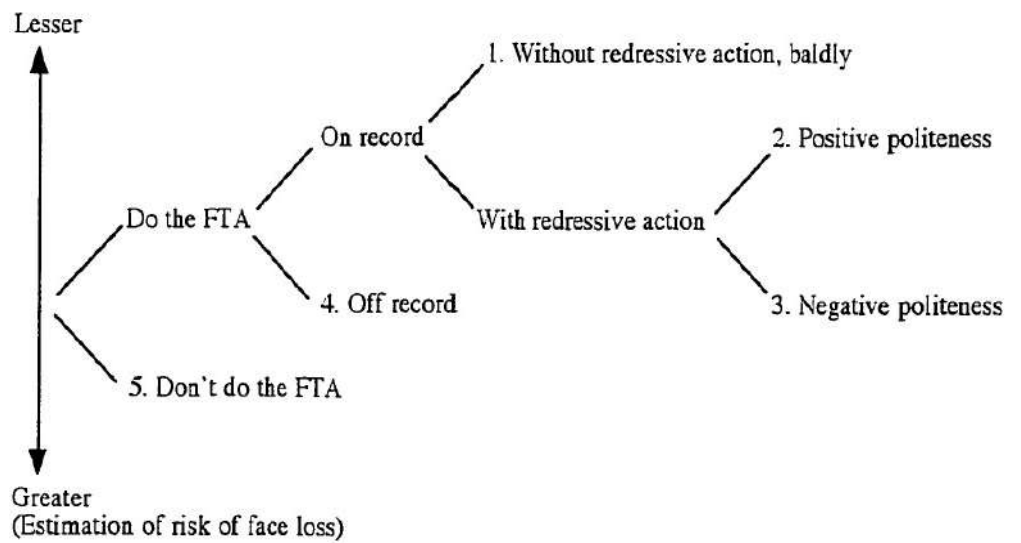


Figure 3. Possible FTA strategies (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 60).

Positive politeness seeks to satisfy the negative face needs, while *positive politeness* seeks to satisfy the positive face needs (p. 70). Thus, negative politeness is more polite than positive politeness (p. 60).

It consists in two related aspects: *negative face* and *positive face*. *Negative face* reflects the basic claim to territories, personal preserves, right to non-distraction i.e. to

freedom of action and freedom from imposition. *Positive face* reflects the positive consistent self-image or ‘personality’ (crucially including the desire that this self-image be appreciated and approved of) claimed by interactants. The first aspect is the want of every ‘competent adult member’ that his actions be unimpinged by others.

1.5.2.1. Positive politeness is oriented to satisfy the positive face, positive self-image of addressee. Doing an FTA by using this strategy means that S considers that he wants what H wants (or actions/ acquisitions/ values resulting them), e.g. by treating H as the member of his group, a friend, or a person whose desires and personality traits are known and liked. In positive politeness, the area of redress is not restricted to the particular face want transgressed by the FTA, but extended to the appreciation of H’s desires (Brown & Levinson, 1987:70,101)

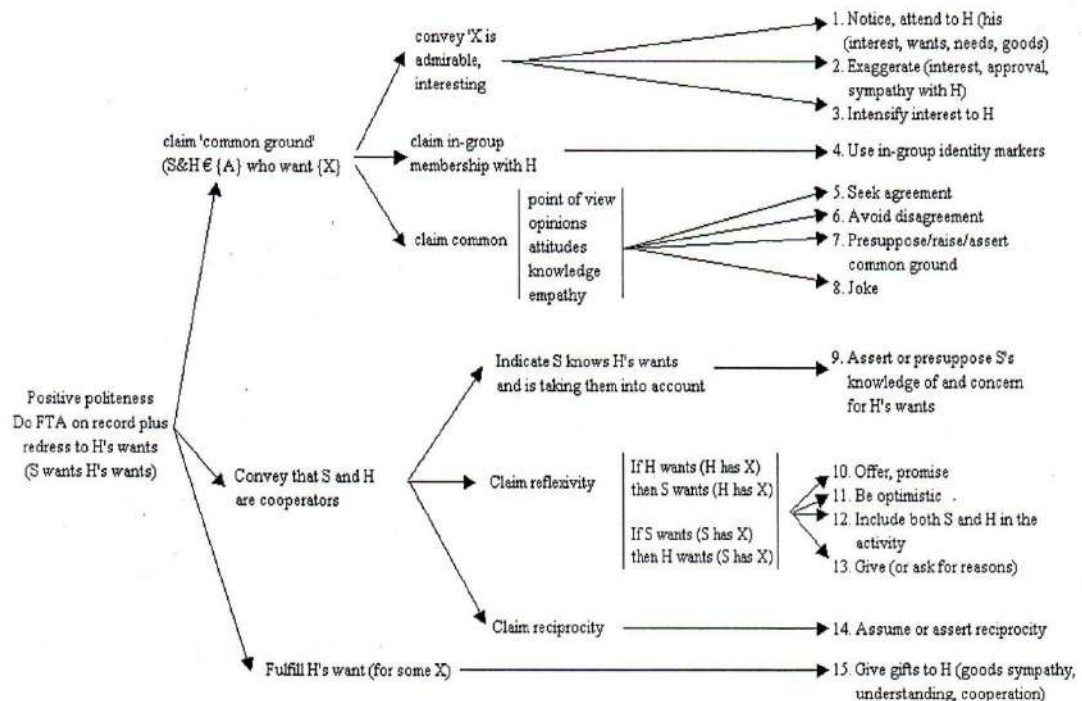


Figure 4. represents the positive politeness (Ayuningtias, 2012. PP 03)

1.5.2.2. Negative Politeness

Negative politeness is oriented to satisfy H's negative face, his basic want to be free and unimpeded. It means that the speaker recognizes and respects the addressee's freedom of action and will not (or will only minimally) impede it.

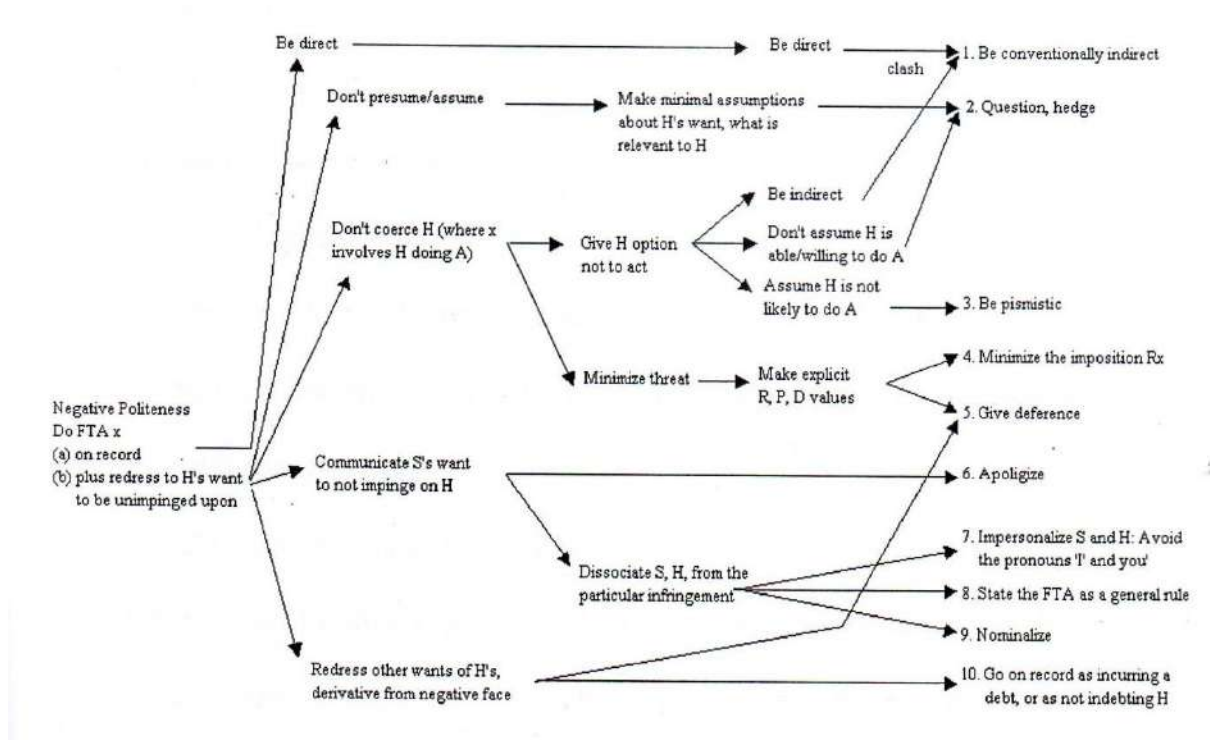


Figure 5. represents the negative politeness (Ayuningtias, 2012. PP 04)

At the end of this field of politeness positive and negative face can make the request that being asked for either accepted or refused.

1.5.3. Accepted or refused Request:

Accepted request: when the request goes on polite way and the requester use the positive when he request someone and use the positive way to persuade the requestee to accept the request. Since, the requester is aware of the feelings of others he must use the polite way to oblige the requestee to do the requested action.

Refused request: is where the requester make his request on the impolite and the negative way because he doesn't take much attentions to the feelings of others. This what make the request refused by the requestee.

1.6. Conclusion

As we saw in this chapter we talked about the background of our topic. From this, we notice that is huge relationship of the elements that we dealt in the first chapter. We start from general information which include pragmatics and its language competences; from where it began and where we get it, also. In addition to pragmatics and what included we have speech acts, after that we explore the relationship between the language competences and pragmatics. We moved to the main component of this study, which is request and politeness as it was the focus on. We define request and classified its strategies. At the end of this chapter we relate request with politeness.



CHAPTER-II ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

2.1. Introduction

In the second chapter analysis of the data. We are going to make general idea about the methodology that is used to carried the study, describe the population and how we gather data. The role of this chapter is to show what are the strategies used by the EFL learners through the result of the questionnaire and to show if EFL learners could differentiate between formal and informal request by the result of the test made. Furthermore, the qualitative research was adopted by using questionnaire and test. The aim of this chapter is to analyze the result of the data gathered.

2.2.1. Aim of the questionnaire:

The questionnaire aimed at discovering the most useful request strategy by EFL students by giving some of the situations with options. Each option contain strategy; here, we can see or reveal the strategy used by each student.

2. 2.2 Design of the questionnaire:

This questionnaire is addressed to Second and Third Year students at the letter and languages stream at Med El Aid Alkhalifa high school. The participants of this discourse completion task are 37 students. The sample was chosen randomly to discover the request strategies used by EFL learners'. It consists of 08 of questions which are arranged in a logical way.

2.2.3.1 Section One: Background information

This section is about student background information. It contains 6 items outlined as follows: students' gender; students' age, their choice to study the language stream, the assessment of their present level at English ,their opinions about speaking English, and their knowledge about request.

Section One: Background information

Gender	Number	Percentage
Male	05	14%
Female	32	86%
Total	37	100%

Table 06: students gender

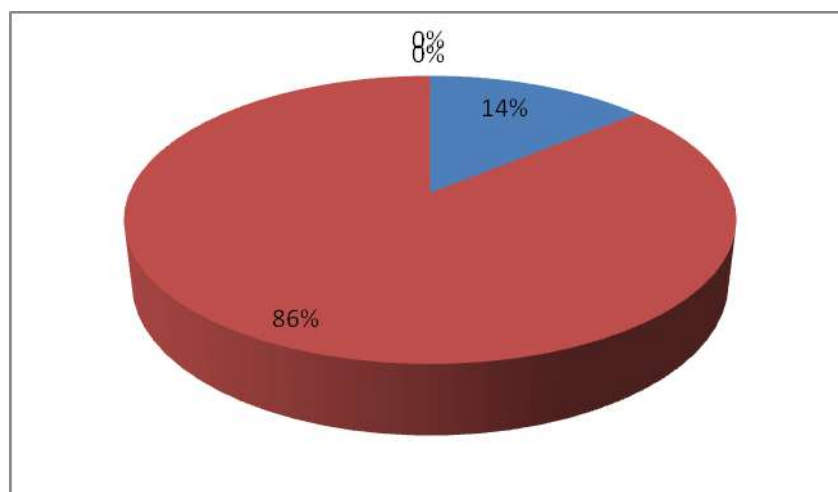


Figure06 : students' gender

From the table and the result are shown in the pie chart we notice that all the students' in the language stream are females and few who are males.

Age	Number	Percentage
16-18	34	92%
19-20	03	08%
Total	37	100%

Table07 : surdents age

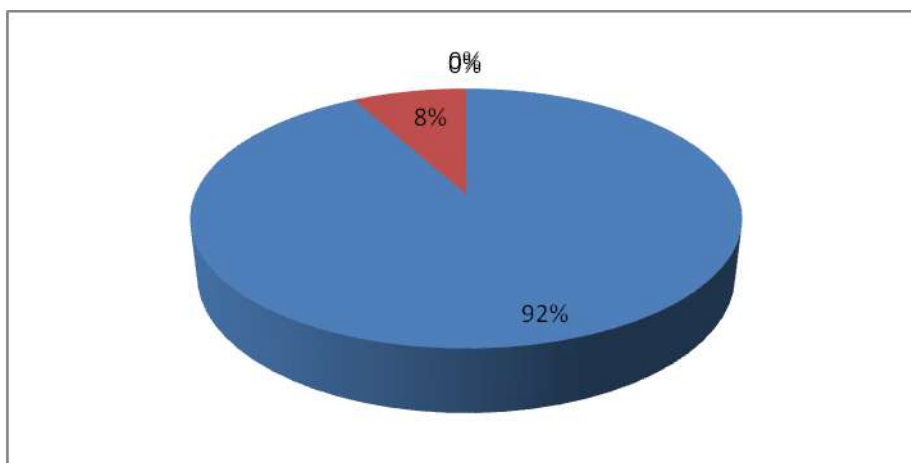


Figure07: students age

From the result shown above we notice that most of the students aged between 16-18 (92%), while just three students who were aged 19-20 (08%).

Option	Number	Percentage
Personal	37	100%
Imposed	00	0%
Total	37	100%

Table 08: choice to study languages stream

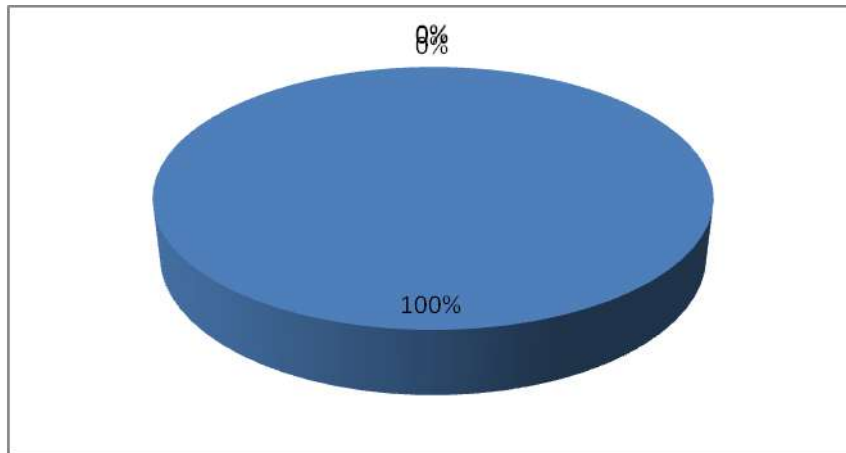


Figure 08 : choice to study languages stream

As we notice here all the students who were selected to answer the questionnaire 37(100%), their choice to study English were personal. And none of them said their choice were imposed. They are all loved to the English Language.

Option	Number	Percentage
Average	2	6%
Good	20	54%
Excellent	7	19%
I don't know	8	21%
Total	37	100%

Table09 : students present level at English

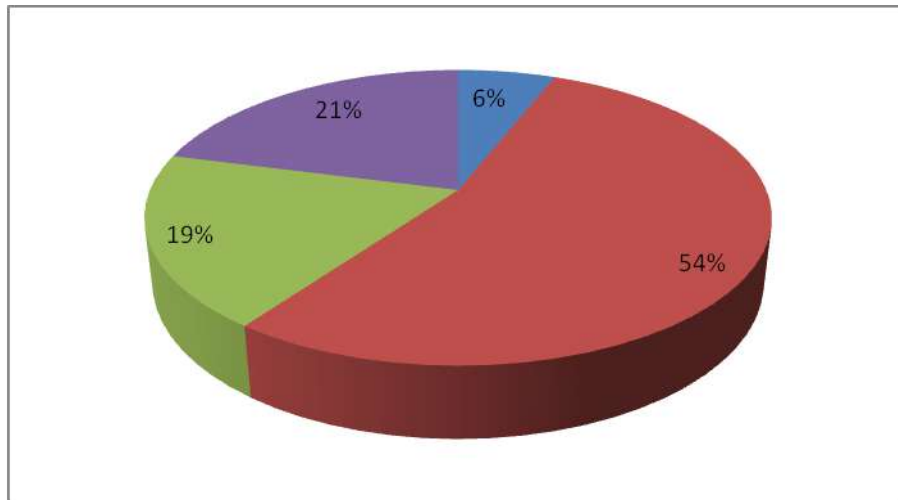


Figure 09 : students present level at English

We can notice from the table above that the highest percentage of students (54%) claim that their level in English is good. Others (06%) show that they are average in English. Some of them (19%) say that they are excellent in English. The least percentage (21%) of students shows that they do not know their level at all.

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	15	41%
No	22	59%
Total	37	100%

Table 10: request knowledge

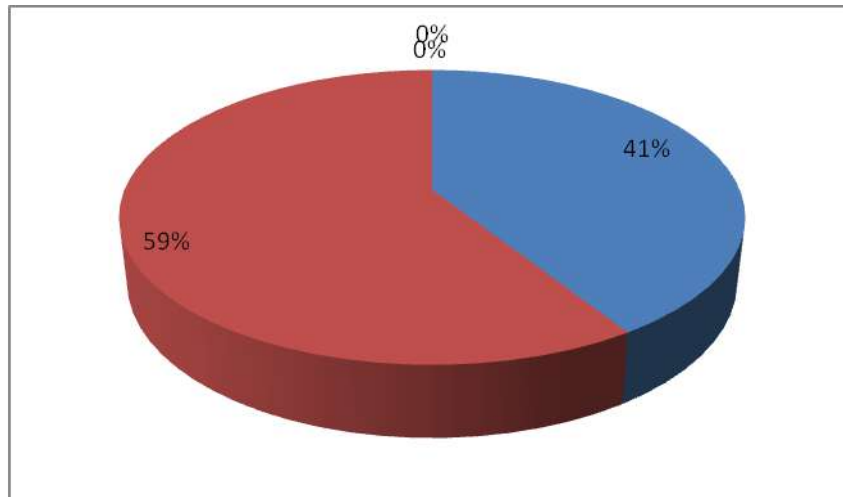


Figure10: request knowledge

From the result on the table above we can sum-up the result that more than the half of the students 22 (59%) didn't heard about request before. So this mean that they didn't have a previous idea about request.

As a summary of the result from the background information, we see that most of the students were girls unlike the boys aged between 16-18 and their choice to study English were personal and no one were imposed to study language stream. Also, the level of more than the half of them were good level. About request, they didn't know how the request statement come, they can't extract a request statement from sentences.

2.2.4.2. Section Two: Discourse Completion Task

This (DSC) section consists of eight (08) items which seeks situations in which we give a several strategies of request as an important factor in this research. And more specifically, the most strategy that is used by the students in producing a correct request statements.

Section two: Discourse Completion Task.

Situation 01:

1- Suppose you like your friends book and you want to borrow this book how would you like to ask for it?

- you ask directly your friend

- try to make a formal request

Option	Number	Percentage
A	18	49%
B	19	51%
Total	37	100%

Table 11: students responses to Situation n 01

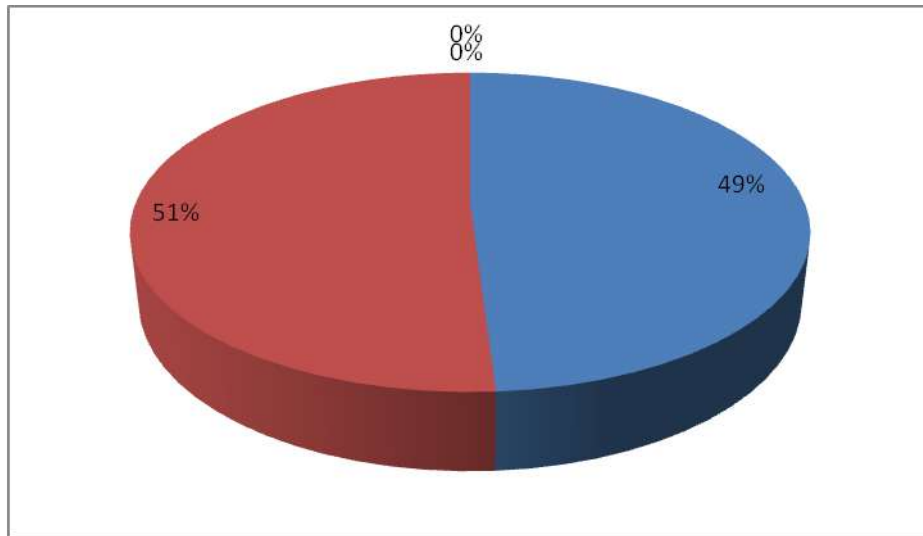


Figure 11: students responses to Situation n 01

In situation n 01 we have two options (A-B); A was the direct strategy and we see here that 18 (49%) choose this strategy while asking for friends book. Whereas B was the indirect strategy; where we see that 19 (51%) choose this strategy. Here, we can see that half of the students choose the indirect strategy in situations where they ask for friends book.

2- you want to buy something and you want to ask your mother how to make this request?

- ask your mother for money by using the word please

- ask directly for money

Option	Number	Percentage
A	30	81%
B	07	19%
Total	37	100%

Table 12: students responses to Situation n 02

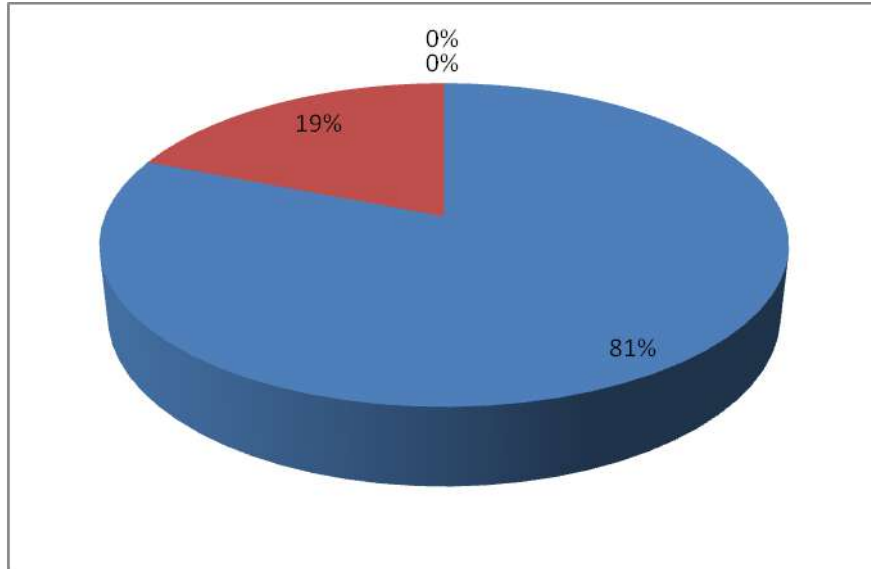


Figure 12 : students responses to Situation n 02

In this situation we can see the difference between the strategies; most of the students 30 (81%) choose the indirect strategy to ask their mothers for money by using the word please?, while just 07(18%) who choose the direct strategy.

3- ask a stranger to close the door how would you like to ask him?

-close the door

-the weather is cold, close the door please

Option	Number	Percentage
A	07	19%
B	30	81%
Total	37	100%

Table 13: students responses to Situation n 03

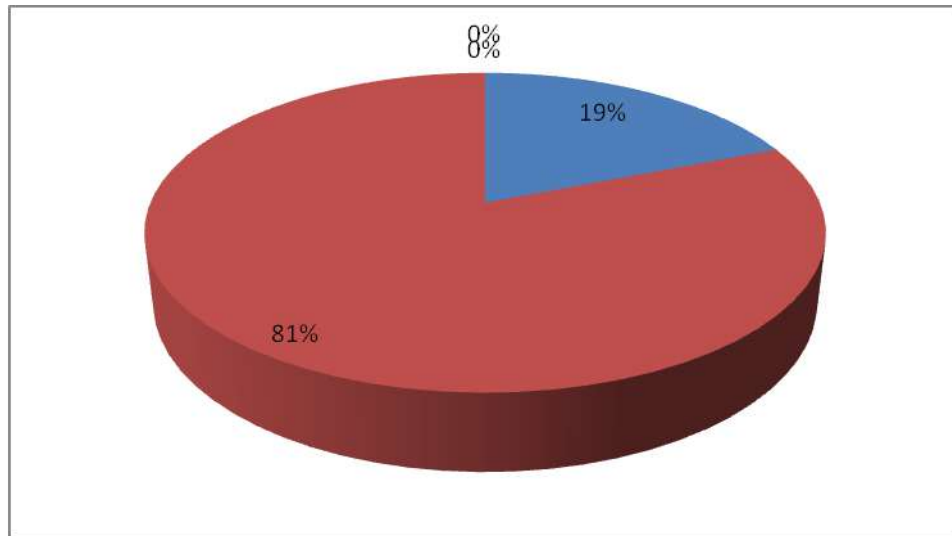


Figure13: students responses to Situation n 03

From the result, we can say that more than the half of the population 30 (81%) choose option B which is the indirect strategy. While just 07 (19%) choose the direct strategy.

4- you are outside (restaurant) and you want to ask for a glass of water how you do it?

-please would you bring me glass of water

-can you bring me a glass of water

Option	Number	Percentage
A	25	68%
B	12	32%
Total	37	100%

Table14: students responses to Situation n 04

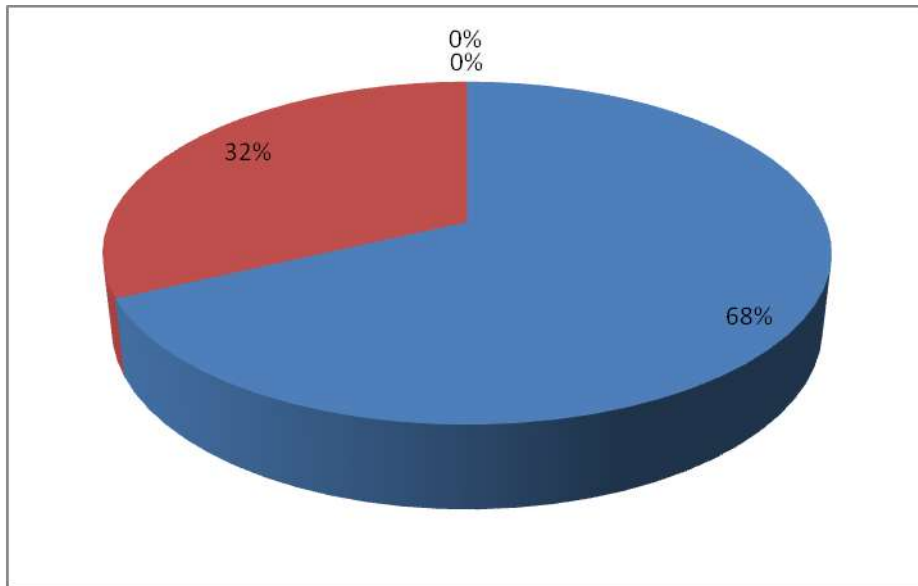


Figure 14: students responses to Situation n 04

In this situation the opposite of the previous one most of the students choose the option A which is indirect strategy 25 (68%) while the rest choose the direct strategy.

5- you are in the administration and you ask for using the inspectors' phone how do you ask for it?

-would you give me your phone to make call , please?

-would you mind if I make a call from your phone sir, please?

Option	Number	Percentage
A	14	38%
B	23	62%
Total	37	100%

Table 15: students responses to Situation n 05

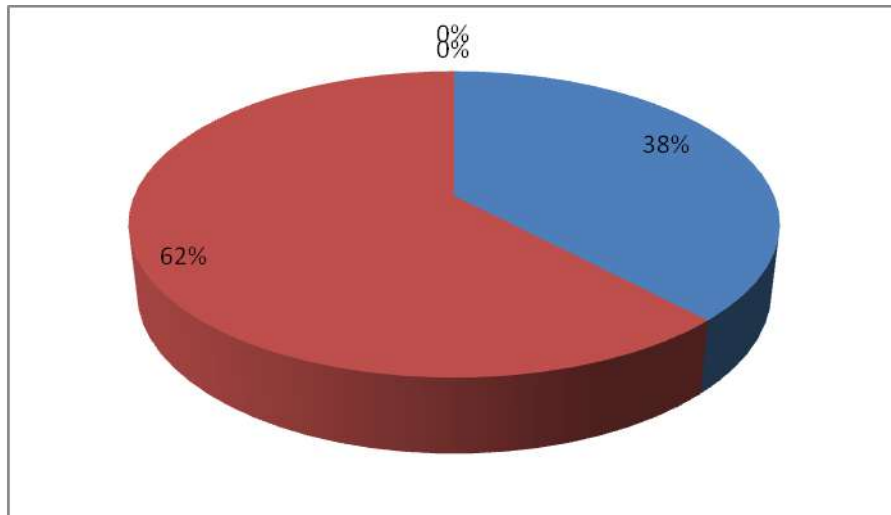


Figure 15 : students responses to Situation n 05

From the table above, the result shows that most of the students' use the indirect strategy by using the word (please?) (62%) for asking person who is older than them.

6- the teacher is explaining the lesson and you didn't understand the idea, how you ask your teacher to repeat the idea?

-I don't get the idea

-could you repeat the idea, sir?

Option	Number	Percentage
A	05	14%
B	32	86%
Total	37	100%

Table 16: students responses to Situation n 06

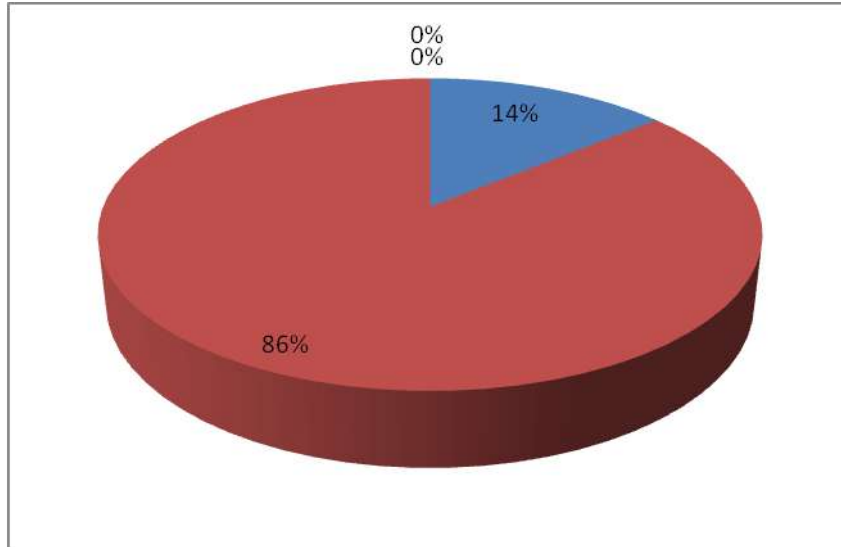


Figure 16: students responses to Situation n 06

It can be seen from the table above that (86%) from the EFL students use the indirect strategy to ask their teacher for repeating something they couldn't understand.

7- you are in the library and you hold many books and you want to ask for help ?

-can you help me please?

-help me

Option	Number	Percentage
A	35	95%
B	02	05%
Total	37	100%

Table 17: students responses to Situation n 07

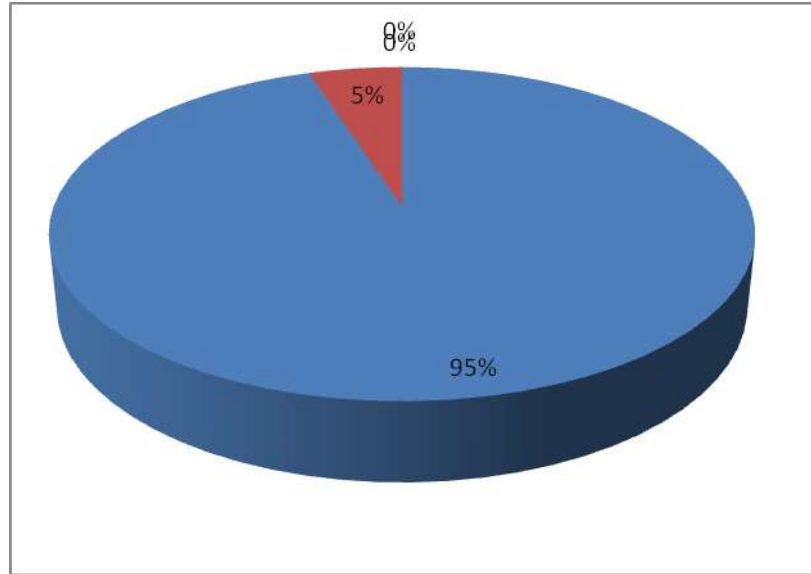


Figure 17: students responses to Situation n 07

The results obtained from the above question show that (60%) of students state that they use polite request by the indirect strategy to ask someone for helping them.

8-the weather is raining and you want to ask to share you friends' umbrella?

-can I share the umbrella with you?

-give me your umbrella? Directly

Option	Number	Percentage
A	32	86%
B	05	14%
Total	37	100%

Table 18: students responses to Situation n 08

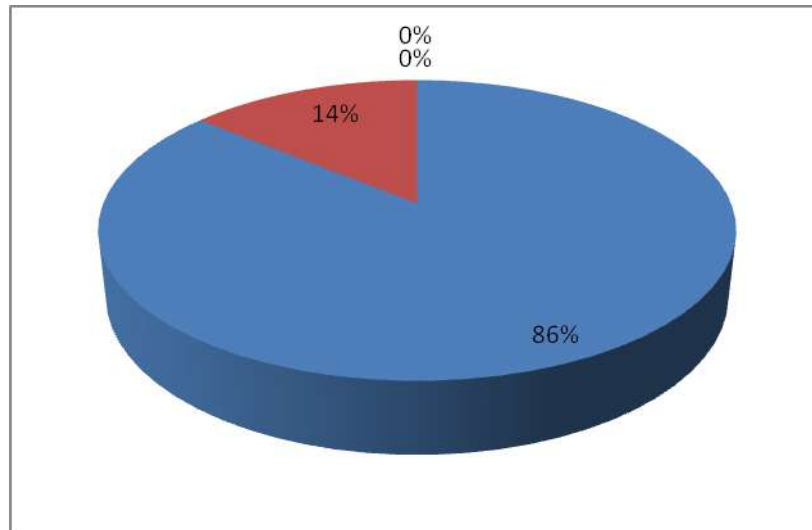


Figure18:students responses to Situation n 08

In the last situation and from the result shown above, when asking someone is closer they use the direct strategy.

As conclusion of the results from the questionnaire, the result of the situations in discourse completion task shows that most useful strategy is the conventionally indirect (hearer-based) which include (permission, ability.....) where the strategies here addressed to the hearer or to persuade the hearer to do the request that he asked for. And we can see that the majority use some special expression to make their request such (please?).

2.4.1. Aim of the test:

The test is made to show that whether EFL learners can differentiate between the formal request and the informal request. It contains ten (10) request statement mixed formal and informal and the learners should select each statement if it is formal or informal.

2.4.2.Design of the test:

The test is made for students' to see if they can make differences between the formal and the informal request, in 10 given sentences mixed between formal and informal request.

Test:

Option	Number	Percentage
Formal	19	51%
Informal	18	49%
Total	37	100%

Table 19: students responses to sentence n 01

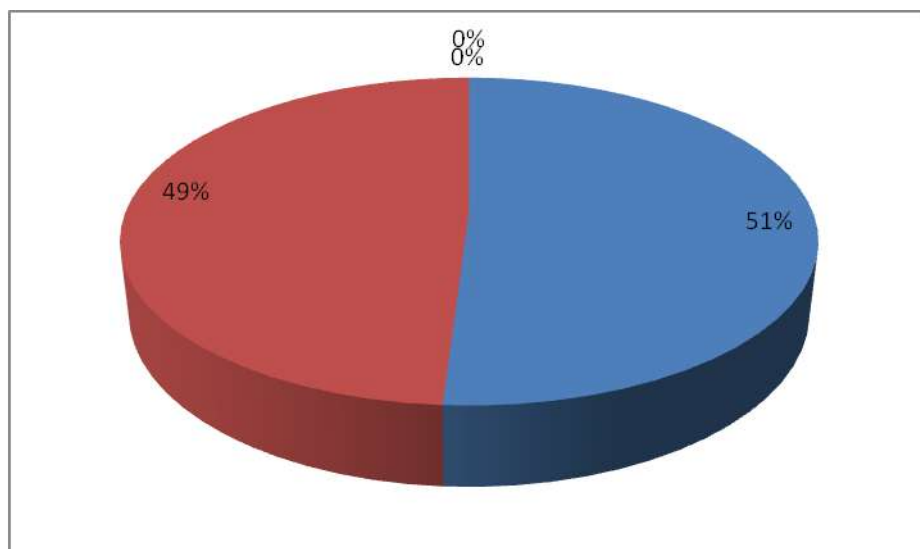


Figure 19: students responses to sentence n 01

As shown at the table above, we can see the difference between the requests; Most of the students 19 (51%) choose a formal request, but the other students 18 (49%) choose an informal request. Can I go to the park? So the correct answer is informal request.

Option	Number	Percentage
Formal	26	70%
Informal	11	30%
Total	37	100%

Table 20: students responses to sentence n 02

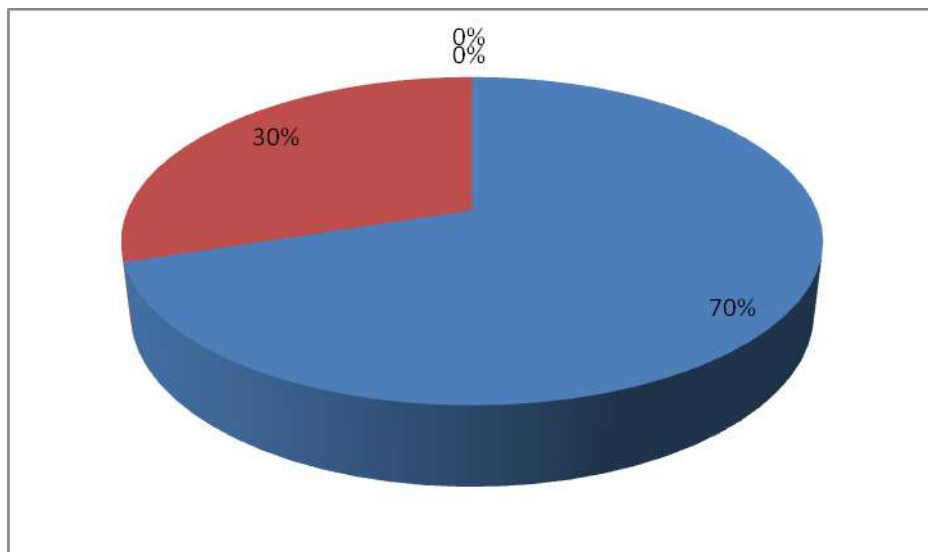


Figure 20 : students responses to sentence n 02

As presented in the table above, we see that the difference between the requests; The majority of the students 26 (70%) select a formal request, however, the other students 11 (30%) select an informal request. Could I leave early today? So the correct answer is formal request.

Option	Number	Percentage
Formal	22	59%
Informal	15	41%
Total	37	100%

Table 21: students responses to sentence n 03

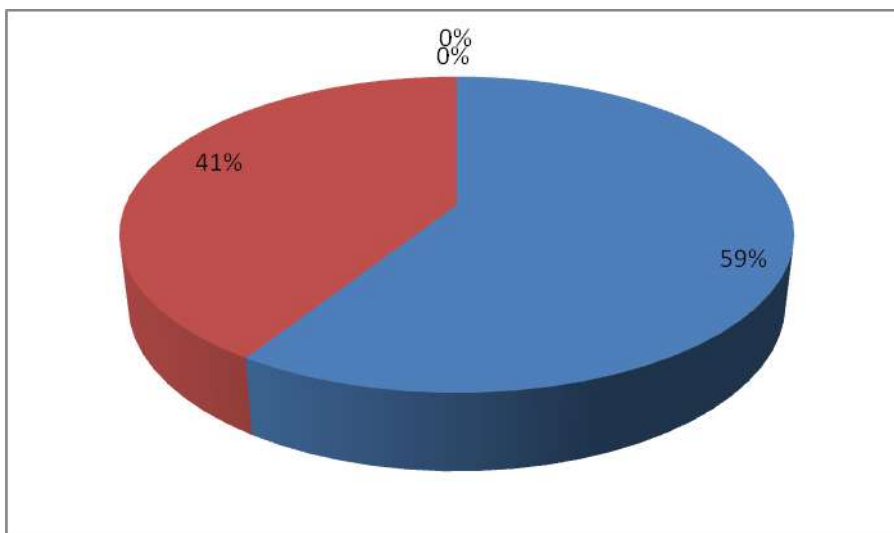


Figure 21: students responses to sentence n 03

As shown in the table above, we note that the difference between the requests; Most of the students 22(59%) choose a formal request, unlike the other students 15 (41%) choose an informal request. May I take this newspaper? So the correct answer is formal request.

Option	Number	Percentage
Formal	19	51%
Informal	18	49%
Total	37	100%

Table 22: students responses to sentence n 04

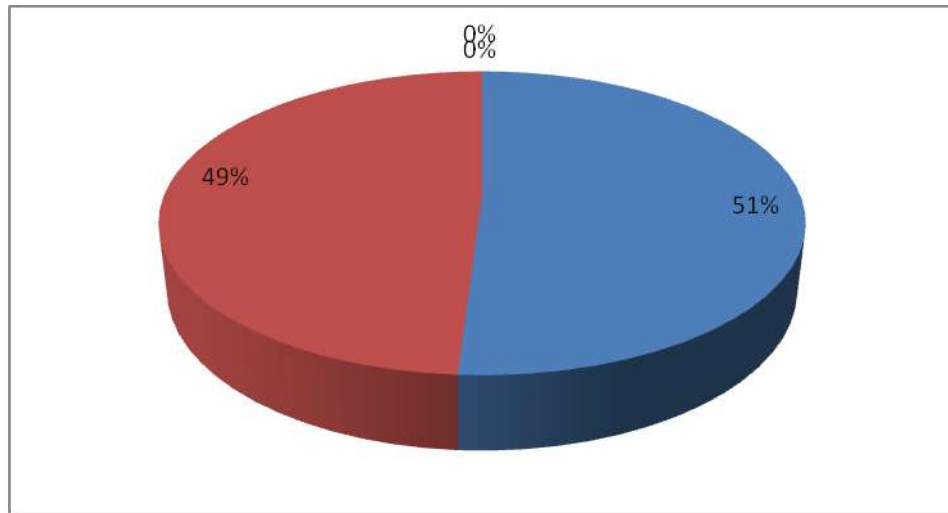


Figure 22: students responses to sentence n 04

As presented in the table above, we see that the difference between the requests; The majority of the students 19 (51%) choose a formal request, but the other students 18 (49%) choose an informal request. Can I sit down? So the correct answer is informal request.

Option	Number	Percentage
Formal	18	49%
Informal	19	51%
Total	37	100%

Table 23: students responses to sentence n 05

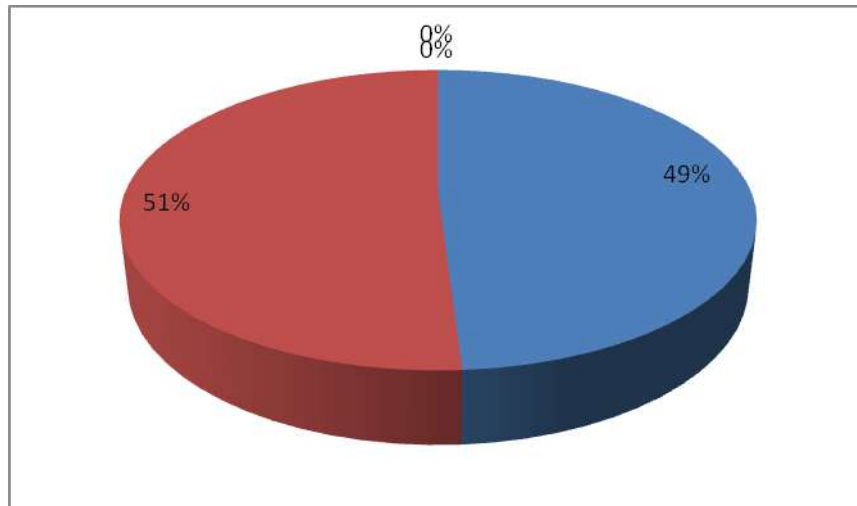


Figure 23: students responses to sentence n 05

As shown at the table above, we see the difference between the requests; The minority of the students 18(49%) select a formal request, however, the other students 19(51%) select an informal request. Can I call you? So the correct answer is informal request.

Option	Number	Percentage
Formal	34	92%
Informal	03	08%
Total	37	100%

Table 24: students responses to sentence n 06

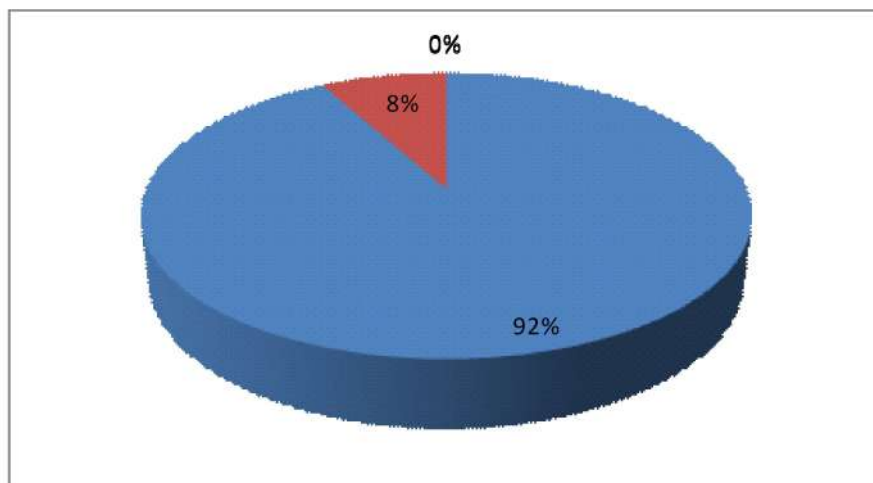


Figure 24: students responses to sentence n 06

As presented in the table above, we see that the difference between the requests; The majority of the students 34(92%) choose a formal request, unlike the other students 03(08%) choose an informal request. Can you check if your door is closed, please? So the correct answer is informal request.

Option	Number	Percentage
Formal	17	46%
Informal	20	54%
Total	37	100%

Table 25: students responses to sentence n 07

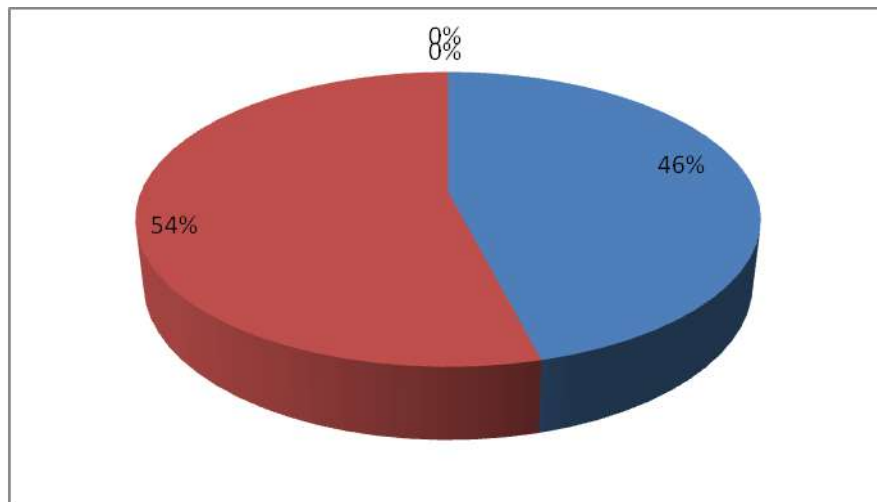


Figure 25: students responses to sentence n 07

As shown at the table above, we note the difference between the requests; The minority of the students 17 (46%) select a formal request, but the other students 20(54%) select informal request May I have a look at your paper? So the correct answer is formal request.

Option	Number	Percentage
Formal	25	68%
Informal	12	32%
Total	37	100%

Table 26: students responses to sentence n 08

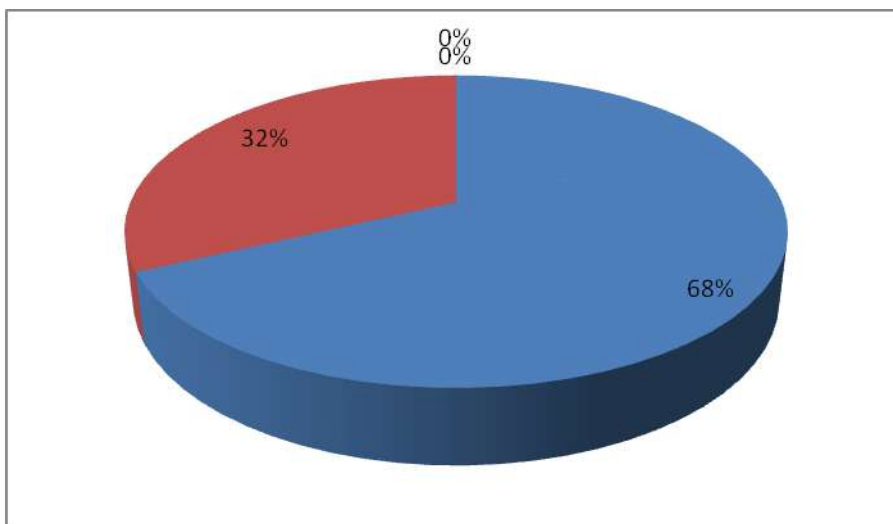


Figure 26: students responses to sentence n 08

As presented in the table above, we note the difference between the requests; Most of the students 25(68%) choose a formal request, however, the other students 12(32%) choose an informal request. Would it be all right if I picked up at 8 PM? So, the correct answer is formal request.

Option	Number	Percentage
Formal	19	51%
Informal	18	49%
Total	37	100%

Table 27: students responses to sentence n 09

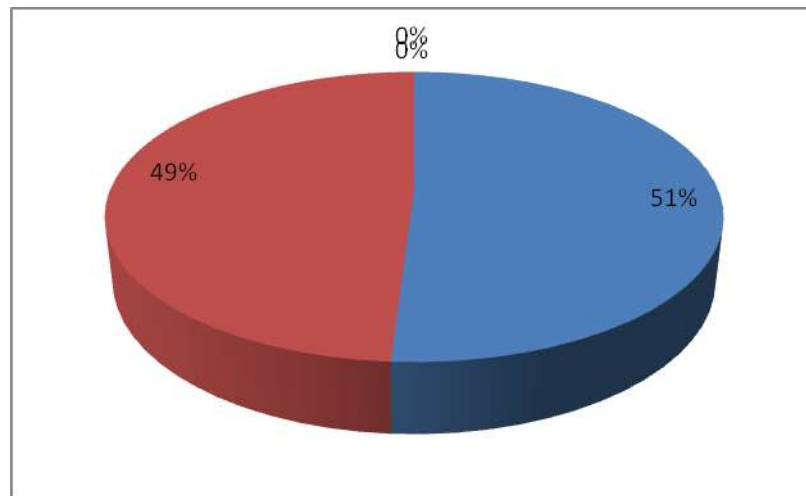


Figure 27: students responses to sentence n 09

As shown at the table above, we see the difference between the requests; The majority of the students 19 (51%) choose a formal request, unlike the other students 18 (49%) choose an informal request. Is there any chance that I could arrange the meeting tomorrow? So the correct answer is formal request.

Option	Number	Percentage
Formal	16	43%
Informal	21	57%
Total	37	100%

Table 28 : students responses to sentence n10

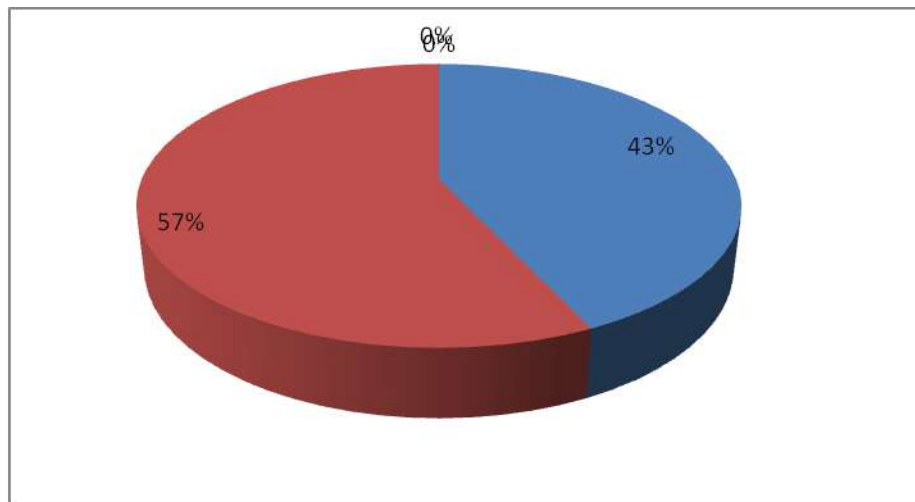


Figure 28: students responses to sentence n 10

As presented in the table above, we note the difference between the requests; The minority of the students 16 (43%) select a formal request, but the other students 21 (57%) select an informal request. Will you send me the files later? So the correct answer is informal request .

2.5. Discussion of the findings :

As result from the tools used in this study to achieve and find out the answer to the questions of the research. In their responses to the situations, students recognized the forms of request to the interlocutors. All the results shown in the tables above in order to test our hypothesis Which is for the strategies used by EFL learners. The results show that most of the students were female 86% while the percentage of the male were just 14% aged between 16-18 (92%). Also, the total number of the students 100% answered that their personal choice was to study the English language, but no one said that it is not their choice it is imposed.

We can notice from the above that the highest percentage of students (54%) claim that their level in English is good. Others (06%) show that they are average in English. Also; we can sum-up the result that more than the half of the students 22 (59%)

didn't heard about request before. In their responses of the situations, all the options were mixed between the strategies the direct and the indirect one. In all the situation the EFL learners choose the indirect strategies when asking their friend, mother, older people and their classmates. We can also notice that EFL learners do not know that this are the indirect strategies from their answers. From this, we can say that EFL learners thought that the request must contain the word (please?), from situation 01 to the last situation 08 the answers were the indirect strategy. When we move to the second tool which was prepared to find out if EFL students know the differences between formal and informal. we can see the difference between the requests; Most of the students in all the sentences choose a formal and informal request in its wrong way. From that we see that students have in mind that all the models (can, may,) express request sentence. EFL learners do not make attention to that request may be direct or the indirect? That what can make them in confusion between the formal and the informal request.



Conclusion

Conclusion:

In the light of what we have discussed in the previous chapters, we will conclude the study by summarizing the key research findings in relation to the research aims, questions and discussing, importantly the main research question.

This research tried to discover the request strategies used by EFL learners in producing a correct request statement, based on the qualitative approach. As we dealt on this research, the main question was to discover the strategies of request used by EFL learners. After, the result obtained from the result of the tools we made to clarify the objectives of the study, we sum up that students of EFL in some situations use different strategies such as hints, direct and unconventionally indirect (speaker based), but the most useful strategy was the indirect strategies (unconventionally indirect hearer based) as classified by Trosbog , which make the hearer or the request attractive to be done and to persuade the requestee to do the request. Also, EFL learners tried to be more giving an appropriate request by the use of the indirect strategies. The result of the second chapter; hence, make the hypothesis as following: the result confirms the first question of the research, that EFL learners can produce a request statement using the indirect strategy. As we saw in the result gathered from the questionnaire. The second hypothesis, also confirmed because we notice that EFL learners do not know how to identify the request strategy they just select a request statement that they feel that is appropriate to the situation. The last question was the opposite, it was not confirmed we found that there is no differences in speech term of

gender by the result because most of the students were females , moreover based on this conclusion.

As result from the questionnaire, in their responses to the background information, students recognized the forms of request to the interlocutors. All the results shown in the tables above in order to test our hypothesis, Which is the strategies used by EFL learners.

The results show that most of the students were female, this may be because of the fact that females are more interested in studying a foreign languages, they are so serious in their learning process and patient. Also, the total number of the students answered that their personal choice was to study the English language, because they like it, but no one said that it is not their choice it is imposed, thus, to the English language now is the international language and people think to visit other places.

We can notice from the above that the highest number of students claim that their level in English is good; since what we had mention that most of the population were females, we said that they are so serious in learning language that what made their level in English good. Also; we can sum-up the result that more than the half of the students didn't heard about request before or they know it but they cannot express such act. So this mean that they didn't have a previous idea about request. In their responses of the situations, all the options were mixed between the strategies the direct and the indirect one. In all the situation the EFL learners choose the indirect strategies when asking their friend, mother, older people and their classmates. We can also notice that EFL learners do not know that this are the indirect strategies from their answers. From this, we can say that EFL learn-

ers thought that the request must contain the word (please?), they cannot differentiate between simple sentence and a request without (please?). From situation 01 to the last situation 08 the answers were the indirect strategy. When we move to the second tool which was prepared to find out if EFL students know the differences between formal and informal, we can see the difference between the requests; Most of the students in all the sentences choose a formal and informal request in its wrong way. From that we see that students have in mind that all the models (can, may,) express request sentence. EFL learners do not make attention to that request may be direct or the indirect? That what can make them in confusion between the formal and the informal request.

From this, we see that EFL learners have to be carefully attracted to a certain language, when they want to learn a language they must learn all what is related to that language. When it comes to learning such acts as request; it must be more appropriate in the language. Also, EFL learners must choose and differentiate between the types of speech acts. Thus, they can make and produce a correct request sentence and do not fail in forming such acts. In the light of this, this research can be still open for researchers and learners to come up with new research questions, and following either the same research methods or adopt different ones.



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Appendices

Appendix 01: questionnaire

Dear students :

I would like to appreciate if you can help in filling this survey in order to complete a master dissertation about teaching request speech act. Your contribution is very important for our study thank you.

❖ *General Information*

1. Gender

Male Female

Students' age.....

2. Your choice of study languages stream was:

Personal Imposed

3. How would you assess your present level at English?

- Average

- Good

- Excellent

- I don't know

4. do you speak English?

-Yes, fluently

-Yes

-No, a little

-No

5. Which skill do you focus on learning English?

-Speaking

-Listening

-Reading

-Writing

6. did you heard about request?

Yes no

❖ *Discourse Completion Task*

Instruction: In the following situations, please select the answer you think the most appropriate:

Situation 01:

1- Suppose you like your friends book and you want to borrow this book how would you like to ask for it?

- You ask directly your friend

- Try to make a formal request

2- You want to buy something and you want to ask your mother how to make this request?

- Ask your mother for money by using the word please

- Ask directly for money

3- Ask a stranger to close the door how would you like to ask him?

-Close the door

-The weather is cold, close the door please

4- You are outside (restaurant) and you want to ask for a glass of water how you do it?

-Please would you bring me glass of water

-Can you bring me a glass of water

5- You are in the administration and you ask for using the inspectors' phone how do you ask for it?

-Would you give me your phone to make call , please?

-Would you mind if I make a call from your phone sir, please?

6- The teacher is explaining the lesson and you didn't understand the idea, how you ask your teacher to repeat the idea?

-I don't get the idea

-Could you repeat the idea, sir?

7- You are in the library and you hold many books and you want to ask for help ?

-Can you help me please?

-Help me

8-The weather is raining and you want to ask to share you friends' umbrella?

-Can I share the umbrella with you?

-Give me your umbrella? Directly

Appendix 02: test

TEST

Question : Choose the correct one if it's formal or informal request

- 1- *Can I go to the park?*
- 2- *Could I leave early today?*
- 3- *May I take this newspaper?*
- 4- *Can I sit down?*
- 5- *Can I call you?*
- 6- *Can you check if your door is closed, please?*
- 7- *May I have a look at your paper?*
- 8- *Would it be all right if I picked you up at 8 PM?*
- 9- *Is there any chance that I could arrange the meeting tomorrow?*
- 10- *Will you send me the files later?*