#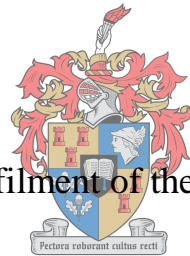 Speech act realisation strategies and possible effects of transference by speakers of Khoekhoegowab into English when acquired as a second language

Yolanda Hermien |Uises

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Supervisor: Dr Menán du Plessis

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DECLARATION

By submitting this thesis electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third party rights and that I have not previously, in its entirety or in part, submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

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ABSTRACT

This study focused on requestive behaviour of speakers of Khoekhoegowab (KKG) in their mother tongue and in English as a second language (ESL), to uncover strategies mother tongue speakers of KKG employ in performance of requests in both KKG and English. A cross-sectional survey design, utilizing quantitative research methods for data collection and analysis was used. Two questionnaires (one in KKG and one in English) were used in the form of Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs) to collect data from participants. A total of 170 (85 in Khoekhoegowab and English respectively) requests by mother tongue speakers of Khoekhoegowab were obtained from 17 participants. The Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) coding scheme was used to analyse data. Although the study mainly focused on directness levels, request perspective, internal and external modification devices and alerters were examined in relation to frequency of strategy use.

Data analysis showed that speakers of KKG as mother tongue used a wide variety of strategies for request performance, with the most preferred strategy being the *mood derivable* followed by the *query preparatory* and *explicit performative*. Moreover, direct strategies were the most preferred across multiple situations characterised by both equal and unequal status relationships regardless of degree of familiarity. The interrogative and the marker *toxoba* "please" were preferred for internal modification, while *grounders* were most preferred for external modification. In relation to alerters, endearment terms were the most preferred.

For ESL requests, the *query preparatory* was preferred, while the *hedged performative* and the *mood derivable* were least preferred. The *query preparatory* was also a preferred strategy for requests in standard British English (BE) (Memarian, 2012; Mahani, 2012). Thus, there was no evidence of transference of rules from KKG to ESL. In addition, direct strategies were used almost as frequently as conventionally indirect strategies in ESL, but less frequently in BE compared to conventionally indirect strategies (Konakahara, 2011). Thus, there is insufficient evidence of transfer of rules from KKG to ESL. The researcher was unable to determine the influence of KKG rules of request performance in ESL requests due to lack of consensus between Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) and Ogiermann (2009) regarding the preferred

perspective by speakers of BE, including limited research in relation to request perspective in general and in BE in particular.

The *interrogative* and the marker *please* were preferred internal modification devices in ESL requests. However, these modification devices were least preferred in BE (Konakahara, 2011). Although there were similarities in choice of external modification devices in English (ESL and BE) and KKG, there was lack of evidence to attribute the similarities to the effect of transference from KKG to ESL. Moreover, lack of sufficient information regarding alerters prevented judgements about possible effects of KKG on ESL request performance, although attention getters were preferred in ESL and BE requests.

OPSOMMING

Die studie het op die taalgedrag van moedertaalsprekers van Khoekhoegowab (KKG) gefokus, om vas te stel watter strategieë die sprekers gebruik om versoeke te rig in sowel Khoekhoegowab as Engels. Die studie het 'n kruis-seksionele opname-ontwerp gevolg, en het gebruik gemaak van kwantitatiewe navorsingsmetodes vir data-insameling en -analise. Twee vraelyste (een in KKG en een in Engels) in die vorm van Diskoers Voltooiingstake is gebruik om die data te versamel. 'n Monster van 170 versoeke (85 in Khoekhoegowab en 85 in Engels) deur 17 moedertaalsprekers van KKG is versamel. Die *Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project* (CCSARP) koderingstelsel is gebruik om die data te analiseer. Hoewel die studie primêr op vlakke van direktheid gefokus het, is daar ook aandag gegee aan die verband tussen frekwensie van strategie-gebruik en versoek-perspektief, meganismes van interne en eksterne modifisering, en aanwysers ("alerters").

Die data-analise het getoon dat moedertaalsprekers van KKG 'n verskeidenheid strategieë gebruik wanneer hulle versoeke rig, met *modus-afleibaar* ("mood derivable") die voorkeur-strategie, gevolg deur die *vraag-gereedmaak* ("query preparatory") en *eksplisiete performatief*. Verder het direkte strategieë die grootste voorkeur geniet oor veelvoudige situasies, gekenmerk deur sowel gelyke as ongelyke statusverhoudings, ongeag die mate van familiariteit. Die *vraagvorm* en die merker *toxoba* "please" is verkies vir interne modifisering, terwyl *begronders* ("grounders") die grootste voorkeur geniet het vir eksterne modifisering. Wat *aanwysers* betref, is voorkeur gegee aan *streelterme* ("endearment terms").

Vir die rig van versoeke in Engels (as 'n tweede taal, ESL), het die KKG-sprekers die *vraag-gereedmaker* strategie verkies, met die minste voorkeur vir die *ontwykingsperformatief* ("hedged performative") en die *modus-afleibaar* . In vorige studies is gevind dat die *vraag-gereedmaak* ook die voorkeurstrategie in standaard Britse Engels (BE) is (Memarian, 2012; Mahani, 2012). Voorts word direkte strategieë bykans net so dikwels as konvensionele indirekte strategieë in ESL gebruik, terwyl dit in BE minder dikwels aangewend word as indirekte strategieë (Konakahara, 2011). Die huidige studie het dus nie genoegsame bewyse gevind dat sprekers van

KKG wel taalgebruiksreëls vanaf hulle moedertaal na Engels oordra by die rig van versoeke nie. Daar kon ook nie vasgestel word of die taalgebruiksreëls wat geld in KKG 'n invloed het op sprekers se taalgedrag wanneer hulle versoeke in Engels rig nie. Dit kan toegeskryf word aan twee redes: enersyds die gebrek aan konsensus tussen Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) en Ogiermann (2009) wat betref die voorkeurperspektief van BE-sprekers, en andersyds die beperkte navorsing wat tot dusver gedoen is oor versoek-perspektief in die algemeen en in BE in die besonder.

Soos in hulle moedertaal, het KKG-sprekers in die geval van interne modifisering voorkeur gegee aan die *vraagvorm* en die merker *please* wanneer hulle versoeke in Engels gerig het. Dit is in teenstelling met BE waar hierdie modifiseringsmeganismes skynbaar die minste voorkeur geniet (Konakahara, 2011). Hoewel daar ooreenkomste gevind is in die keuse van eksterne modifiseringsmeganismes in Engels (ESL sowel as BE) en KKG, het die huidige studie nie genoegsame bewyse gevind dat sulke ooreenkomste toegeskryf kan word aan oordrag vanaf KKG na Engels nie. 'n Gebrek aan voldoende inligting oor *aanwysers* het verder ook meegebring dat daar nie 'n gevolgtrekking gemaak kon word oor die moontlike invloed van KKG op die rig van versoeke in Engels nie. Daar is egter wel gevind dat *aandagtrekkers* ("attention getters") voorkeur geniet in Engelse versoeke (ESL en BE), in teenstelling met KKG se voorkeur vir *streelterme*.

DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

The following are some of the key terms used in this thesis and their operational definitions:

Speech acts

Speech acts are utterances (phonetically, a unit of speech bounded by silence) that serve a function in communication, and they can take the form of one word used to perform a refusal as in *No!* or several words as in *No, I will not come to your dinner tonight* (Austin, 1962). **Speech acts** express an intention; thus, when someone speaks, an act is performed and understanding the intention of the speaker is essential for capturing meaning and for perceiving the utterance as a speech act (Searle, 1979).

Requests

Requests are efforts made by the speaker to get the hearer to either perform an action or to stop performing an action (Ellis, 2008). This action is exclusively beneficial to the speaker (Byon and Trosberg cited in Bella, 2012). **Requests** are face-threatening acts (Brown and Levinson, 1978) and they impinge on the hearer's claim to freedom of action and freedom of imposition (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984).

Request strategies

Request strategies are patterns used by speakers when performing speech acts (Cohen and Ishihara, 2005). Strategies include head acts and modification devices (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984).

Pragmatic transfer

Pragmatic transfer refers to "the use of rules of speaking from one's speech act community when interacting or when speaking in a second or a foreign language …." (Ahmed, 2011: 167). Weinreich (1953 cited in Ahmed, 2011) defines **pragmatic transfer** as occurrences in which bilinguals deviate from the norms of the first or second language because of language contact.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS USED

APPLIC	Applicative verb extension
AUX	Auxiliary
BE	British English
CCSARP	Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project
COM.	Common gender
CONJ	Conjunction
DCT	Discourse completion task
DECL	Declarative sentence marker
DIM	Diminutive
ESL	English as a second language
FEM	Feminine gender
KKG	Khoekhoegowab
L1	First language
L2	Second language
MoE	Ministry of Education
PASS	Passive verb extension
PL	Plural
Polite.PTCL	Politeness Particle
POSS	Possessive
POT	Potential mood
PROG	Progressive
SG	Singular
TAM	Marker of Tense, Aspect or Mood

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Focus of the study

This study focuses on requestive behaviour of speakers of Khoekhoegowab (KKG, a Khoesan language of the Khoe family) in their mother tongue as well as in English, which is taught as a second language (ESL) across schools in Namibia. (Khoekhoekgowab, or Namibian Khoekhoe, is made up of a group of closely related varieties spoken in the north and south of Namibia, and is officially recognised as one of the country's national languages. It is estimated to have about 200,000 mother tongue speakers.) The study attempts to uncover strategies mother tongue speakers of KKG employ in performance of requests in both KKG and English when acquired as a second language. In addition, the study endeavours to discover whether these speakers transfer speech act realisation strategies they use in KKG to ESL.

There is a need to account for rules that direct language use (Levinson, 1983) due to differences in the realization strategies of speech acts. According to Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984), these differences stem from intercultural situation variability, cross-cultural variability and individual variability. As a result of these differences, effective communication between speakers might be compromised as a tendency of transferring rules of language use in the mother tongue to the target language exists.

The language policy of Namibia prescribes that learners be taught in their mother tongue from Grades 1 -3 and transition to English medium of instruction from Grade 4. Mother tongue will be a taught subject from Grade 4 onward but can still play a supportive role in Grades 5 and 7. However, from Grade 8, mother tongue will only be taught as a school subject. Thus, Namibia lends itself to a two-language policy, with the exception of expatriates, who are allowed to study one language only.

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In other words, the policy requires that all learners study two languages throughout their school career, one of which must be English. A mother tongue can be studied at schools that have a sufficient number of learners to form a class. KKG is amongst the language options that can be studied at Namibian schools. This study aims to uncover requestive behaviour of speakers of Khoekhoegowab from a pragmalinguistic perspective (their knowledge of pragmatic conventions necessary for successful performance of language functions, including their knowledge of various strategies involved in making requests) and a sociolinguistic perspective (their knowledge and assessment of social power, social distance and degree of imposition when performing requestive speech acts).

Speech acts refer to patterned, routinized phrases, which are regularly used to perform various functions including requests, refusals, compliments, thanks or apologies (Cohen and Ishihara, 2005). Strategies used to perform requests may be direct or indirect and learners of any given language should know the different strategies of what, when and how to use speech acts (Cohen and Ishihara, 2005).

This is particularly important because a strategy which is acceptable in one culture might not be acceptable in another culture. For example, tolerance for the degree of directness in realization of speech acts may be acceptable in one culture, while it may be offensive in another (Blum-Kulka, 1980). In addition, transference of rules from one culture to another may result in embarrassment, confusion and misunderstanding. Thus, grammatical knowledge is insufficient for effectively realising speech acts in a target language (Blum-Kulka, 1980). There are, however, no known studies of speech act realization strategies in the various cultures found in Namibia.

The present study quantitatively investigated strategies for realization of requests used by learners in the KKG class. In addition, the study sought to investigate which strategies these learners use to realize requests in ESL. This was done in an attempt to uncover how the strategies for realising requests in KKG compared with those used for realising this speech act in English when acquired as a second language. In order to assess whether transference of rules from KKG to English may have occurred, strategies employed by native speakers of

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standard British English (BE) as discussed in the literature were identified and compared with strategies used in ESL by mother tongue speakers of KKG. The target population for the study constituted Grade 8 learners at five public schools offering KKG and ESL as subjects in Swakopmund and Arandis. The sample of the study constituted 17 learners from two of the five schools in these towns, whose parents provided consent for their participation in the study.

1.2 Statement of problem

Performance of speech acts in the native language has the potential to influence performance of speech acts in a target language being acquired by a L2 learner. Sithebe (2011:3) argues that this may lead to problems of miscommunication and misconception, as rules of language use in the native language may not be applicable in the target language. Limited research has been conducted in African language linguistics to investigate performance and realisation of speech acts by native speakers (Kasanga and Lwanga-Lumu 2007 cited in Sithebe, 2011:1). This is particularly true in the case of KKG, for which there are no known studies regarding the rules governing the performance and realisation of speech acts. In addition, no studies have been made of the possible effects of transference in the context of second language (L2) acquisition by speakers of Khoekhoegowab.

This research aimed to address these issues by investigating, firstly, patterns of speech act realisation in Khoekhoegowab by first language (L1) speakers of the language, and secondly, patterns of speech act realisation on the part of the same speakers when using English as L2, with the intention of discovering whether learners of ESL transfer patterns from the native language in the performance of speech acts in the target language.

1.3 Research questions

As mentioned earlier, the study focused on requestive behaviour of speakers of KKG in their mother tongue and in English taught as a second language (ESL) across schools in Namibia. The aim was to determine strategy types used by KKG speakers for request performance in their mother tongue and the effects of the speech act realisation patterns of requests in KKG on the

performance of these speech acts in ESL. To achieve these aims, this research sought to answer the following questions.

1.3.1. What are the speech act realisation strategies for request performance in Khoekhoegowab?

1.3.2   What are the possible effects of the speech act realisation strategies used for requests in Khoekhoegowab on the performance of these speech acts in ESL?

1.4 Data collection instruments

Two questionnaires (one in Khoekhoegowab and one in English) in the form of discourse completion tasks (DCTs) were used as data collection instruments for this study. The DCTs consisted of two parts - the first part, which solicited information on the age, gender and language background of the participants; and the second part, which constituted a number of situations described in writing. Provision was made for spaces where research participants could fill in what they would say in each of the described situations. In addition, the situations were imbedded with social distance and status/power of interlocutors to make cross-cultural comparison possible. It should be noted that DCTs are associated with numerous weaknesses. These weaknesses are outlined in Chapter 2, along with the strengths which made the DCT a choice instrument for this study.

1.5 Participants

The participants in this study were 17 Grade 8 learners drawn from two schools in the Erongo region. These participants were mother tongue speakers of Khoekhoegowab, who were learning English as a second language at school level.

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1.5 Thesis layout

Chapter 2 provides an overview of Speech Act theory and its development. Some topics discussed include the taxonomy of illocutionary acts and the reclassification of the illocutionary forces. The second section of Chapter 2 focuses on pragmatic transfer, with particular reference to the origin, notion and identification of pragmatic transfer. In addition, patterns of speech act realization and methods researchers have employed in assessing speech act realization patterns are focused on in the final two sections of the chapter.

In Chapter 3, an account of the theoretical framework and research design for the study is provided. The discussion commences with a description of the Cross Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) as the theoretical framework of the study. The discussion on the research design is preceded by an explanation of the context of the study. Finally, data collection and analysis procedures and ethical considerations are provided.

Chapter 4 presents and analyses the data collected through participants' responses to the DCTs in KKG and L2 English. Head act strategies, including alerters, request perspective and modification devices used by speakers of KKG in both their mother tongue and L2 English are discussed. To investigate the possibility of pragmatic transfer, baseline results as explicated in the works of Memarian (2012), Mahani (2012), Konakahara (2011) and Ogiermann (2009) are used for comparison of strategies used by KKG speakers for request performance in ESL and those used by native speakers of BE.

Chapter 5 presents a summary of the research findings, limitations of the research and makes recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the literature review underpinning the study. The purpose of the study was to uncover strategies speakers of Khoekhoegowab (KKG) employ to realise speech acts and whether these speakers transfer speech act realisation strategies they use in KKG to English, which is taught as a second language (ESL) across schools in Namibia. Numerous studies have investigated strategies used in the realization of speech acts (Blum-Kulka, 1980; Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984; Jalilifer, 2009; Taber, 2012; Madjiedt and Janjuar, 2014). There are, however, no known studies of speech act realization strategies in Namibia, particularly with reference to KKG. In addition, according to the researcher's knowledge, there are no known studies of possible effects of transference by speakers of KKG into English when acquired as a second language. In addition to reviewing Speech Act theory, this chapter also examines what pragmatic transfer entails, including patterns of speech act realization and methods researchers have employed in assessing speech act realization patterns.

2.2 Speech Act Theory

Speech Act theory starts with the assumption that the minimal unit of human communication is not a sentence or expression, but rather the performance of certain kinds of language acts such as requests and promises (Bannon, Robinson and Schmidt, 1991). The theory originated with J.L. Austin and his William James Lectures delivered at Harvard in 1955 (Austin, 1962; Masouleh, Arjmandi and Vahdany, 2014; Oishi, 2006; Björgvinsson, 2011). These lectures were published posthumously in a book titled *How to do things with words,* which examined how "acts of speech can constitute a change in the world in virtue of having been uttered" (Björgvinsson, 2011: 1). According to Austin (1962), when people use language, they perform certain actions as

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opposed to simply producing isolated sequences of sentences. Thus, according to Austin (1962), a speech act is an utterance (phonetically, a unit of speech bounded by silence) that serves a function in communication. It can be one word used to perform a refusal as in *No!* or several words as in *No, I will not come to your dinner tonight.*

The theory distinguishes between two types of speech acts: the constatives and the performatives. Constatives are statements which are used to describe an incident or a situation and could be considered as true or false (Bayat, 2012), while performatives are used to perform tasks such as apologising, thanking, requesting or refusing. According to Austin (1962), when someone utters *I do* during a wedding ceremony, he or she is not reporting but engaging in marriage; or when a person utters *I give and bequeath my watch to my brother* in a will, he or she performs an action rather than reporting the action. Yu (2002) concurs that when a man utters *I do* in a wedding ceremony, it means he is performing the act of taking the woman as his wife and not simply expressing a state of mind (Yu, 2002). Similarly, when a witness testifies in court that he saw the defendant stab his wife, the witness is performing the act of condemning the defendant (Yu, 2002).

Performatives include jokes, exclamations, descriptions as well as indicators of sociality (Björgvinsson, 2011), which cannot be categorised as true or false or as statements (Björgvinsson, 2011; Bayat, 2012). Performatives, therefore, are considered as speech acts, because by definition, speech acts are patterned, routinized phrases, which are regularly used to perform various functions including requests, refusals, compliments, thanks or apologies (Cohen and Ishihara, 2005).

Effective performance of speech acts requires adherence to specific conditions. Austin (1962: 8-9) explains the circumstances for these conditions as follows:

> Speaking generally, it is always necessary that the *circumstances* in which the words are uttered should be in some way, or ways, *appropriate*, and it is very commonly necessary that either the speaker himself or other persons should *also* perform certain *other* actions, whether 'physical' or 'mental' actions or even acts of uttering further words. Thus, for naming the ship, it is essential that I should be the person appointed to name her, for

(Christian) marrying, it is essential that I should not be already married with a wife living, sane and undivorced, and so   on: for a bet to have been made, it is generally necessary for the offer of the bet to   have been accepted by a taker (who must have done something, such as to say *Done*), and it is hardly a gift if I say *I give it you* but never hand it over.

These circumstances are transformed into a set of conditions, which would result in the accomplishment of ritualistic or archetypal performatives, such as wedding ceremonies or naming a ship (Al-Hindawi, Al-Masu'di and Mirza, 2014). Austin (1962: 14 − 16) lists the following set of conditions, which must be met.

- (A1) the existence of accepted conventional procedures that must be followed, which must result in certain conventional effects. During this procedure, certain words must be uttered by certain people under certain circumstances.
- Secondly, (A2) these persons as well as the circumstances for a particular instance should be appropriate for the invocation of the procedure, which is to be invoked.
- This procedure must be executed correctly (B1) and completely (B2) by both parties.
- Often this (T1) procedure is designed for use by persons who have certain thoughts or feelings, or for the inauguration of certain consequential conduct on the part of any participant, then a person participating in and so invoking the procedure must in fact have those thoughts or feelings, and the participants must intend so to conduct themselves, and
- (T2) must actually so conduct themselves subsequently.

However, Austin later abandoned the idea of the constative and performative distinction as the meaning of constatives and performatives was found to be dependent on the context in which they are used (Al-Hindawy, 1999), and he proposed other acts of issuing an utterance: locutionary, illocutionary and the perlocutionary (Al-Hindawi et al., 2014).

2.2.1 Locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts

In producing an utterance, speakers perform locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts. Ahmed (2008:251-252) provides the following example of the three levels at which a speech act can be performed.

Table 2.1 Levels of speech act performance

(Utterance made by bartender) The bar will be closed in five minutes		
Locutionary	**Illocutionary**	**Perlocutionary**
(act of saying something)	(what one does in saying it)	(what one does by saying it)
Communicating that the bar he is tending will close in five minutes after his utterance	Informing patrons of the imminent closing of the bar and by so doing urging them to order their last drink	Causing the patrons to believe that the the bar is about to close and of getting them to order a drink

According to Oishi (2006), locutionary acts include phonetic acts (acts of pronouncing sounds), phatic acts (acts of uttering words or sentences according to phonological and syntactic rules of the language to which they belong) and rhetic acts (acts of uttering a sentence with a sense and with some kind of definite reference). Thus, locutionary acts contain the literal meaning of the words uttered and refer to acts which are performed for the purposes of communication (Sadock cited in Björgvinsson, 2011). On the other hand, illocutionary acts involve doing something by saying something (Bayat, 2012). Al-Hindawy (1999) makes a clear distinction between locutionary acts and illocutionary acts through differentiating between "He said to me *Shoot her*" and *"He ordered me to shoot her"* as a witness describing an incident observed. The first instance implies the literal shooting of the woman (locutionary act); whereas the second instance implies that the speaker performed an action by ordering the shooting of the woman (illocutionary act). Perlocutionary acts refer to acts, such as jokes, warnings or sarcasm, which

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are supposed to elicit a response from the hearer (Björgvinsson, 2011). In other words, perlocutionary acts express the effect the utterance has on the hearer (Ahmed, 2008; Bayat, 2012).

The distinction between the locutionary act, the illocutionary act and the perlocutionary act was particularly important for Austin. When a speaker makes an utterance, the speaker performs an illocutionary act, which has a certain force, a locutionary act, which has meaning and a perlocutionary act, which achieves a certain effect (Oishi, 2006). These distinctions are Austin's attempts to show that unlike a locutionary act, the illocutionary act has force; and unlike the perlocutionary act, the illocutionary act is valid and complete without being reduced to any possible effect it might have on the hearer. This distinction, which is achieved through illustration of a simple meaningful utterance and a successfully performed complete illocutionary act, reduces the locutionary-illocutionary distinction to attempting and succeeding in performing an illocutionary act (Searle, 1969). Despite Searle's (1969) objection to Austin's distinctions of the levels of speech acts, such a distinction between locutionary acts, illocutionary acts and perlocutionary acts is necessary. This is because utterances do more than simply communicating something, and because utterances have two levels of success (Ahmed, 2011). For example, a request is only successful if the hearer recognises the speaker's desire to get them to do something, but as a perlocutionary act it is only successful if the hearer actually does what the speaker has requested. However, a speaker can perform a speech act of requesting without accomplishment of compliance.

2.2.1.1 Taxonomy of illocutionary acts

Austin identified fives modes of expressing illocutionary acts (Björgvinsson, 2011). The classification of these acts was dependant on what the utterance was meant to achieve. Oishi (2006: 4) and Björgvinsson (2011: 13) exemplify the classification of these performatives as shown in the table below.

Table 2.2: Austin's classification of illocutionary acts

Classification of performatives	What it is supposed to do	Example(s)
Verdictives	exercise judgement	A boxing referee pronouncing the fight to be over
Exercitives	exert influence/exercise power	Ordering or appointing
Commissives	assume obligation/declare intention	Promises or other declarations of intent
Behabitives	Adopt attitude/express feeling	Congratulating, apologising, insulting or greetings
Expositives	Clarify reasons, argument or communication	Performatives with an explicit performative verb

Austin's classification of illocutionary acts is not without drawbacks. According to Björgvinsson (2011), concepts overlap and classes intermingle. For example, there is a question as to whether an expositive with a commissive, such as "I vow that …" should be named expositive commissive or simply a commissive; or a question of whether a war declaration if uttered as "I hereby declare war on …" should be regarded as expositive, commissive or both. Oishi (2006) concurs that Austin's categories of performatives are not mutually exclusive. The limitations inherent in Austin's speech act theory have led to one of his students, John Searle, adapting and further developing the theory.

2.2.2 Searle's speech act theory

There are two reasons why Searle felt the need to adapt and further develop Austin's speech act theory (Al-Hindawi et al., 2014). One of the reasons was Austin's lack of complete satisfaction with his classification of illocutionary acts, and another reason was the limitedness of Austin's felicity conditions in only producing ritual and archetypal performances happily. Thus, Searle felt the need to propose another set of felicity conditions that would cover all types of speech acts, and a need to present Austin's ideas more systematically and introduce a new set of speech acts –

the indirect speech acts.

2.2.2.1 Searle's set of felicity conditions

Searle extended Austin's felicity conditions beyond circumstantial appropriateness and correctness and focused on the utterance rather than the circumstances in which the utterance is made (Björgvinsson, 2011). The extended set of conditions includes the propositional content condition, the preparatory condition, the sincerity condition and the essential condition. Al- Hindawi et al. (2014: 29) refer to these conditions as "Searle's felicity conditions of promise" which were later extended to include different kinds of speech acts. Björgvinsson (2011: 5) clarifies these conditions as follows:

Propositional content condition ➡️ a performative should only be uttered in the context of a sentence which predicates some future act of the speaker/hearer

Preparatory condition ➡️ the utterance is to be uttered only *a*) if it is the case that normally the act proposed would not be done and *b*) if the speaker believes it is the case that the hearer would prefer the speaker doing what is proposed and *c*) if the hearer prefers the speaker doing what is proposed.

Sincerity condition ➡️ any performative utterance should only be uttered if the speaker intends to do what is proposed or if the speaker believes in his words.

Essential condition ➡️ for any utterance to be a performative it is essential for the utterance to count as an obligation to do what is proposed.

Thus a speech act consists of an illocutionary force and a propositional content (Ambroise, 2010). For example, *I promise to go to bed early* has the illocutionary force of a promise and the propositional content *I go to bed early.* However, *I go to bed early,* as an utterance, has an illocutionary force of a statement. Therefore, two different speech acts may have the same propositional content, but different illocutionary forces. A promise, however, can only be satisfied if the speaker keeps the promise and a statement is satisfied only if it is true.

Generating an illocutionary force requires adherence to various kinds of semantic rules – the preparatory condition, the sincerity condition and the essential condition – which correspond to

Austin's felicity conditions. According to Ambroise (2010), the preparatory condition includes contextual and linguistic factors and the sincerity condition includes intentional factors about the speaker. In other words, if one makes a promise, one must have the intention to do what one says. The essential condition, on the other hand, includes the rule (conventional and constitutive) entitling one to take certain utterances as performances of speech acts. In other words, if one wants to make a promise, one's utterance is to count as the undertaking of the obligation. It also includes commitment taken in making a certain speech act. This commitment must be explicit in the intentions of the speaker.

Thus, according to Ambroise (2010), the first important aspect of Searle's account of speech acts is the distinction between the propositional content and the force. The second important aspect is that Searle's analysis depends on the intentional or mentalist view, which implies that the intentions of the speaker and the recognition of the speaker's intentions are essential to the realization of the speech act. Finally, a speech act can only be performed if one manifests one's intentions to undertake all the commitments of the speech act one intends to perform.

2.2.2.2 Systematic organisation of Austin's ideas

In revising Austin's theory, Searle distinguished between direct and indirect speech acts (Al-Hindawi et al., 2014), followed by the reclassification of the illocutionary forces into representatives, directives, commissives, expressives and declaratives (Björgvinsson, 2011; Masouleh et al., 2014).

Direct and indirect speech acts

Sultan (2007: 28) provides the following examples to distinguish between direct and indirect speech acts.

	Form	Function
(1) Did you eat food?	Interrogative	Question
(2) Eat the food (please)	Imperative	Command

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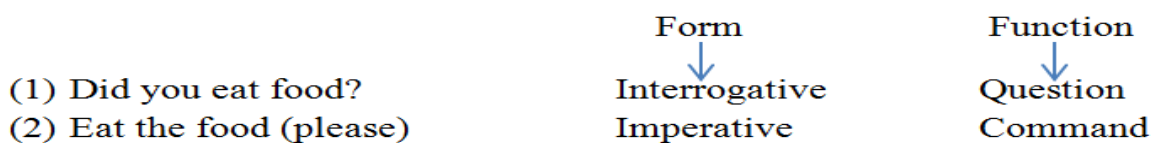
(1) and (2) are direct speech acts as they illustrate a straightforward relationship between the form (structure) and communicative function. In the example (3) below, the relationship between the form and the communicative function is not straightforward; therefore it represents an indirect speech act.

(3)   My car has a flat tire.

In the above example (3), a statement masquerades as a request for the hearer (petrol attendant) to fix the tire (Ackmajian, Demers, Farmer and Harnish 1995 cited in Sultan, 2007). Leech (1983: 195) refers to this as "an indirect illocution [which] is a case of sentence 'masquerading' as a sentence of different type''. Similarly, when a speaker utters *Can you pass me the butter?* the speaker's intention is not to question the ability of the hearer, but rather a request for the hearer to pass the butter. Therefore, according to Searle (1979), understanding the speaker's intention is a prerequisite to understanding language and capturing meaning.

Reclassification of the illocutionary forces

As previously mentioned, one limitation in Austin's classification of illocutionary acts was the overlapping of concepts and intermingling of classes. Searle's focus, therefore, shifted to the point of an utterance and the force of an utterance as opposed to focusing on the type of utterance produced (Björgvinsson, 2011). In other words, Searle's interest was on the *direction of fit* of an utterance to reality (the world around us). According to the *direction of fit* assumption, the words either fit the facts of the world or the world fits the words (Al-Hindawi et al., 2014). Searle (1999 cited in Björgvinsson, 2011) identifies three ways in which an utterance relates to reality: word to world, world to word or null direction of fit (neither). Sadock (2006 cited in Al-Hindawi et al., 2014) adds a fourth *direction of fit* – word to world and world to word (both). Searle then used these criteria to distinguish five functions of language use under his new classification of speech acts (Al-Hindawi et al., 2014).

The functions of using language as identified by Van Eemeren and Grootendorst (1983 cited in

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Al-Hindawi et al., 2014: 30) are:

1.   Saying how something is;

2.   Trying to get people to do something;

3.   Committing ourselves to do something;

4.   Expressing sentiments or attitudes; and

5.   Bringing about changes in reality

Björgvinsson (2011: 14) exemplifies Searle's classification of speech acts and the direction of fit as shown in the table.

Table 2.3: Searle's classification of speech acts and direction of fit

Class	Examples	Direction of fit
Assertives	Definitions, descriptions, assertions and statements, for example, *It is raining; There is a horse in the hall*	Word to world
Directives	Orders, demands and instructions, for example, *Can you give me the salt; Close the window*	World to word
Commissives	Promises, vows, pledges and verbal contracts, for example, *I will be there; I promise you to take the horse away*	World to world
Expressives	Condoling, thanking, apologising and congratulating, for example, *I apologise for stepping on your toe; I congratulate you on winning the race*	Null direction to fit
Declaratives	Declarations uttered under proper conditions, for example, *I declare you husband and wife; I appoint you umpire; the ball is out*	Dual direction of fit (both)

According to Bannon et al. (1991), *direction of fit* of a speech act concerns the relationship between the propositional contents and the referred world. Some illocutionary points (for example, attempting to get the hearer to do something in case of requests) are directed at getting

the content to match the world, while others are directed at getting the world to match the words. Searle (cited in Bannon et al., 1991: 237) illustrates this relationship as follows.

> … a shopper in a supermarket (who) selects items according to his shopping list. This shopper is followed by a detective who writes down everything the shopper takes. When the shopper leaves the shop, both have identical 'shopping' lists, but the function of the two lists is different. The detective's list has a word-to-world direction of fit (as do statements, descriptions and assertions); the shopper's list has a world-to-word direction of fit (as do requests, commands and promises).

Speech act theory, therefore, involves a communicative interaction, which is realised in relation to the speaker's intention and the hearer's interpretation in a certain situation and guided by certain social conventions or rules (Sultan, 2007). According to Searle (1979), the speech act, which is a word, phrase or sentence, expresses an intention. Thus, when someone speaks, an act is performed and understanding the intention of the speaker is essential for capturing meaning and for perceiving the utterance as a speech act. However, while attempting to get meaning across, non-native speakers of a second language may translate speech acts from their mother tongue to the second language (Masouleh et al., 2014). This could be as a result of cultural differences (the difference between the L1 and L2 culture, which might result in negative transfer or errors induced by the speaker's mother tongue), pragmatic transfer (the effects of L1 speech patterns used when producing L2 utterances by, for example, using a direct speech act where the native speaker might use an indirect one) or lack of pragmatic knowledge.

2.3 Requests

Requests are directives characterised by a speaker's attempt focused at the hearer to perform an act exclusively beneficial to the speaker (Byon and Trosberg cited in Bella, 2012). In addition, requests are face-threatening acts (Brown and Levinson, 1978) for both the person requesting and the person who is expected to respond to the request (Brown and Levinson, 1978). When speakers make requests, they impinge on the hearer's claim to freedom of action and freedom of

imposition (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984). According to Byon (2004), requests differ cross-culturally and linguistically. Additionally, they demand a high level of appropriateness for their successful completion. Thus, when the speaker lacks mitigating strategies in the target language, requests may be inappropriate and may result in misunderstanding (Thomas cited in Byon, 2004).

Requests are common in everyday encounters. During these encounters *face* - an idea proposed by Goffman in 1967 to describe perception of self - can be lost, maintained or enhanced (Goffman cited in Tatton, 2008). Goffman's idea of *face* was developed further by Brown and Levinson in 1987, by defining the notion of politeness in terms of positive face and negative face (Tatton, 2008; Hashenian, 2012). Positive face refers to the optimistic self-image and the desire to be viewed in a positive light by others, while negative face refers to the desire to act without imposition. Thus, requests as face threatening acts challenge the person's negative face (through impinging on a person's freedom from imposition) or positive face (with disapproval or contempt) (Brown and Levinson, 1987). This is because requests have the potential to be intrusive and demanding because they express a wish for the hearer to perform some action.

2.3.1 Request strategies

Tatton (2008) describes requests as delicate propositions, because the level of face threat imposed by the requester is dependent on the strategy used. Tatton (2008: 1) provides the following examples of request strategies:

(4)   Close the window.

(5)   Close the window, please.

(6)   Could you please close the window?

(7)   Could you close the window? I can't reach it.

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(8)   Burr, it's cold in here!

Requests 4 - 8 represent various strategies for approaching face-threatening acts. A request strategy can be identified by examining the components of requests. According to Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) and Tatton (2008), requests consist of three parts: the *alerter or address term*, the *head act* and the *adjunct to the head act or supportive moves.* Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984: 200) exemplify these categories with the aid of the following example:

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

In the above example, *Danny* is an alerter (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984) as it is used to gain the hearer's attention (Tatton: 2008). Alerters may include *Hey you* or *Pardon me* (Tatton: 2008)*.* In other words, alerters include formal or informal attention getters and greetings, naming strategies and terms of endearment (Lorenzo-Dus & Bou-Franch, 2003). In addition, alerters constitute the opening move of the request sequence, and also mark the transition from a state of non-talk to a state of talk. Therefore, they may constitute the first contact between co-participants.

Could you lend me a £100 for a week represents a head act (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984). According to Bella (2012), the head act performs the function of requesting and it is significant in determining the main request strategy used by the speaker. In other words, the head act is that part of the sequence which might serve to realize the act independently of other elements (Blum-Kulka, 1984).

I've run into problems is an example of a supportive move or adjunct to the head act. Supportive moves/adjuncts are modifications that serve to mitigate the illocutionary force of the request. These modifications may be external to the head act (external modifications) or internal to the head act (internal modifications). *I've run into problems* exemplifies external modification devices, which may precede (pre-supportive moves) or follow (post-supportive moves) the head

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act. Najafabadi and Paramasivam (2012:1388) exemplify external modifications below.

1. *Preparator* (e.g. "Hey, you had this management class, right?")

2. *Grounder* (e.g. "I wasn't in class the other day because I was sick.")

3. *Disarmer* (e.g. "I know this is short notice")

4. *Promise of Reward* (e.g. "I'll buy you dinner.")

5. *Imposition Minimizer* **(**e.g. "I will return them in an orderly fashion.")

6. *Sweetener* (e.g. "Today's class was great**.**")

7. *Pre-pre strategy* (e.g. "Hello sir, how are you today?...")

8. *Appreciation* (e.g. "I would appreciate it.")

9. *Self-introduction* (e.g. "Hey, I'm in your politics class.")

10. *Confirmatory strategy* (e.g. "I would be grateful if you could help me.")

11. *Getting a pre-commitment* (e. g. "Could you do me a favour? …").

According to Han (2012), the most frequently used external modifications in decreasing order in data include grounders (reasons), preparatory, disarmers, enquirers and getting pre-commitments, promise of reward and cost minimizers. While reasons can be seen as a co-operative strategy towards exchanges, as by providing reasons (or asking for reasons) the speaker expects the hearer to be more understanding and willing to co-operate (Han, 2012), it is also seen as a positive politeness strategy because it implies *Can you help me* or *I can help you* (Brown and Levinson, 1987). Conversely, giving reasons can be seen as the speaker's way of showing consideration for the hearer (Han, 2012). Preparators are used by the speaker to prepare the hearer for the ensuing request. Preparators serve to check the hearer's availability for carrying out the request or ask the hearer's permission to make the request (Han, 2012). On the other hand, through the use of disarmers, the speaker tries to remove any potential objectives the addressee might raise upon being confronted with a request. Disarmers may include formulaic promises, complementing phrases and clauses that express the speaker's awareness and concern that the request might be perceived as an imposition on the hearer. The remaining supportive moves serve the following purpose: a pre-commitment helps the speaker feel the ground for uttering the request is safer; a promise of reward is employed in order to increase the likelihood

of compliance on the part of the hearer; the cost minimizer attempts to reduce the burden of the request on the hearer (Han, 2012).

As previously mentioned, supportive moves/adjuncts are modifications, which may be external to the head act or internal to the head act. According to Han (2012), internal modifications, unlike external modifications, are part of head acts. Thus, they occur in the head act and they serve to mitigate or aggravate the illocutionary force of the request as a downgrader or upgrader. Blum-Kulka (cited in Han, 2012) distinguishes between two types of downgraders – the syntactic and the lexical/phrasal downgraders. The former a r e choices between different grammatical structures, interrogative versus imperative constructions, conditional constructions, negation and tenses. The latter comprise a large number of mitigating devices such as politeness markers, hedges and diminutives. Najafabadi and Paramasivam (2012: 1388) exemplify internal modifications below:

1. *Downgraders:*

a) **Syntactic Downgraders:**

1. *Play-down* (e.g. "I *was wondering* if I could join your study group.")
2. *Conditional* (e.g. ". . . *if you have time.*")

b) **Lexical/Phrasal Downgraders:**

1. *Politeness marker* (e.g. "Can I *please* have an extension on this paper?")
2. *Embedding* (e.g. "*It'd be great* if you could put this on the door.")
3. *Understate* (e.g. "If you have *a minute,* could you help me with this stuff?")
4. *Appealer* (e.g. "I need your computer to finish my assignments, *okay?*")
5. *Downtoner* (e.g. "Is there *any* way I could get an extension?")
6. *Consultative Device* (e.g. *"Would you mind* lending me a hand?")

2. *Upgraders:*

1. *Adverbial intensifier* (e.g. "I would be *most* grateful if you could let me use your article.")

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Lexical downgraders, therefore, include words and expressions speakers employ to lessen the illocutionary force of the request, while syntactic downgraders weaken the imposition of the request utterance (Hassan and Rangasawmy, 2014). Tables 2.4 and 2.5 summarize downgraders as outlined in Hassan and Rangasawmy (2014: 56 – 57).

Table 2.4: Summary of lexical downgraders

Lexical downgraders	Description	Example
Downtoner	Adverbial used to mitigate the force of a request.	Could I **possibly/maybe** have some of them?
Politeness marker	An exclamation word like *please* used to show politeness.	Could you bring me some articles, **please**?
Understater	Adverbial modifier which is used to lessen the imposition of a request.	Excuse me! Can you speak that **a bit** louder, please?
Past tense modals	Modals such as *could* instead of *can* which make a request more polite.	**Could** you open the window, please?
Consultative devices	Expressions used to ask somebody politely to do something.	**Would you mind** if we rescheduled to another day? Excuse me Jane, **would you mind** opening the window? It's very hot in here. Thank you. **Do you think** you could open the window?
Hedge	An adverbial which makes a request appear vaguer.	Is it **somehow** possible to meet another day?
Aspect	Using the progressive form of a verb.	I was wonder**ing** if you were available to meet some time over the holidays. Professor, I was hop**ing** you might be able to see me during the holidays as I …

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Marked modality	Using modals such as *might* and *may* which make a request seem more tentative.	Excuse me please! **May** I pass? Excuse me professor, I wonder if I **might** get pass you as I have to …

Table 2.5: Summary of syntactic downgraders

Syntactic downgraders	Description	Example
Conditional clauses	Used by the speakers to make themselves less involved in the request.	I was wondering **if** you could bring me some articles that…
Appreciative embedding	Used by the speakers to positively reinforce the request by expressing their positive feelings about the favour the interlocutor is asked to provide.	Would you have some articles you could lend me, I **would really appreciate it** if I could have them as soon as possible. It **would be really helpful** if you could bring me some articles.
Tentative embedding	Used to make a less direct request by showing hesitation.	I realize your time is precious, however **I wonder if** we could meet another day. I'm sorry Jane, **I wonder if** you could speak up, it's very noisy in here and I'm having trouble hearing you.
Tag questions	Used to decrease the impact of a request.	You can speak louder, **can't** you?
Negation	Used to provide the interlocutor with more optionality.	You ca**n't** speak a bit louder?

According to Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984), request strategies are categorized according to three levels of directness: the direct explicit level, the conventionally indirect level and the non-conventionally indirect level. A direct request is exemplified by *Close the window* and is likely

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to contain an imperative. In contrast, the use of a modal verb represents a conventionally indirect strategy, which serves to minimize the imposition of requests. However, the least amount of imposition can be realised through non-conventionally indirect requests, which take the form of a hint (Tatton, 2008).

Thus, a direct request is indicated in an utterance by grammatical, lexical and semantic items as in *Please lend me a pen* (Taguchi, 2006). The conventionally indirect request expresses the illocutionary force by using fixed linguistic conventions as in *Could you lend me a pen?* and the non-conventionally indirect request is expressed by the speaker making reference to the requested act as in *Do you have a pen?* (Taguchi, 2006).

The level of indirectness is determined by contextual factors such as power and social distance as well as the degree of imposition involved (Brown and Levinson cited in Taguchi, 2006; Thomas cited in Taguchi, 2006). In more formal situations, speech acts involve a high degree of imposition and are addressed to a person with more power. In these situations, a greater degree of indirectness may be required to protect the face of the interlocutor. However, in instances where a low degree of imposition is involved, the degree of indirectness required is smaller. Leech (1983) suggests that the use of indirect levels increases the degree of politeness because degree of optionality is increased and the force of the request tends to be tentative and diminished.

Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) subdivided the three levels of directness into nine distinct sublevels as shown in the following table:

Table 2.6: Request strategy types

Strategy type	Explanation	Example
Mood derivable	The grammatical mood of the verb in the utterance marks its illocutionary force as a request.	Leave me alone Clean up this mess, please
Explicit performatives	The illocutionary force of the utterance is explicitly named by the speakers.	I'm asking you not to park the car here

Hedged performatives	Utterances embedding the naming of the illocutionary force.	I would like you to give your lecture a week earlier
Locution derivable	The illocutionary point is directly derivable from the semantic meaning of the locution.	Madam, you'll have to move your car
Scope stating	The utterance expresses the speaker's intentions, desire or feeling *vis a vis* the fact that the hearer do X.	I really wish you'd stop bothering me
Language specific suggestory formula	The sentence contains a suggestion to X.	Why don't you get lost? How about cleaning up? So, why don't you come and clear up the mess you made last night!?
Reference to preparatory conditions	Utterance contains reference to preparatory conditions (e.g. ability or willingness, the possibility of the act being performed) as conventionalized in any specific language.	Could you clear up the kitchen, please? Would you mind moving your car, please?
Strong hints	Utterance contains partial reference to object or to elements needed for the implementation of the act (directly pragmatically implying the act).	You've left this kitchen in a right mess
Mild hints	Utterances that make no reference to the request proper (or any of its elements) but are interpretable through the context as requests (indirectly pragmatically implying the act).	I'm a nun (in response to the persistent boy)

On a directness scale, the most direct request strategy is the mood derivable and within the category of direct speech acts are explicit performatives (or simply the performative) and the locution derivable (or obligatory statement). Scope stating (or want statement) is classified as a conventionally indirect strategy. Other conventionally indirect strategies include the language specific suggestory formula, which is the least direct, and the strategy which makes reference to

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preparatory conditions (also known as the query preparatory). Strong hints, which are categorised as the least direct (or most indirect) of all strategies, are contextually indirect (or non-conventional).

Many requests include reference to the requester, requestee or the action to be performed. Thus, there are different types of request perspectives: (i) hearer-oriented requests (*Could you …?),* (ii) speaker-oriented requests (*Do you think I …?),* (iii) speaker- and hearer-oriented requests *(Could we please),* and (iv) impersonal requests (*So, it might not be a bad idea to get it cleaned up).* Examples emanating from the study on request perspective by Tamimi and Mohammadi (2014: 25-27) are provided below:

1. **Hearer-oriented request examples**

   a. I would really be grateful if *you* could let me know

   b. I'm sorry, would *you* please tell me my score

   c. Can *you* tell me the time?

   d. Would *you* please give me a pen

   e. Tell me the time

2. **Speaker-oriented request examples**

   a. Sorry sir, may *I* ask for my score on the test

   b. Sir, may *I* know my score on the test?

   c. Can *I* have the time?

   d. Can *I* borrow this book for a day or two

   e. May *I* have your pen

3. **Speaker-hearer-oriented request examples**

   a. *Let's* clean up the room

   b. Because *you and I* are the only ones living in the room, *we* need to clean the room *ourselves*

4. Impersonal request examples

a. What time is it?

b. The place is very dirty

c. Are the test scores ready?

d. Well then, sorry sir! What about the scores?

To summarise, requests are attempts by a speaker to get the hearer to do something or to stop performing an action for the speaker's sake (Ellis, 2008). In addition, the speaker must want the request performed, believe the hearer is able to assent to the request and believe the request will not be granted in the absence of a request being made. There are various strategies by which requests may be realised. These include direct, conventionally indirect and non-conventionally indirect strategies, which are further sub-divided into nine sub-levels of directness (Blum-Kulka et al., 1984). Requests are subject to internal and external modifications that mitigate or strengthen their force (Amundrud, 2012). Finally, as requests involve some degree of imposition (Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper, 1989), they require *face-work* depending on the interlocutors' relationship.

2.3.2 Request strategies in English

According to Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984), there may be systematic differences in the realization patterns of speech acts. These differences may be as a result of social constraints embedded in a situation. For example, in certain cultures, requests directed to social superiors might be less direct than those directed at social inferiors. In addition, members of a particular culture might express requests more or less directly than members of another culture. Individuals within the same society may differ in their speech act realization patterns depending on their age, sex and education. This section refers to various studies conducted in the field in order to explore patterns of speech act realization of requests in British English (BE).

2.3.1.1 Lorenzo-Dus and Bou-Franch (2003)

A cross-gender and cross-linguistic/cultural study of respondents' perceptions and beliefs about appropriate linguistic behaviour in the performance of requests was conducted among Peninsula Spanish and British English speakers. Data was collected from male and female undergraduate students (aged 19-25) through Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs) consisting of six situations controlled for power and distance. After analysing a total number of 793 requests, the following was revealed about request strategies of BE speakers.

1.   Type of alerters used

The study points out that the results relating to alerters coincide with the view that many 'British people have adopted the strategy of not using names at all in certain circumstances to avoid the difficulty of finding the appropriate form of address" (Bargiela et al. 2002 cited in Lorenzo-Dus and Bou-Franch,   2003: 6). For example, consider the situation below illustrated in the study (where P stands for power and SD stands for social distance between interlocutors).

Situation: letter of recommendation (-P,+SD)

You want to ask your English lecturer to write a letter of recommendation for your application for a course in a British University.

In this situation, respondents could be reasonably expected to know the full name of their interlocutors (one of their lecturers). However, the naming avoidance strategy appeared to be the most frequently used among BE speakers. In cases where attention getters are used, the choice of attention getter is dependent on the situation. For example, in situations characterized by social distance between the speaker and the hearer, women tend to use three times as many formal attention getters (*Excuse me)* than informal ones (*Hello* or *hi)* compared to men (whose pattern is more evenly distributed: 60% formal and 40% informal attention getters). This type of situation is exemplified below.

Situation: Borrowing a pen (=P, +SD)

It's enrolment week and you are queuing to hand in your last set of forms. You've forgotten to sign one of the forms and haven't got a pen with you. You want to ask a student you don't know, who is also queuing, to lend you a pen.

Consider also the next two examples.

Situation: Bookshop (+P, +SD)

You want to ask a shop assistant in a bookshop to show you where the science fiction section is

Situation: Pub (+P, -SD)

At the pub you usually go to, you want to ask the barman you know
very well for a coke

In such situations, which are characterised by power, men use terms of endearment (*beautiful, beautiful young thing, dude, chief* or *mate)* more frequently than women. However, such behaviour is not always power-asserting or patronising, particularly when interlocutors are well-known to one another and the context of interaction is relaxed. Rather, the use of terms of endearment by men in these situations is seen as a politeness strategy (Lorenzo-Dus and Bou-Franch, 2003). In addition, an endearment term like *sweetie* and *mate* shifts the request focus away from its imposition on the hearer's negative face and towards a friendliness existing between the two interlocutors. Instead of frequently using endearment terms, women use the politeness marker *please,* which is a conventionally polite formula.

2. In relation to request strategies used by both men and women in requests, the study revealed the frequent use of modal verbs, such as *can* as in *Can I have …?* particularly for the bookshop situation mentioned above. For the letter of recommendation situation, both men

and women use *could* frequently, followed by a preparatory phrase such as *I was wondering if*.... However, women use more strategies and supportive moves that minimize the degree of imposition of the request on the hearer than men. Lorenzo-Dus and Bou-Franch (2003) provide the following illustrative examples of patterns used by men and women in BE.

Men	Women
I was wondering if you would write a letter of recommendation for me?	*I was wondering if you would be so kind as to write a recommendation letter for a university application?*
I was wondering if you would be a referee for me?	*I was wondering whether you would consider writing a recommendation letter for me, please?*
	I was wondering if I could ask you ...?

The use of two syntactic downgraders (*I was wondering* and the conditional clause *if*) in BE by women mitigates the imposing force of the request. However, this type of request may be perceived as over-attentive to the negative face needs of the requestee, not necessarily because of the type of mitigating device, but because of the use of multiple mitigating devices in a single, extremely polite request (Lorenzo-Dus and Bou-Franch, 2003).

2.3.1.2 Chalupnik (2011)

Chalupnik (2011) conducted a study on the realisation of requests and criticisms in Polish and British English, with the aim to identify similarities and differences of the two speech acts. Sixteen (8 male and 8 female) BE speakers participated in the study. The request speech act scenarios used in the study are outlined below.

1. Borrowing a DVD from a friend.
2. Asking your mother to let you stay at her house until the renovation works end at your house.

3. Enquiring about the location of a tourist information centre.

4. Asking for a lift after being late for work.

5. Asking a customer to put out a cigarette.

6. Asking a lecturer to postpone an exam.

7. Asking (as a police officer) for details of a car crash.

8. Requesting a secretary to type invitations to a business meeting.

According to Chalupnik (2011), Britons used conventionally indirect strategies in approximately 60% of the situations, compared to direct requests and non-conventionally indirect requests (least preferred strategy). In situations 2 – 4 and situations 6 – 7, the query preparatory strategy was preferred. In these situations (except situation 7), the ranking of imposition was perceived high by the Britons, and for situations 2 – 6 the speakers were considered as not dominant.

2.3.1.3 Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984)

Through the Cross-Cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP), a cross-cultural investigation of speech act realization patterns of requests and apologies was initiated, to establish similarities and differences between native and non-native speakers' patterns of speech act realization in eight languages. Data was collected from 400 students from each language (constituting an equal number of male and female students, half of whom were native and half non-native speakers) by means of a DCT which consisted of incomplete discourse sequences that represent socially differentiated situations. The research revealed the following examples with regard to patterns of speech act realization of requests in BE.

1. The following request strategies for BE were evident in the work of Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984: 202).

Table 2.7: Request strategies for BE identified in Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984)

Strategy type	Example
Mood derivable	Clean up the mess, please
Suggestory formula	So, why don't you come and clear the mess you made last night!?
Reference to preparatory conditions	Could you clear up the kitchen, please?
Strong hints	You've left the kitchen in a right mess

2. According to Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984), speakers of BE make hearer- oriented requests. Hearer-oriented requests are exemplified below.

   Could you tidy up the kitchen soon?

Hearer-oriented requests emphasize the role of the hearer in the speech event. By nature, requests are face-threatening acts and avoidance in naming the addressee as the principal partner of the act softens the impact of the imposition (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984).

3. The following internal modifiers were evident among speakers of BE in the study.

Table 2.8: Internal modifiers used by speakers of BE

Modifier (internal)	Type	Example
Syntactic downgraders	Interrogative	Could you do the cleaning up?
Other downgraders	Consultative devices	Do you think I could borrow your lecture notes from yesterday?
	Understaters	Could you tidy up a bit before I start?
	Intensifiers	Clean up this mess, it's disgusting

	Expletives	You still haven't cleaned up the bloody mess!

4.   External modifiers used by speakers of BE as revealed by the study include grounders, disarmers and cost minimizers (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984). For example, *Judith, I missed class yesterday, could I borrow your notes* and *Excuse me, I've just missed my bus and you live on the same road. I wonder if I could trouble you for a lift* are grounders. Grounders precede or follow a request and provide reasons for the request (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984). A speaker may use a disarmer (for example, *Excuse me, I hope you don't think I am forward, but is there any chance of a lift home*) as an indication of his or her awareness of a potential offence, thus anticipates possible refusal. The speaker may also indicate consideration of the 'cost' to the hearer involved in compliance with the request (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984). In other words, the speaker may use a minimizer as exemplified below.

> *Pardon me, but could you give me a lift home if you're going my way,*
> *as I just missed the bus and there isn't another one for an hour*

Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984: 205) provide an example of how the sequence in this sentence may be coded.

Dimension	Category	Element
1 Address term	Attention getter	'Pardon me'
2 Request perspective	Hearer dominant	'Could you'
3 Request strategy	Preparatory	'Could you give'
4 Downgrades	-	none
5 Upgraders	-	none
6 Adjuncts to the head act	1 Cost minimizer	'if you're going my way'
	2 Grounder	'as I've just missed'

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2.4 Methods of assessing speech act realization patterns

Kasper and Roever (2005) classify research methods in interlanguage pragmatics into six categories. These include (i) observational data of spoken interaction involving authentic discourse, elicited conversation and role plays; (ii) questionnaires encapsulating written Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs) and multiple choice questionnaires; (iii) rating scales; (iv) oral and narrative forms of self-report; (v) use of diaries and (vi) verbal protocols. The most widely employed methods among the six categories are DCTs and role-plays (Tran, 2006; Kasper and Dahl, 1991; Nurani, 2009; Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford cited in Al-Ghatani and Al Shatter, 2012; Felix-Brasdefer cited in Eslami & Mirzaei, 2014; Kasper and Roever, 2005; Felix- Brasdefer 2010 cited in Beltran-Palanques, 2014; Martinez-Flor and Usó-Juan, 2011). Strengths and weaknesses of the two methods are discussed below.

2.5.1 Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs)

DCTs are characterised by a description of a situation followed by a short dialogue and a gap, which must be completed by the respondent. In addition, the context specified in the situation allows for the elicitation of a particular aspect of interest to the researcher (Martinez-Flor and Usó-Juan, 2011). Various types of DCTs exist as discussed in Beltran-Palanques (2014). Kasper

(2000 cited in Beltran-Palanques, 2014) categorises DCTs into four main types: (i) the classic DCT characterised by the first turn of the dialogue followed by an empty gap; (ii) the dialogue construction DCT, which does not include the hearer's response and the gap may or may not be initiated by the interlocutor; (iii) open verbal item response DCTs, which are characterised by a written verbal response and (iv) open time free response DCTs, which provide participants with various options– to provide a verbal or non-verbal response or to opt out.

Nurani (2009: 668) exemplifies the four types of DCTs as shown below.

Example 1: The classic DCT

Walter and Leslie live in the same neighbourhood, but they only know each other by sight. One day, they both attend a meeting held on the other side of town. Walter does not have a car but he knows Leslie has come in her car.

Walter : _____ Leslie : I'm sorry but I'm not going home right away.

(Blum Kulka , House, and Kasper, 1989)

Example 2: The dialogue construction DCT

Your advisor suggests that you take a course during summer. You prefer not to take classes during the summer. Advisor : What about taking a course in the summer?

You : _____

(Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1993)

Example 3: The open item-verbal response only

You have invited a very famous pedagogue at an institutional dinner. You feel extremely hungry,

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but this engineer starts speaking and nobody has started eating yet, because they are waiting for
the guest to start. You want to start having dinner.

What would you say?

<div align="right">(Safont-Jordà, 2003)</div>

Example 4: The open time free response

You are the president of the local chapter of a national hiking club. Every month the club goes
on a hiking trip and you are responsible for organizing it. You are on this month's trip and have
borrowed another member's hiking book. You are hiking by the river and stop to look at the
book. The book slips from your hand, falls in the river and washes away. You hike on to the rest
stop where you meet up with the owner of the book.

You: _____

<div align="right">(Hudson, Detmer, and Brown, 1995)</div>

Other DCTs may include cartoons (Rose 2000 cited in Beltran-Palanques, 2014), contextual information, enhanced photos and opportunities for interaction of participants (Martinez-Flor & Usó-Juan 2011).

2.4.1.1 Strengths and weaknesses of DCTs

One of the strengths of DCTs is that they allow researchers to collect a large amount of data in a short period of time (Houck and Gass, 1996 cited in Beltrán-Palanques, 2014; Roever, 2010 cited in Beltrán-Palanques, 2014). This fact alone makes DCTs an important starting point for further research (Lorenzo-Dus and Bou-Franch, 2003), especially in cases where there is no research or limited research in the field as in the case of Khoekhoegowab. In addition, DCTs provide respondents with contextual information to aid understanding and thus enable respondents to

produce utterances (Beltrán-Palanques, 2014).

Conversely, DCTs can be perceived as pen and paper instruments resembling a test that is responded to using written mode (Sasaki cited in Beltrán-Palanques, 2014). This may affect their production and as Gelato (cited in Beltrán-Palanques, 2014) points out, respondents may not always provide an accurate depiction of what they would really say in authentic oral interaction. Beebe and Cumming (cited in Nurani, 2009) nevertheless argue that DCTs in many respects accurately reflect the content in natural data. In addition, DCTs create model responses which are likely to occur in spontaneous speech and provide stereotypical responses for a socially appropriate response. DCTs are also characterised by lack of interaction. Consequently, respondents only take one turn. However, more recent DCTs have been designed in such a way that multiple turns and interaction between respondents is possible. Still, despite the weaknesses mentioned, DCTs show different forms and strategies that respondents employ when confronting a given situation (Kasper & Rose, 2002). "Without this methodology, it would have been difficult if not impossible to conduct such research because some speech acts are very difficult to obtain in any other way" (O' Keeffe et al. cited in Beltrán-Palanques, 2014).

2.4.2 Role-plays

Role-plays represent a detailed written description of a situation which must be performed by participants (Martinez-Flor and Usó-Juan, 2011). Kasper and Roever (2005) distinguish between closed and open-ended role-plays. Closed role-plays are characterised by a single turn informant in response to the description of a situation. This situation involves specific instructions. In open-ended role-plays, participants are presented with the situation only and the requirement is that they perform their roles without further guidelines. There may be as a many turns and discourse phases as needed by interlocutors to maintain their interaction.

2.4.2.2 Strengths and weaknesses of role plays

One advantage of role-plays is that it allows researchers to observe how sociopragmatic factors, such as power, distance and degree of imposition (Brown and Levinson cited in Martinez-Flor

and Usó-Juan, 2011) influence selection of a particular pragmalinguistic form in order to express the communicative act involved in the performance of the role-play. Role-plays also allow for investigation of discourse features such as laughter, intonation, tone, stress as well as turn-taking (Tran, 2006). On the other hand, the aim of the present study is not to investigate discourse information such as turn-taking, but rather to investigate the strategies by which communicative acts are implemented.

Role-plays are not without drawbacks. For instance, role-plays have been criticized for consisting, at times, of unrealistic situations for participants (Cohen and Olshtain cited in Tran, 2006), and for not reflecting real-life interaction (Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford cited in Al-Gahtani et al., 2012). According to Gelato (cited in Martinez-Flor and Uso- Juan, 2011), roles participants might be required to perform are often imagined or fictitious and may influence the production of the act under investigation, particularly where participants are required to act out roles which they have never performed in real life. In addition, role-plays may not reflect real speech as there are no pragmatic consequences involved for the participants when performing role-plays. Another drawback of role-plays pertains to the number of participants. Only a limited number of participants can partake in role-plays, as arranging situations involving a large number of participants can pose a challenge for researchers. Transcription of such long conversations may also be time-consuming for the researcher.

It is, however, important to realise that DCTs and role-plays measure different aspects of speech act production. Gelato (cited in Eslami et al., 2014:141) concurs that DCTs and role-plays measure 'different things.' Therefore, the purpose for which it is intended should be the focus when deciding on the data collection instrument for a particular study.

2.5 Pragmatic transfer

Pragmatic transfer is defined as "the use of rules of speaking from one's speech act community when interacting or when speaking in a second or a foreign language …." (Ahmed, 2011: 167). Weinreich (1953 cited in Ahmed, 2011: 167) refers to pragmatic transfer as:

> Those instances of deviation from the norms of either language which occur in the speech

act of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language, i.e. as a result of language contact, will be referred to as interference phenomena. It is these phenomena of speech, and their impact on the norms of either language exposed to contact, that invite the interest of the linguist.

Effective performance of speech acts requires both linguistic competence (i.e. grammatical competence, e.g. intonation, phonology, syntax and semantics; and pragmatic competence) and sociolinguistic knowledge of rules of language use in context. These aspects are included in the notion of *communicative competence* coined by Hymes (cited in Hashenian, 2012), which may alternatively be referred to as *pragmatic competence*. Pragmatic competence refers to the ability to perform social functions in a context (Taguchi, 2006), or the ability to use language effectively in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand language in context. In addition, pragmatic competence involves contextual meanings and purposes of utterances. In other words, it involves the speaker's intention and the hearer's interpretation (Lin cited in Masouleh et al., 2014; Winkler cited in Masouleh et al., 2014). However, cultural differences, pragmatic transfer and lack of linguistic knowledge may result in pragmatic failure.

When speakers lack rules of sociocultural language use in the target language, they exploit rules of sociocultural language use of their native language (pragmatic transfer). Scarcella (cited in Ahmed, 2011) concurs that non-native speakers of a target language often transfer conversational rules of their first language into the target language. This violation of speech act realization patterns typically used by native speakers of the target language may result in intercultural communication breakdown.

Transfer may be positive or negative. Negative transfer or 'interference' occurs when two languages have dissimilar language systems (linguistic units or elements used in a language) and results in production of errors, whereas positive transfer or 'facilitation' occurs when two languages share the same language systems and the target form is correctly transferred. Thus, cultural differences between the first language and the target culture may result in errors induced by the speaker's mother tongue (negative transfer). On the other hand, pragmatic transfer involves effects of the first language speech patterns used when producing utterances in the

second language (Masouleh et al., 2014). For example, a speaker may use a direct speech act where a native speaker may have used an indirect speech act.

2.5.1 Identification of pragmatic transfer

Establishing that an act of communication is influenced by pragmatic transfer may pose challenges. However, the assumption that this type of transfer may be involved could be evidenced by observations which focus on communicative behaviour of learners in their L1 and L2 in comparison to the native speakers of the L2. Žegarac and Pennington (2000: 3) provide a clarifying example.

Example of identification of pragmatic transfer

Language X

Speaker 1:   (Compliment)   *You did a really good job*

Speaker 2   (acceptance)   *Thanks*

Language Y

Speaker 1:   (Compliment)   *You did a really good job*

Speaker 2   (acceptance)   *You are too generous*

In Language X, Speaker 2 accepts the compliment with a simple expression of *Thanks*. In other words, Speaker 2 in this case does not express any reservations about the validity or the importance of the complement. In Language X, Speaker 2 accepts the compliment, but plays down its importance as culturally expected. If a native speaker of Language X is learning Language Y and in response to a compliment accepts with a simple expression of *Thanks,* it is reasonable to assume that the native speaker of Language X carried over cultural knowledge of Language X mistakenly to Language Y, where in fact an expression of modesty is more acceptable. By extension it may be reasonably assumed that the rules of speaking of Language X were used

when interacting in Language Y. In other words, negative transfer has occurred because it involves an unwarranted generalisation from L1 (Language X) pragmatic knowledge to a communicative situation in L2 (Language Y). This may have adverse effects on communicative success. However, imperfect pragmatic competence does not necessarily result in pragmatic failure (Žegarac and Pennington, 2000). The native speaker of L2 may make allowances and assume that the non-native speaker might not necessarily be rude, but might simply not be aware that the type of response provided is inappropriate in the native culture.

If the non-native speaker responds in a native-like manner in a communicative situation, it is reasonable to assume that positive transfer may have occurred. Positive transfer, however, does not always enhance the chances of communicative success as the native speaker may, instead of the non-native speaker's intention, focus on the peculiar correctness of the non-native speaker's use of L2 (Žegarac and Pennington, 2000).

2.6 Summary of the findings of the chapter

This chapter has outlined the literature underpinning the study. It has discussed the origin and development of speech act theory, which defines a speech act as an utterance (phonetically, a unit of speech bounded by silence) that serves a communicative function. The speech act – a word, phrase or sentence that expresses an intention (Searle, 1979) – involves a communicative interaction, which is realised in relation to the speaker's intention and the hearer's interpretation in a certain situation and guided by certain social conventions or rules (Sultan, 2007). Thus, when someone speaks, an act is performed, and understanding the intention of the speaker is essential for capturing meaning and for perceiving the utterance as a speech act.

Non-native speakers of a second language, however, while attempting to get meaning across, may translate speech acts from their mother tongue to the second language (Masouleh et al., 2014). This could be as a result of cultural differences (the difference between the L1 and L2 culture, which might result in negative transfer or errors induced by the speaker's mother tongue), pragmatic transfer (the effects of L1 speech patterns used when producing L2 utterances by, for example, using a direct speech act where the native speaker might use an indirect one) or lack of pragmatic knowledge. The chapter has also examined what pragmatic transfer entails,

including patterns of speech act realization and methods researchers have employed in assessing speech act realization patterns.

The remaining sections of this study will seek to uncover the strategies that speakers of Khoekhoegowab (KKG) employ to realise speech acts, with a specific focus on request strategies. It will also be investigated whether these speakers transfer speech act realisation strategies they use when performing requests in KKG to English, which is taught as a second language (ESL) across schools in Namibia. Numerous studies have investigated strategies used in the realization of speech acts (Blum-Kulka, 1980; Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984; Jalilifer, 2009; Taber, 2012; Madjiedt and Janjuar, 2014). There are, however, no known studies of speech act realization strategies in Namibia, particularly with reference to KKG. In addition, according to the researcher's knowledge, there are no known studies of possible effects of transference by speakers of KKG into English when acquired as a second language. The following chapter provides the context, the theoretical framework and the research design for the study, including data collection and analysis procedures.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1 Introduction

Chapter 3 provides an account of the theoretical framework and research design used in the study. As noted in Chapter 1, the aim of the present study is to uncover strategies mother tongue speakers of Khoekhoegowab employ in their performance of requests in both Khoekhoegowab and English when it is acquired as a second language. In addition, the study endeavours to discover whether these speakers transfer speech act realisation strategies they use in Khoekhoegowab to English. The discussion commences with an exposition of the Cross Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) as the theoretical framework of the study. The discussion on the research design is preceded by an explanation of the context of the study. Finally, data collection and analysis procedures and ethical considerations are provided.

3.2 Theoretical framework

3.2.1 The Cross Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP)

According to Levinson (1983), there is a need to account for rules that direct language use. The challenge, though, remains in determining the degree to which language use in context varies from culture to culture or from language to language. What has been determined, however, is that there are systematic differences in the realization patterns of speech acts. The diversity in the realization of speech acts in context stem from (i) intercultural situational variability; (ii) cross-cultural variability; (iii) individual variability (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984: 197). Due to this variability, L2 speakers might fail to communicate effectively despite having an excellent grammatical and lexical command of the target language, particularly because learners are liable

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to transfer rules of language use from one language to another. Therefore, there is a need to investigate speech act realization patterns in a variety of situations within different cultures, particularly involving different types of individuals (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984). For this purpose, the Cross Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) was initiated. The goals of the project as outlined in Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984: 197) are as follows:

1. To establish native speakers' patterns of realization with respect to two speech acts— requests and apologies— relative to different social constraints, in each of the languages studied (situational variability).

2. To establish the similarities and differences in the realization patterns of requests and apologies *cross-linguistically,* relative to the same social constraints across the languages studied (cross-cultural variability).

3. To establish the similarities and differences between native and non-native realization patterns of requests and apologies relative to the *same* social constraints (individual, native versus non-native variability).

To achieve these goals, there was a need for a data collection method that would account for cross-cultural variability, situational variability and individual variability of learners in the realization patterns of the same speech act (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984). Therefore, to ensure cross-cultural comparability, data was to be collected using a controlled elicitation procedure. For this purpose, a discourse completion test was used. According to Blum-Kulka (1982), this test was originally developed for comparing speech act realization patterns of native speakers as well as learners of a target language. In addition, the test consisted of incomplete, socially differentiated situations as exemplified below (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984: 198).

Example 1

At a students' apartment

Larry, John's room-mate, had a party the night before and left the kitchen in a mess.

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John: Larry, Ellen and Tom are coming for dinner tonight and I'll have to start cooking soon;

Larry: OK, I have a go at it right away.

<div align="center">

Example 2

</div>

At the professor's office

A student has borrowed a book from her teacher, which she promised to return today. When meeting her teacher, however, she realizes that she forgot to bring it along.

Teacher: Miriam, I hope you brought the book I lent you.

Miriam: _____

Teacher: OK, but please remember it next week.

Participants were then asked to complete the dialogue and by so doing, provide the speech act aimed at in the context. In the case of example 1, participant responses provide clues to the preferred patterns of speech act realization, including the differences in the type of strategy chosen to realize the same speech act under the same social constraints across languages. In the case of example 2, responses make it possible to determine if performance of a particular speech act is appropriate in a given context and if appropriate, to determine the strategies used to realize the speech act.

For the purpose of analysis, from the data yielded by the discourse completion test, each response would be independently evaluated according to the number of dimensions (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984). For this purpose a coding scheme was designed. Table 3.1 shows the CCSARP coding framework for requests based on Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1989).

Table 3.1: Coding framework for requests based on Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989) CCSARP.

I. **Direct Expressions**	
1. Imperatives	e.g. *Please lend me a pen.*
2. Performatives	e.g. *I'm asking you to lend me a pen.*
3. Implicit performatives	e.g. *I want to ask you to lend me a pen.*
4. Obligation Statements	e.g. *You should lend me a pen.*
5. Want Statements	e.g. *I want you to lend me a pen.*
II. **Indirect Expressions** II.A. **Conventional indirect** 6. language specific suggestory 7. Preparatory questions	e.g. *Could you lend me a pen?* e.g. *How about lending me a pen?*
II.B. **Non-conventional indirect** 8. Strong hint 9. Mild hint	e.g. *My pen just quit. I need a pen.* e.g. *Can you guess what I want?*

As evident from table 3.1, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) categorise requests according to three levels of directness, which are further subdivided into nine distinct levels making up request strategy types. The levels of directness include imperatives (mood derivable), performatives (explicit performatives), implicit performatives (hedged performatives), obligation statements (locution derivable), want statements (scope stating), language specific suggestory formula, reference to preparatory conditions (query preparatory), strong hints and mild hints (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984). In addition, the sublevels of directness are strategy types which are expected to manifest in all languages.

According to Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984), a request constitutes three parts: alerters or address term, the head act and adjunct to the head act or supportive moves (see chapter 2, pp. 13- 17). Firstly, alerters include formal or informal attention getters and greetings, naming strategies and terms of endearment (Lorenzo-Dus and Bou-Franch, 2003). The head act performs

the function of requesting and it is significant in determining the main request strategy used by a speaker (Bella, 2012). As discussed in the previous chapter (Section 2.3.1.), supportive moves or adjuncts to the head act may precede or follow the head act and serve to mitigate the illocutionary force of the request. Thus, requests are subject to internal and external modifications that mitigate or strengthen their force (Amundrud, 2012). This is because by nature requests are face-threatening acts (FTA) and there is a need for the speaker to 'choose between performing the FTA in the most direct and efficient manner or attempting to mitigate the effect of the FTA on the hearer's face' (Jalilifer, 2009).

Internal modifications are part of the head act (Han, 2012) and serve to mitigate or aggravate the force of a request as a downgrade or upgrader (Blum-Kulka cited in Han, 2012). Najafabadi and Paramasivam (2012: 1388) classify downgrades as syntactic (play-down, e.g. *I was wondering ...*or conditional, e.g. *... if you have time*) and lexical/phrasal (politeness marker, e.g. Can I *please* …*; embedding, e.g. *It would be great if ...*; understate, e.g. If you have *a minute ...*; appealer, e.g. *…, okay?*; down-toner, e.g. Is there *any* way I can get an extension; and consultative device, e.g. *Would you mind ...?*). Adverbial intensifier (e.g. I would be *most* grateful …) was classified under upgraders (Najafabadi and Paramasivam, 2012).

External modification devices or supportive moves are additional statements external to the head act, which support the requestive head act or set the context for it (Halupka-Rešetar, 2014). External modification devices include preparators, grounders, and disarmers, promise of reward, imposition minimizer, sweetener, pre-pre strategy, appreciation, self-introduction, confirmatory strategy and getting a pre-commitment (Najafabadi and Paramasivam, 2012).

The next part of the chapter describes the context of the study and the research design.

3.3 Description of context

The study was conducted at secondary schools in the Erongo region. Erongo is one of the thirteen regions of Namibia and comprises of Walvis Bay, Swakopmund (the regional capital),

Arandis, Usakos, Karibib and Omaruru. There were sixteen public schools in the region at the time the research was conducted. Five of the sixteen schools were located in Swakopmund and three of these schools offered Khoekhoegowab (KKG) and English as a second language (ESL). On the route to Swakopmund is a small town known as Arandis, where one secondary school which offered Khoekhoegowab and ESL is located. The study focused on secondary schools in these two towns.

As recommended in the *National Curriculum for Basic Education* (Ministry of Education (MoE), 2010), learners are to be taught in their mother tongue or a pre-dominant language from the pre-primary phase until they reach Grade 4, during which they transition to English as a medium of instruction. This means that some learners might be taught in a language other than their mother tongue if this is a pre-dominant language. In addition, because Swakopmund and Arandis are multiracial towns, a possibility of mixed marriages exists. This means that KKG may not be spoken in the home environment of all the learners.

A mother tongue-based bilingual policy also means that all learners are exposed to English as a school subject from Grade 1. Upon completion of the lower primary phase (Grade 1 – 4), learners are expected to "understand, speak, read and write English as a Second Language well enough within a limited range to continue learning through the medium of English in the next phase" (MoE, 2010). By the end of Grade 8, these learners would have been exposed to ESL as a language of learning for four years.

3.4 Research design

The study employed a cross-sectional survey design. Gay, Mills and Airasian (2009: 176) characterise a cross-sectional survey design as "one in which data are collected from selected individuals at a single point in time." In addition, they contend that cross-sectional designs provide data relatively quickly and that they are effective in providing snapshots of current behaviour, attitudes and beliefs in a population. According to Cai and Wang (2013), cross-sectional studies mainly focus on one or more speech act (request, invitation, apology, greeting

or complaint) realization strategies used by learners of different L1 backgrounds. Most of these studies have examined proficiency effects of L2 production. However, Cai and Wang (2013) cite studies on apologizing of Danish EFL learners by Trosberg (1987, 1995), Japanese ESL learners by Maeshiba, Yoshinaga, Kasper and Ross (1996), and Cantonese EFL learners by Rose (1998), which found a consistent result that L2 learners have accessed native-like realization strategies. This, according to Kasper (cited in Cai and Wang, 2013), was irrespective of proficiency.

Thus, the cross-sectional design was deemed to be appropriate for the current study in that it would provide data in relation to trends in request strategies used by native speakers of Khoekhoegowab (NSK) learning English as a second language, particularly when performing requests in their mother tongue and when performing requests in English. This made comparison of requests strategies used by NSK in Khoekhoegowab and English possible, as well as assessment of possible transference of rules from Khoekhoegowab to English. In order to assess possible transfer of rules, strategies employed by speakers of British English (BE) as a mother tongue as discussed in the literature were compared with strategies used by NSK.

The use of BE for comparison purposes may be perceived as problematic. For one, people in Namibia do not speak BE; and if at all spoken, it is done so by a small percentage of the population. Secondly, teachers responsible for teaching ESL are themselves, in most instances, L2 speakers of English. Thus, the strategies identified in this study could be learned behaviour acquired directly from the teachers and may not necessarily be attributable to effects of L1 transference. Another potential weakness concerns the researcher's reliance on existing literature in the field of cross-cultural pragmatics for strategies used by speakers of BE as a mother tongue. Although these potential concerns are valid, there is nevertheless an unwritten rule relating to the teaching of BE as a standard in schools in Namibia. This is because Cambridge International Examinations (Cambridge) serves as the syllabi and examination certification body (Government Gazette of the Republic of Namibia, 2009), following the renewed agreement between Cambridge and the Ministry of Education, Arts and Culture in March 2016. It is, therefore, important that ESL learners in Namibia strive to achieve this variety of English, even though they may never achieve a native-like proficiency.

The study utilised quantitative research methods for data collection and analysis. According to

Creswell (1994), quantitative research involves explaining of phenomena by collecting numerical data, which is analysed by statistical methods. This method is particularly useful when the researcher's interest is to quantify attitudes, opinions or behaviour (Sukamolson, n.d.). In addition, survey research – the systematic gathering of information, with the purpose of understanding and/or predicting some aspect of the behaviour of a population of interest – is popular in quantitative research.

3.4.1 Participants

Participants in this study were mother tongue speakers of KKG, who are learning English as a second language at school level. The participants included 11 females and 6 males and they ranged in age from 14 to 16. Selection criteria for the participants included the following:

a) that participants are mother tongue speakers of KKG;

b) that participants speak KKG in the home environment with their family;

c) that participants are currently formally studying KKG as a school subject;

d) that participants are currently formally studying English as their L2.

3.4.2 Sample

A total number of 170 requests were collected from 17 participants. Of this number, 85 represented requests made in KKG and another 85 represented requests made in English. Using selection criteria (see 3.4.4), 68 requests in KKG and 66 in English were selected for analysis. Thus, a total of 134 requests performed by mother tongue speakers of Khoekhoegowab across five situations constituted the sample for the study.

It is generally accepted that the sample – the number of individuals, items or events selected from a population in a way that they are characteristically representative of that population (Gay et al., 2009), be large, especially in quantitative research, as a larger sample size increases the probability of the results being applicable to the general population (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2007). However, sample size is dependent on the purpose of the study, including the

nature of the population being studied. In addition, sample size is dependent on the type of analysis to be performed as well as constraints – costs, time, finances, resources, and administrative support (Cohen et al., 2007). Potential sample participants might also be unwilling to participate in the study due to lack of time or they might have 'something to protect' (Cohen et al., 2007:109).

3.4.3 Research instruments

Two questionnaires (one in Khoekhoegowab and one in English) were used in the form of Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs) as research instruments in this study. The use of DCTs has admittedly been associated with numerous weaknesses (see 2.5.1.1 for strengths and weaknesses of DCTs). As mentioned earlier, however, despite these weaknesses, DCTs show different forms and strategies that respondents employ when confronting a given situation (Kasper and Rose, 2002). O' Keeffe et al. (cited in Beltrán-Palanques, 2014) argue that "without this methodology, it would have been difficult if not impossible to conduct such research because some speech acts are very difficult to obtain in any other way". In addition, DCTs allow researchers to collect a large amount of data in a short period of time (Houck & Gass, 1996 cited in Beltrán-Palanques, 2014; Roever, 2010 cited in Beltrán-Palanques, 2014).

The DCTs used in this study consisted of two parts. The first part solicited information on the age, gender and language background of the participants. The second part of the DCT constituted a number of situations described in writing. Provision was made for spaces where research participants could fill in what they would say in each of the described situations. In addition, the situations were imbedded with social distance and status/power of interlocutors to make cross-cultural comparison possible.

The five scenarios for the DCT in Khoekhoegowab were as follows:

> **Situation 1**
>
> You never take notes in class. You have another life science test next week. You want your friend to lend you her notes again to make copies. You go to your friend. What do

you say to her?

Situation 2

You are not feeling well. You decide to ask the school principal for permission to go home. What do you say to him?

Situation 3

Your history teacher asked your class to do individual projects on Namibia's independence. The project is due in two days and you are concerned that you might not be able to complete it in time. You decide to ask your teacher for an extension. What do you say to her?

Situation 4

You are sharing a room with your brother/sister. You are trying to study for a test, but you cannot focus because your brother/sister is playing loud music in the bedroom. What do you say to him/her?

Situation 5

You are having trouble with understanding one of your school subjects. You have heard that a number of learners have formed a study group to prepare for the upcoming examination. You have never spoken to these learners before, but you decide to speak to them about joining the study group. You approach one of the learners and say …

Below are five scenarios for the DCT in English.

Situation 6

Your teacher has sent you to the office of the principal to collect her lesson preparation file. What do you say to him when you enter his office?

Situation 7

You are struggling to complete an assignment, which is due within the next three days. You want your elder brother to help you with the assignment. What do you say to him?

Situation 8

Your school has a talent show at the weekend. All your friends will be there and you want to be there too, but you know that your father might not approve of you going out at night. What do you say to him?

Situation 9

Your school does not have enough geography textbooks and your teacher asks you to buy an expensive geography book that you will use for the year. Your friend, who was in the same grade last year, already has the book, which he used the previous year. You ask your friend to lend you his book for the year. What do you say to him?

Situation 10

You are having trouble with understanding one of your school subjects. You have heard that a number of learners have formed a study group to prepare for the upcoming examination. You have never spoken to these learners before, but you decide to speak to them about joining the study group. You approach one of the learners and say …

3.4.4 Pilot study

Researchers seldom have opportunities to explain to participants responding to a questionnaire the meaning of a particular word or question (Gay et al., 2009). Therefore, after the development of an instrument, there is a need to try out and revise the instrument when necessary before collecting the research data. The instruments used for the present study were pilot tested among a group of Grade 8 learners, who were mother tongue speakers of KKG and L2 learners of English. The purpose of the pilot study was to test the contextual appropriateness of the study in

eliciting the speech act of request. The pilot test revealed that the situations were clear and that they elicited the speech act under investigation.

In addition, the pilot testing revealed learners' disinclination to provide complete personal information. Some learners wrote the date of the pilot tests instead of their birth dates; their requests were either incomprehensible or incomplete; and in some instances, they would write what they would do in a given situation. Thus, the following exclusion criteria were developed as a result of the pilot study.

> Learners/requests falling in one or more of the categories below were excluded from the study.
> 1. Incomplete personal information (because if will be difficult to determine the language background – mother tongue speaker or not – of the learner).
> 2. Incomplete or incomprehensible requests
> 3. Learner saying what he/she would do instead of performing a request

3.4.5 Validity and reliability of measuring instruments

Tests are designed to serve a particular purpose. Thus, instruments must assist researchers in achieving that purpose, and tests must be valid and reliable. In order to ensure validity (that is, the degree to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure (Gay et al., 2009)), the discourse completion tasks were submitted to the researcher's supervisor for comments and approval. The instruments were also submitted to the Departmental Ethics Screening Committee (DESC) and the Humanities Research Ethics Committee (REC) of Stellenbosch University for comments and approval. For the purposes of reliability, the tests were pilot tested.

3.5. Procedures

3.5.1 Data collection procedures

Data collection took place at schools in the Erongo region that offer Khoekhoegowab as a mother tongue and English as a second language. Once written permission to conduct research at schools in the region, particularly in Swakopmund and Arandis, was obtained from the Regional Director of Education, principals of the schools were contacted for permission to collect data at the schools. During the Grade 8 register class periods, learners were informed of the researcher's interest to conduct research with mother tongue speakers of Khoekhoegowab. Learners were then informed of the general purpose of the study, without revealing the researcher's interest in collecting data on requestive behaviour of possible study participants. In addition, learners were informed of what would be expected of them if they participated in the study. Issues of anonymity and confidentiality were discussed. Interested learners were issued with parental consent forms to seek written permission for their participation from parents.

Only learners who returned their forms indicating approval from parents were provided with assent forms and the details of the assent form were discussed with the learners. Learners who provided written permission to participate in the research were first given the DCT in Khoekhoegowab and asked to fill in their personal details. Then learners were encouraged to respond to each situation in the Khoekhoegowab DCT as they would in real life. The situations were read to the learners one by one and learners were given time to respond to each situation after it was read. The same procedure was followed for the DCT in English.

3.5.2 Data analysis procedures

To analyse data collected from native speakers of Khoekhoegowab learning English as a second language, the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) coding scheme was used. The CCSARP organizes requesting strategies in three categories: directness levels, internal modification and external modification (Jalilifer, 2009). This study mainly focused on directness

levels. However, request perspective, internal modifications, external modifications and alerters were examined in relation to frequency of strategies used.

To determine the strategy types used by Khoekhoegowab speakers learning ESL when performing requests in their mother tongue and English, the following procedures were followed.

1. The head act was isolated and classified according to the nine levels of directness. The head act was isolated by identifying the part in the sequence which serves to realize the act independently of other elements, in line with the definition of a head act according to Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984). A frequency analysis was conducted to identify the type, frequency and percentage of overall request strategies used by Khoekhoegowab speakers in mother tongue and English as well as types of strategies used according to the different situations.

2. Data was then classified into three main levels of directness (direct, conventionally indirect and non-conventionally indirect) in order to determine the overall frequency of use of these three main strategies as well as across situations for both Khoekhoegowab and English.

3. In addition, using the head act, the overall type and frequency of the request perspective used by participants and the type and frequency of request perspective across situations in Khoekhoegowab and English were identified. Request perspective (hearer oriented, speaker oriented, hearer and speaker oriented or impersonal) has to do with evading of naming the addressee as the primary performer of the act so as to soften the effect of the imposition (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984).

4. By isolating the head act, the overall type, frequency and percentage of internal modifications used by Khoekhoegowab speakers in mother tongue and English as well as across situations were also identified.

5. A frequency analysis was also conducted to identify the type, frequency and percentage of external modifications used by Khoekhoegowab speakers learning ESL when performing requests in both mother tongue and English.

6. Then the type, frequency and percentage of alerters used were identified in order to determine how participants gain the attention of the hearers in both Khoekhoegowab and

English.

In order to determine the effects of the speech act realization patterns of requests in Khoekhoegowab on the performance of these speech acts in ESL, the following procedures were followed.

7. Speech act realisation patterns in Khoekhoegowab and English were compared for evidence of pragmatic transfer.
8. Finally, to verify if speech act realisation patterns of Khoekhoegowab learners are transferred to the target language, speech act realisation patterns of native speakers of English as determined by existing research in the field of cross-cultural pragmatics and the patterns of the Khoekhoegowab learners in L2 were compared.

3.6 Ethical considerations

Steps to ensure established ethical standards as per the institutional requirements of Stellenbosch University were followed. This means that parental consent for participation was sought before learners were provided with assent forms. Since protection of participants remains the most basic and important ethical issue in research (Gay et al., 2009), participants were ensured that they would not suffer harm as a result of their participation in the study. In addition, participants were ensured of confidentiality and anonymity, and that they were free to withdraw from the study at any point in the research if they so desired.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and analyses data collected through participants' responses to the DCTs in Khoekhoegowab (KKG) and English. It is organized according to the two research questions of the study, as set out in Chapter 1. The KKG mother tongue speaker data is presented and analysed first. This is to determine the strategies used for request performance in KKG. Secondly, the ESL data collected from mother tongue speakers of KKG (NSK) is presented and analysed. The ESL data is used to determine strategies used by NSK for requests in ESL. Finally, the analyses of the ESL requests made by KKG speakers are compared with existing analyses of request performances in standard British English (BE). In other words, the BE data drawn from existing research of Memarian (2012), Mahani (2012), Konakahara (2011) and Ogiermann (2009) serves as a baseline for the study. This is to determine the possible effect of speech act realization patterns of requests in KKG on the performance of these speech acts in ESL.

In each of the major sections of the chapter, overall strategies used in the performance of requests are examined, followed by an examination of request strategies used in different situations, including directness levels, request perspective, modification devices and alerters used. Requests are analysed following the framework for cross-linguistic analysis of speech act patterns as discussed in Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984).

4.2   Speech act realization patterns of requests in Khoekhoegowab

This section speaks to research question one, with particular focus on syntactic strategies used when performing requests. Other aspects considered are the request perspective, modification devices and

types of alerters used.

4.2.1 Strategy types used for performance of requests in Khoekhoegowab

The request strategy is the choice of level of directness used by a speaker for request performance. Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) identify nine distinct levels of directness (strategy types), which are expected to manifest in all languages (see Chapter 2, Table 2.6). The nine strategy types include the mood derivable/imperatives, explicit performative, hedged performative, locution derivable/obligation statements, scope stating/want statements, language specific suggestory formula, reference to preparatory conditions/query preparatory, strong hints and mild hints.

To determine the type of strategies used by speakers of KKG when performing requests in their mother tongue, data was collected by means of a written DCT in KKG. The DCT comprised of five different situations. Table 4.1 presents a summary of the overall strategies used for requests in KKG. This is followed by detailed discussion of each strategy in turn.

Table 4.1: Overall strategies used for requests in Khoekhoegowab (n=68)

Strategy	Description	Frequency	Percentage
Mood derivable	Utterances in which the grammatical mood of the verb signals illocutionary force (e.g. *Leave me alone, Clean up that mess.*)	39	57.4
Explicit performatives	Utterances in which the illocutionary force is explicitly named (e.g. *I am asking you to clean up the mess.*)	8	11.8
Want statement	The utterance expresses the speaker's desire that the event denoted in the proposition come true (e.g. *I would like to borrow your notes.*).	4	5.9

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Query preparatory	Utterances containing reference to preparatory conditions (e.g. ability, willingness) as conventionalized in any specific language (e.g. *Can I borrow your notes?*).	13	19.1
Strong hints	Utterances containing partial reference to object of element needed for the implementation of the act (e.g. *I wasn't at the lecture yesterday.* Intent: borrowing lecture notes).	2	2.9
Mild hints	The locution contains no elements which are of immediate relevance to the intended illocution/preposition (e.g. *You've been busy here.* Intent: getting the hearer to clean the kitchen).	2	2.9

Table 4.1 shows that learners use a variety of strategies when making requests in KKG. The most frequently used strategies according to the scale of (in)directness was the mood derivable (57.4%), query preparatory (19.1%) and the explicit performative (11.8%), while the least frequently used strategies were strong hints (2.9%), mild hints (2.9%) and want statements (5.9%).

a) Mood derivable

In the mood derivable, "the grammatical mood of the verb in the utterance marks its illocutionary force as a request" (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984: 202). As shown in table 4.1, *leave me alone* or *Clean up that mess* exemplify the mood derivable strategy. The KKG equivalents of the *mood derivable* are exemplified below.

(1) *Sa xoa‖nâxūna au te re i ta si xoa ‖nâ.*

    sa   xoa‖nâxūna   au   te   re

    your   transcriptions let.have   me   Polite.PTCL

    i   ta   si   xoa‖nâ

    so   I   AUX   transcribe

  "Do lend me your notes to copy."

(2) *Sa xoa‖nâxūna toxoba ma te re i ta si xoa‖nâ.*

sa	*xoa‖nâxūna*	*toxoba*	*ma*	*te*	*re*
your	transcriptions	please	give	me	Polite.PTCL

i	*ta*	*si*	*xoa‖nâ*
so	I	AUX	transcribe

"Please do give me your notes to copy."

The Curriculum Committee for Khoekhoegowab (2003: 76, 106) provides the following sentence examples in which the word *re* in (1) and (2) is used. In the first two examples, *Mû re!* ("Do look!") and *Mā te re!* ("Do give me!"), *re* is regarded as a complimentary particle and appears to be an equivalent of *do.* However, in the translated version of *Mîba te re matis ge axaba a hō !khaisa* ("Tell me how you found the boy") and *Mamas ai dî re stors ‖ga khom a !gû ‖khā !khai-e* ("Ask mother if we may go to the shop") *do* is absent, which might imply an alternative function of *re.*

According to Hoymann (2010), in ‡Ākhoe Hai‖om, which is one of the varieties of KKG, the imperative mood, for instance, is marked by *re* as in *Oa **re** oms kha* ("Go home"). Although Haacke and Eiseb (2002: 108) concur that *re* is an imperative marker, they also equate it to *please* as in *‖Ūba te re!* ("Please forgive me!"). However, in sentence (2), it is evident that *toxoba* instead of *re* is a direct equivalent of *please* as in *Hui te re, toxoba* ("Do help me, please") (Haacke and Eiseb, 2002: 133). (Haacke and Eiseb also note (2002: 133) that *toxoba* is a borrowing of either Afrikaans *tog* or German *doch*.) Thus, sentences (1) and (2) are categorized as mood derivative as proposed by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984), because the imperative marker *re* (Hoymann, 2010) is indicative of the grammatical mood of the verb, which in turn signals the illocutionary force of the request. A blunt imperative would be *‖Ubate* instead of *‖Ubate re*. Thus, *re* functions to soften the impact of the request on the hearer and is therefore considered a politeness marker.

b) Query preparatory

The query preparatory is characterized by utterances containing reference to preparatory conditions (e.g. ability, willingness) as conventionalized in any specific language (e.g. *Can I borrow your*

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notes, or *Would you mind moving your car*). Examples from participant responses to the DCT in KKG are presented below.

(3) *Omsa !oa oa ‖khā ta ā i ta kliniksa !oa i?*

omsa		*!oa*	*oa*		*‖khā*	*ta*	*ā*
house		to	return		can/may	I	TAM

i	*ta*	*kliniksa*		*!oa*	*i*
so	I	clinic		to	go

"Can/may I go home so I [can] go to the clinic?"

(4) *O du ‖aeba nog [noxoba] a ǀaroba te ‖khā?*

o	*du*			*‖aeba*	*nog* [noxoba]	*a*
CONJ	you (COM.PL)			time	still	TAM

ǀaro-ba	*te*	*‖khā*
Add-APPL	me	can

"Can you give me more time?"

In sentences (3) and (4), ability is expressed by the word *‖khā.* According to Haacke and Eiseb (2010: 86), *‖khā* translates as "be able to, can, be capable of" and "may". As evident from the above examples, there is an absence of *re* (imperative marker) in the two sentences. However, the expression *‖khā* is used in both examples. *‖Khā* refers to the ability or capacity of the subject to perform an action. If the hearer grants permission in the case of (3) above, the speaker benefits through being enabled to go home. In the utterance *Toxoba ǂga ‖khā ta a* ("Please can/may I join"), the speaker appeals to the hearer for permission that will enable him/her to join the study group. Thus, *‖khā* marks the utterance as a request in which reference is made to preparatory conditions. In addition, according to Hoymann (2010), the interrogative is marked by the absence of the imperative marker *re* and the declarative marker *ge.* The interrogative can also be used for request performance.

c) Explicit performative

In the explicit performative, illocutionary force is clearly named (e.g. *I am asking you to clean up the mess,* or *I tell you to leave me alone*). An example from learner responses in KKG is presented below.

(**5**) *Tita ge toxoba ra ǂgan du i du |gam tsêro ra ti projeks tawa |aroba te.*

tita	*ge*	*toxoba*	*ra*		
I	DECL	please	PROG		

ǂgan	*du*		*i*	*du*		*|gam*	*tsê-ro*
ask	you (COM.PL)		so	you (COM.PL)		two	day-DIM

ra		*ti*	*projeks*	*tawa*	*|aro-ba*		*te*
PROG		my	project	at	add.APPLIC		me

"I am please requesting that you add two more little days for me to my project."

In this example, the utterance explicitly states the act (of requesting) the speaker is performing. Thus, *am requesting* is a performative verb, which makes explicit what act the speaker is performing. This example is, therefore, categorized as explicit performative.

d) Strong hints

Strong hints contain partial reference to an element needed for the implementation of the act (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984). For example, the utterance *I wasn't at the lecture yesterday* is used when the intent is to borrow lecture notes. An example from learner responses in KKG is presented below.

(**6**) *Tita ge nî ‖kha‖khasen se ī xūige aibe ‖namba te re.*

tita	*ge*	*nî*	*‖kha‖khasen*	*se ī*	
I	DECL	must	learn	supposed	

xūige	*aibe*	*‖nam-ba*		*te*	*re*
since	first	wait-APPLIC		me	Polite.PTCL

"I am supposed to study so do first wait for me."

The first part of the sentence (*Tita ge nî ‖kha‖khasen se ī,* "I am supposed to study") contains an element which is of immediate relevance to the intended illocution. Thus, it qualifies this utterance as a strong hint because the intention of the utterance is for the sibling to reduce the loud music so as to allow the speaker opportunity to study.

e) Mild hints

In mild hints, the locution contains no elements which are of immediate relevance to the intended illocution or preposition. For example, in the utterance *You've been busy here* the intention of the speaker is to get the hearer to clean the mess in the kitchen. Examples from participant responses to the DCT in KKG are presented below.

(7) *Toxoba briefsa xoaba te re.*

toxoba	*briefsa*	*xoa-ba*	*te*	*re*
please	letter	write-APPLIC	me	Polite.PTCL

"Please do write a letter for me."

In the above example, the intention of the speaker is for the hearer (principal) to grant him/her permission to leave school. The utterance contains no elements relevant to the intended illocution. Thus, the utterance is characterized as a mild hint, although it could at the same time be considered a politely formulated request.

f) Want statements

Want statements (scope stating) are utterances that express the speaker's desire that the event denoted in the proposition come true. In other words, "the utterance expresses the speaker's intentions, desire or feeling *vis a vis* the fact that the hearer do X" (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984: 202). Examples of want statements include *I would like to borrow your notes* or *I really wish you'd stop bothering me.* Similar statements were made for requests in KKG as shown in the

example below.

(8) *Tita ge noxoba ǀui tsērosa ma ǀarohe ǂgao.*

tita	*ge*	*noxoba*	*ǀui*	*tsē-ro-sa*
I	DECL	still	one	day-DIM-FEM.SG (?)

ma	*ǀaro-he*	*ǂgao*		
give	add-PASS	want		

"I want to be given one more little day."

In the above example, the speaker expresses the desire to be given an additional day to complete the assigned task. Thus, this example is categorized as representing a want statement.

The next section discusses preferred strategies for request performance in KKG according to the five DCT situations.

4.2.2 Strategies used for requests in Khoekhoegowab according to situations

The use of a particular strategy is determined by contextual factors such as social distance and power relations between interlocutors, including the degree of imposition involved (Brown and Levinson, 1978).

Aribi (n.d.) claims that asking a favour from a friend is less challenging than asking a favour from a superior (relative power) and that it is less challenging to perform a face –threatening act with an acquaintance than with a stranger (social distance). In addition, providing directions to someone is easier than providing a lift (degree of imposition). Table 4.2 summarises the type of strategies used by mother tongue speakers of KKG according to situations. This is followed by more detailed discussion of each situation in turn.

Table 4.2: Strategies used for requests in Khoekhoegowab according to situations

Strategy / Situation	Mood derivable		Explicit performative		Want statements		Query preparatory		Strong hints		Mild hints	
	f	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*
Life science note book	14	*100*	0	*0*	0	*0*	0	*0*	0	*0*	0	*0*
Permission to leave school	4	*28.6*	5	*35.7*	0	*0*	4	*28.6*	0	*0*	1	*7.1*
Project extension	9	*60*	2	*13.3*	1	*6.7*	2	*13.3*	1	*6.7*	0	*0*
Reducing loud music	10	*76.9*	1	*7.7*	0	*0*	0	*0*	1	*7.7*	1	*7.7*
Wanting to join study group	2	*16.7*	0	*0*	3	*25*	7	*58.3*	0	*0*	0	*0*

Situation 1

The first situation is characterised by an equal status relationship in which the respondent (a learner) requests a friend (fellow learner) to lend her a life science note book to copy notes from in preparation for the upcoming test. The 14 respondents who responded to this situation used the mood derivable strategy to perform the request. Examples of requests made by the respondents in KKG include the following:

(9) *Sa xoa‖nâxūna au te re i ta si xoa ‖nâ.*

sa	*xoa‖nâxūna*	*au*	*te*	*re*
your	transcriptions	let.have	me	Polite.PTCL
i	*ta*	*si*	*xoa‖nâ*	
so	I	AUX	transcribe	

"Do lend me your notes to copy.

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(10) *(Toxoba) sa ûib di ǂans ǂkhaniba ǀkhuwi te re.*

(toxoba)	*sa*	*ûib*	*di*	*ǂans*	*ǂkhaniba*
(please)	your	life	POSS	knowledge	book

ǀkhuwi	*te*	*re*
lend	me	Polite.PTCL

"(Please) do lend me your life science book."

(11) *Sa xoaǁnâxūna toxoba ma te re i ta si xoaǁnâ ûib ǂans tina.*

sa	*xoaǁnâxūna*	*toxoba*	*ma*	*te*	*re*
your	transcriptions	please	give	me	Polite.PTCL

i	*ta*	*si*	*xoaǁnâ*	*ûib*	*ǂans*	*tina*
so	I	AUX	transcribe	life	knowledge	?

"Please do give me your life science notes so that I [can] copy them."

Situation 2

The second situation involves a request by the respondent (a learner) to the principal (higher status/social dominance) for permission to leave the school premises. The most frequently used strategies in this case were the explicit performative (35.7%), mood derivable (28.6%) and the query preparatory (28.6%). The mild hint (7.1%) represented the least frequently used strategy as only two of the 15 respondents used this strategy. Below are examples of some of the strategies used by the respondents for situation 2.

(12) *Toxoba ta ge koro ǂgansen i ta oms ǁga ǁaru.*

toxoba	*ta*	*ge*	*koro*	*ǂgansen*
please	I	DECL	PROG	request

i	*ta*	*oms*	*ǁga*	*ǁaru*
so	I	house	to	return.home

"I am asking for permission to go home please."

(13) *Oa tamas ga io du so⎮ôana au te re.*

oa	*tama-s*	*ga*	*io*			
return	NEG-?	POT	or.if			

du		*so⎮ôana*	*au*	*te*	*re*
you (COM.PL)		medicine	let.have	me	Polite.PTCL

"Or if I may not go home, do let me have some medicine."

(14) *Omsa !oa oa ‖khā ta ā i ta kliniksa !oa i?*

omsa		*!oa*	*oa*	*‖khā*	*ta*	*ā*
house		to	return	can/may	I	TAM

i	*ta*	*kliniksa*	*!oa*	*i*
so	I	clinic	to	go

"Can/may I go home so I [can] go to the clinic?

(15) *Toxoba briefsa xoaba te re.*

toxoba	*briefsa*	*xoa-ba*		*te*	*re*
please	letter	write-APPLIC		me	Polite.PTCL

"Please do write a letter for me." [As request for permission to go home.]

Situation 3

Situation 3 involved a request by the respondent (a learner) for the teacher (higher status/social dominance) to delay the submission of the history project which is due in two days' time. Once again, the mood derivable (60%) was the most frequently used strategy, followed by the explicit performative (13.3%) and the query preparatory (13.3%). The least frequently used strategy was the want statement (6.7%). Examples include:

(16) *Toxoba du nē projeksa mâi‡uiba da.*

toxoba	*du*	*nē*	*projeksa*	*mâi‡ui-ba*	*da.*
please	you (COM.PL)	this	project	postpone-APPLIC	us

"Please extend the project [due date] for us."

(17) *Tita ge toxoba ra ‡gan du i du |gam tsēro ra ti projeks tawa |aroba te*

tita	*ge*	*toxoba*	*ra*
I	DECL	please	PROG

‡gan	*du*	*i*	*du*
ask	you (COM.PL)	so	you (COM.PL)

|gam	*tsē-ro*
two	day-DIM

ra	*ti*	*projeks*	*tawa*	*|aro-ba*	*te*
PROG	my	project	at	add-APPLIC	me

"I am please requesting that you add two more little days for me for my project."

(18) *Tita ge noxoba |ui tsērosa ma |arohe ‡gao.*

tita	ge	noxoba	|ui	tsē-ro-sa
I	DECL	still	one	day-DIM-FEM.SG (?)

ma	|aro-he	‡gao
give	add-PASS	want

"I want to be given one more little day."

(19) *O du ‖aeba nog [noxoba] a |aroba te ‖khā?*

o	*du*	*‖aeba*	*nog* [noxoba]	*a*
CONJ	you (COM.PL)	time	still	TAM

|aro-ba	*te*	*‖khā*
Add-APPL	me	can

"Can you give me more time?"

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Situation 4

In the fourth situation, the respondent (a learner), who is trying to study for a test, requests the sibling to reduce the volume of the music. In this case, the majority (10 out of 13) of the respondents, representing 76.9%, used the mood derivable strategy, while the explicit performative, strong hint and mild hint were used by one respondent each, representing 23% collectively. Examples of strategies used for situation 4 include the following.

(20) *Toxoba !auga sî !ĝa re.*

toxoba	*!auga*	*sî*	*!ĝa*	*re*
please	outside	get.to	listen	Polite.PTCL

"Please do go and listen [to your music] outside."

(21) *Tita ge nî ‖kha‖khasen se ī xūige aibe ‖namba te re.*

tita	*ge*	*nî*	*‖kha‖khasen*	*se ī*
I	DECL	must	learn	supposed

xūige	*aibe*	*‖nam-ba*	*te*	*re*
since	first	wait-APPLIC	me	Polite.PTCL

"I am supposed to study so do first wait for me."

(22) *Tita ge ra ‖kha‖khasen ǂgao toxoba.*

tita	*ge*	*ra*	*‖kha‖khasen*	*ǂgao*	*toxoba*
I	DECL	PROG	learn	want	please

"I want to study please." [As request to sibling to reduce or switch off music.]

(23) *Hui te re i ta nē ‖aeba sîsenū ‖kha‖khasens !aroma.*

hui	*te*	*re*	*i*
help	me	Polite.PTCL	so

ta	*nē*	*‖aeba*	*sîsenū*	*‖kha‖khasens*	*!aroma*
I	this	time	use.work.with	lesson	for.the.reason.of

"Do help me so that I can use this time for studying."

Situation 5

In situation 5 the respondent (a learner) approaches another learner with whom he/she has never spoken before in an effort to obtain permission to join their study group. Seven of the 12 respondents representing 58.3% used the query preparatory strategy, while three respondents representing 25% used the want statement and two respondents representing

16.7% used the mood derivable strategy. Examples of strategies used include:

> **(24)** T*oxoba ǂgâǁkhā ta a?*
>
> | *toxoba* | *ǂgâ* | *ǁkhā* | *ta* | *a* |
> |---|---|---|---|---|
> | please | enter | can/may | I | TAM |
>
>   "Please can/may I join [your study group]?"

> **(25)** *Tita ge nē ǁkhāǁkhāsen !nans !nâ ra ǂgâ ǂgao.*
>
> | *tita* | *ge* | *nē* | *ǁkhāǁkhāsen* | *!nans* | *!nâ* |
> |---|---|---|---|---|---|
> | I | DECL | this | learn | group | in |
>
> | *ra* | *ǂgâ* | *ǂgao* |
> |---|---|---|
> | PROG | enter | want |
>
>   "I want to join this study group."

> **(26)** *Toxoba du tita tsîna sadu di ǁkhāǁkhāsen !nans !nâ xoa-te re.*
>
> | *toxoba* | *du* | *tita* | *tsîna* |
> |---|---|---|---|
> | please | you (COM.PL) | I | CONJ |
>
> | *sadu* | *di* | *ǁkhāǁkhāsen* | *!nans* | *!nâ* |
> |---|---|---|---|---|
> | you(COM.PL) | POSS | learn | group | in |
>
> | *xoa-te* | *re* |
> |---|---|
> | write-me | Polite.PTCL |
>
>   "Please do enrol me in your study group.'

When considering choice of strategies for request performance in KKG according to situations, similarities and differences are evident. In situation 2 (permission to leave school) and situation 3 (project extension), interlocutors (principal and teacher) are superior to the learners and the same strategies (mood derivable, explicit performatives and query preparatory) were used for request performance, albeit to varying degrees. Learners used the mood derivable strategy more frequently in situation 3 (60%) than in situation 2 (28.6%), whereas the explicit performative and the query preparatory were used more frequently in situation 2 (35.7% and 28.6% respectively) than in situation 3 (13.3% and 7.7% respectively). Additionally, strong hints were not a preferred strategy in both situations, while mild hints were used in situation 2 but not in situation 3. Despite the fact that want statements were not preferred in situation 2, they were used in situation 3.

On the other hand, situation 1 (life science note book) and situation 5 (study group) represent equal status relationships, unlike situation 2 and situation 3. However, situation 5 is characterised by social distance between interlocutors, because the leaners have never spoken to each other before. Although the mood derivable strategy was used in both situations, it was used less frequently in situation 5 (16.7%) than in situation 1 (100%). While the mood derivable was the only preferred strategy in situation 1, learners opted for the query preparatory (58%) and want statements (25%) in addition to the mood derivable strategy for situation 5.

Another situation where the mood derivable strategy was highly preferred was situation 4 (76.9%). This could perhaps be due to limited to no social distance between interlocutors, although the age of the sibling was not specified. Other strategies used to a lesser degree include the explicit performative, strong hints and mild hints (at 7.7% each). These strategies were not preferred for request performance in situation 1 and situation 5.

4.2.3 Levels of directness for requests in Khoekhoegowab

Strategies used by mother tongue speakers when performing requests are categorised according to three main levels of directness, namely (i) direct (e.g. *Please lend me a pen*), (ii) conventionally indirect (e.g. *Could you lend me a pen*) and (iii) non-conventionally indirect (e.g. *Do you have a pen?*) (Taguchi, 2008).

Direct requests are indicated as such by grammatical, lexical and semantic items and are likely to include imperatives. While the use of modal verbs represents conventionally indirect requests (Tatton, 2008), the non-conventionally indirect requests are made by "partial reference to the requested act" (Taguchi, 2008: 514).

Indirect requests are preferred when there is a need to minimize the degree of imposition of the request on the hearer (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984). Thus, the preference for direct requests by speakers of Khoekhoegowab implies the use of other means to mitigate the impact of the request on the hearer. These manipulations may take the form of internal modifications (localised in the head act) or external modifications (within the immediate context of the head act) (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984; Trosberg, 1995).

Table 4.3 summarises the frequency of the direct and indirect strategies used by learners when performing requests in KKG. This is followed by a more detailed discussion of each level in turn.

Table 4.3: Frequency of direct and indirect strategies used in Khoekhoegowab

Strategy type	Frequency of strategy	Percentage
Direct	51	*75*
Conventionally indirect	13	*19.1*
Non-conventionally indirect	4	*5.9*
Total	68	*100*

As is evident from table 4.3, respondents mostly used direct strategies when performing requests. The most frequently used direct strategies (see table 4.1) include the mood derivable *(switch off your music)* and the explicit performatives *(I just came to ask for permission so that principal can allow me to go home).* The want statement was the least preferred direct strategy used, while the hedged performatives and obligation statements were not used at all. Even though respondents used indirect strategies, they were the least preferred means of realising requests in the mother tongue. Non-conventionally indirect strategies (strong hint and mild hint) were the least preferred and represent only 5.9% of overall main strategies used, while the conventionally indirect

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strategies (query preparatory) represent 19.1%.

Table 4.4 summarises the frequency of direct and indirect strategies used by learners when performing requests in KKG according to different situations.

Table 4.4: Frequency of main strategies used for requests in Khoekhoegowab according to situations

Strategy / Situation	Direct		Conventionally indirect		Non-conventionally indirect	
	f	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*
Life science note book	14	*100*	0	*0*	0	*0*
Permission to leave school	9	*64.3*	4	*28.6*	1	*7.1*
Project extension	12	*80*	2	*13.3*	1	*6.7*
Reducing loud music	11	*85*	0	*0*	2	*15*
Study group	5	*42*	7	*58*	0	*0*

As table 4.4 shows, respondents mostly relied on direct strategies, but in varying degrees, to perform requests for situation 1 (life science note book), situation 3 (project extension), situation 4 (reducing loud music) and situation 2 (permission to leave school). These situations represent:

i) equal status relationships where the speaker has no social dominance over the hearer and where the level of imposition is high (situation 1)

ii) unequal status relationships where the hearer has social dominance over the speaker; thus, the level of imposition is low (situation 2 and 3)

iii) equal status relationships where the speaker has no social dominance over the hearer and where the level of imposition is low (situation 4)

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The use of direct strategies falls below 50% in situation 5, and there is a shift to conventionally indirect strategies. Situation 5, as in the case of situation 4, is characterised by an equal status relationship, where the speaker has no dominance over the hearer. However, the hearer is a stranger and it has been established that performing a request with an acquaintance is easier than performing a request with a stranger (Aribi, n.d.). Additionally, according to Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984), preference for indirect strategies points to a speaker's need to minimize the degree of imposition of the request on the hearer.

4.2.4 Request perspective used by speakers of Khoekhoegowab

The request perspective has to do with evading of naming the addressee as the primary performer of the act so as to soften the effect of the imposition (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984). Table 4.5 summarises the frequency of overall request perspectives used by learners when performing requests in KKG.

Table 4.5: Overall request perspectives used by speakers of Khoekhoegowab

Request perspective	Frequency	Percentage
Hearer-oriented	48	70.6
Speaker-oriented	19	27.9
Hearer- and speaker-oriented	1	1.5
Total	68	100

As is evident from Table 4.5, 48 of the 68 requests collected from speakers of KKG were hearer-oriented requests, representing 70.6% of total requests. Speaker-oriented (27.9%) and hearer-speaker oriented (1.5%) requests appeared to be the least preferred strategy when making requests in KKG. While speaker-oriented requests emphasize the role of the speaker in the speech event and are characterised by avoidance of naming the hearer as the principal performer of the act, hearer-oriented requests emphasize the role of the hearer in the speech event (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984).

Table 4.6 shows the frequency of the request perspective used by learners in different situations when performing requests in KKG.

Table 4.6: Request perspective of Khoekhoegowab speakers according to situations

Request perspective	Life science note book		Permission to leave school		Project extension		Reducing loud music		Wanting to join study	
	f	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*
Hearer-oriented	14	*100*	4	*28.6*	13	*86.7*	12	*92.3*	5	*41.7*
Speaker-oriented	0	*0*	10	*71.4*	2	*13.3*	1	*7.7*	6	*50*
Hearer-Speaker	0	*0*	0	*0*					1	*8.33*
Total	14	*100*	14	*100*	15	*100*	13	*100*	12	*100*

Table 4.6 clearly shows learners' preference for hearer-oriented requests across situations. Hearer-oriented requests were preferred in both equal status relationships (situation 1=100%) and unequal status relationships (situation 3=86.7%). However, preference for hearer-oriented requests decreased in situation 2 (28.6%) and situation 4 (41.7%), and preference shifted to speaker-oriented requests, particularly in situation 2 (71.4%). Speaker-oriented requests emphasize the role of the speaker in the speech event and are characterised by avoidance of naming the hearer as the principal performer of the act (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984). Thus, by emphasizing the role of the speaker, requests in KKG are made less face-threatening or are softened to minimize the impact of the imposition on the hearer.

4.2.5 Modification devices used by speakers of Khoekhoegowab

Speakers have modification devices at their disposal alongside a choice of directness levels for softening or increasing the request impact (Trosberg, 1995). These modifications may be internal

or external to the requestive head act (see Chapter 2, pp. 14-17). Internal modification devices include downgraders (lexical and syntactic) and upgraders. According to Hassan and Rangasawmy (2014:56-57), lexical downgraders decrease the illocutionary force of a request and include down-toners *(Could I **possibly/maybe** have some of them),* politeness markers *(Could you bring me some articles, **please**),* understaters *(Excuse me! Can you speak **a bit** louder, please),* past tense modals *(**Could** you open the window please),* consultative devices *(**Would you mind** if we rescheduled to another day?),* hedges *(Is it **somehow** possible to meet another day?),* aspect *(I was wonder**ing** if you were available to meet some time over the holidays)* and marked modality *(Excuse me please, **may** I pass?).* On the other hand, syntactic downgraders mitigate the force of the request and include conditional clauses *(I was wondering **if** you could bring me some articles…),* embedding (appreciative: *I **would really appreciate it** if …*/ tentative: *I **wonder if** you could speak up…),* negation *(You **can't** speak a bit louder?),* and tag questions *(You can speak louder, **can't** you?).* Upgraders consist of overstaters *(I am in **real** need of some articles …)* and intensifiers *(It would be **really** helpful/ I came to tell you that I have a **very urgent** dental appointment)* because they increase the impact of the request utterance (Hassan & Rangasawmy, 2014: 57).

Table 4.7 shows the overall type, frequency and percentage of internal modification devices used by KKG speakers when making requests in their mother tongue.

Table 4.7: Internal modification devices used for requests in Khoekhoegowab

Frequency / Device	Overall	Situation 1	Situation 2	Situation 3	Situation 4	Situation 5
Syntactic downgrader 1) Play-down/past						
2) interrogative	17		6	1	1	9
Lexical downgrader	33	9	6	4	7	7
4) hedges/	3	-	1	-	2	-
5) consultative	1	-	-	1	-	-
Lexical upgrader	1	-	-	1	-	-
Total	56	9	1	6	1	1

Of the 65 requests collected from speakers of KKG as a mother tongue, internal modification

devices were used 56 times. Syntactic downgraders represent 18 (32.14%) internal modification devices used and include play-down/past tense ("I *was wondering if* you could allow me to join your study group"), and interrogatives ("*Can you* give me more time?" or "*May* I go home?"). While syntactic downgraders increase the possibility of the request being rejected, they also limit the impact of a refusal on the requester's face (Aldhulaee, 2011). As Trosberg (1995: 10) explains, syntactic modifications "distance the requests from reality". As is evident from Table 7, the interrogative was the most preferred syntactic downgrader, particularly in situation 2 and situation 5. As mentioned earlier, situation 2 represents an unequal status relationship where the hearer has social dominance over the speaker, while situation 5 represents an equal status relationship but in this case the hearer is a stranger to the speaker.

The lexical downgraders, on the other hand, represent 38 (67.85%) of the total modification devices used while the lexical upgraders were used one time only, representing 1.78%. As a downgrader the marker *toxoba* "please" was the most preferred (58.92%) modification device used, while the hedges/understaters ("*Help me* to use this time to study" and "I am requesting that you please add two more *little* days for me to do the project.") and consultative devices ("*Please* lend me your life science notebook" *or* "I am asking for permission to go home *please*") were the least preferred representing 5.35% and 1.78% respectively. Understaters are defined as elements by means of which the speaker minimizers parts of the proposition, while through the use of consultative devices, the speaker seeks to involve the hearer and bids for his/her co-operation (Blum-Kulka et. al., 1984). Examples of understaters include *a bit*, *a little, a second* or *a minute* and elements such as *would you mind, do you think, is it possible, would it be all right* and *is it all right* represent consultative devices (Aldhulaee, 2011).

Another least preferred internal modification device is the lexical *upgrader*, specifically the intensifier (I am asking for *a lot of help* for you to postpone this project for us). According to Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984: 204), intensifiers are 'elements by means of which the speaker over- represents the reality denoted in the proposition'.

Han (2012) found that the most frequently used external modification devices in decreasing

order included grounders, preparatory, disarmers, enquirers and getting pre-commitments, promise of reward and cost minimizers. Table 4.8 below shows the overall type, frequency and percentage of external modification devices used by KKG speakers for making requests in their mother tongue.

Table 4.8: External modification devices used for requests in Khoekhoegowab

Frequency Device	Overall	Situation 1	Situation 2	Situation 3	Situation 4	Situation5
1) Grounders	46	8	12	11	8	7
2) Imposition minimizers	3	1	-	-	2	-
3) Apologies	1	1	-	-	-	-
4) Pre-commitment	2	-	-	1	-	1
5) Promise of reward	1	-	-	-	1	-
6) Combinations	3	2	-	-	1	-
Total	56	12	12	12	12	8

Table 4.8 shows that a total number of 56 external modification devices were used when performing requests in KKG as a mother tongue. *Grounders* are the most preferred modification device in all situations. According to Aldhulaee (2011), grounders include reasons, explanations or justifications for the request provided before or after the head act. Giving reasons may be regarded as the speaker's way of showing consideration for the hearer or it can be seen as a speaker's anticipation for the hearer to be more understanding (Han, 2012). Examples of grounders include the following.

Beloved friend, please lend me your note book to (copy notes).

I did not copy notes as I was feeling very tired.

Principal, *I am not feeling well today* and I am asking for permission to go home.

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Imposition minimizers, getting a pre-commitment, promise of reward, apologies and promise of reward were the least preferred external modification devices for requests in KKG.

4.2.6 Alerters used by speakers of Khoekhoegowab

Alerters are formal and informal attention getters and greetings, naming strategies and terms of endearment (Lorenzo-Dus and Bou-Franch, 2003). Thus, alerters represent the way speakers gain the attention of the hearers. Table 4.9 shows the type, frequency and percentage of alerters used for requests in KKG.

Table 4.9: Alerters used for requests in Khoekhoegowab (N=66)

Alerters \ Frequency	Overall	Situation 1	Situation 2	Situation 3	Situation 4	Situation 5
Attention getters a) Formal (e.g. *excuse me*)	0	-	-	-	-	-
b) Informal (e.g. *hi* or *hello*)	0	-	-	-	-	-
c) Greetings (e.g. *good morning Sir/Principal*)	8	-	4	1	-	3
d) Self-introductions	0	-	-	-	-	-
Terms of address a) Titles (e.g. *Professor*)	16	-	8	8	-	-
b) Roles (e.g. *waiter/brother/ father*)	0	-	-	-	-	-
c) Names (e.g. Corien)	1	1	-	-	-	-
Endearment terms (e.g. *dude*, *sweetheart* or *daddy/my father*)	27	9	2	5	11	-
None /no alerter	14	4	-	-	2	8
Total alerters used	52	10	14	14	11	3

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According to table 4.9, attention getters (greetings), terms of address (titles and names) and endearment terms were used for request performance in KKG. The type of alerters used varied according to the situation. However, the most preferred alerters across situations were terms of reference (51.92%). Terms of address (30.76% overall) were restricted to situation 2 and 3, while the naming strategy (1.92% overall) was only used in situation 1. Greetings constituted 15.38% of the total alerters used, while formal and informal attention getters and self-introductions were not preferred in any of the situations. Examples of alerters used for requests in KKG include the following.

(27) *!Gâi*   *tsēs,*   *Skoldanatse*
     good   day   Headmaster

(28) *!Gâi*   *‖goas,*   *‖gau!nâ-aose*
     good   morning   Teacher (female)

(29) *Mati*   *sa?*
     how   you (FEM.SG)
     "How are you?"

(30) *Mî*   *du*   *re*
     Say   you (COM.PL)   Polite. PTCL
     "How are you?"

Terms of address:

(31) *Skoldanatse*
     Headmaster

(32) *Ashleen*
     [Name of person]

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(33) ǁ*Gau!nâ-aose*

Teacher (female)

Endearment terms:

(34) ǀ*Namsa*   ǁ*gau!nâ-aose*

Beloved   Teacher (female)

(35) *Ti   skoldanase*

My   Headmistress

(36) ǀ*Namsa*   ǀ*hōsase*

Beloved   age-mate (female)

(37) *Ti ǀhōsase/ǀhōtse*

My age-mate (female/male)

(38) *Ti   ǀnamsa   !gâro*

My   beloved   younger brother/sister

It is evident from examples (28) to (31) that speakers of KKG used more formal greetings when addressing adults (for example, in (28) when addressing the principal and in (29) when addressing the teacher), while less formal greetings were preferred for age mates as in example (30). Example (31) represent a greeting normally directed at adults as can be deduced from the use of the word *du,* which is a plural equivalent of the pronoun *you.* However, in this context *du* ('you') is used when addressing the principal or the teacher as a sign of respect rather than to indicate number. On the other hand, terms of address and endearment terms were used across multiple situations.

4.3 Speech act realization patterns for requests in English

This section addresses research question 2: What are the effects – if any – of the speech act realisation patterns of requests in KKG on the performance of these speech acts in ESL? To answer this question, the strategies used by mother tongue speakers of KKG for request performance in ESL are first identified. These are then compared with those used in the performance of requests by native speakers of standard British English (BE) as explicated in the available academic literature. Any differences found will be examined for evidence of any effects that appear to be explicable *only* in terms of transference of the KKG strategies identified earlier. It is acknowledged that this approach is limited both by its reliance for comparative purposes on existing studies of British English and its reliance on written questionnaires. The study nevertheless has value as a preliminary approach and in its identification of potential transference effects that would justify further and more detailed study in future.

4.3.1.1 Strategy types used for performance of requests in English

Request strategies refer to the choice of directness level preferred by a speaker when performing requests. As discussed in section 2.3.1, there are nine strategy types: mood derivable, explicit performative, hedged performative, locution derivable, scope stating, language specific suggestory formula, reference to preparatory conditions, strong hints and mild hints. To determine the type of strategies used by speakers of KKG for making requests in English, data was collected through a written DCT in English. The DCT comprised of five different situations. Table 4.10 below presents a summary of the overall strategies used for requests in ESL.

Table 4.10: Overall strategies used for requests in English (n=66)

Strategy	Description	Frequency	Percentage
Mood derivable	Utterances in which the grammatical mood of the verb signals illocutionary force (e.g. *Leave me alone, Clean up that mess.*)	10	15.2
Explicit performatives	Utterances in which the illocutionary force is explicitly named (e.g. *I am asking you to clean up the mess.)*	2	3.03
Hedged performatives	Utterances embedding the meaning of the illocutionary force (e.g. *I would like you to give your lecture a week earlier.)*	15	22.7
Want statement	The utterance expresses the speaker's desire that the event denoted in the proposition come true (e.g. *I would like to borrow your notes*).	3	4.54
Query preparatory	Utterances containing reference to preparatory conditions (e.g. ability, willingness) as conventionalized in any specific language (e.g. *Can I borrow your notes).*	34	51.5
Strong hints	Utterances containing partial reference to object of element needed for the implementation of the act (e.g. *I wasn't at the lecture yesterday*. Intent: borrowing lecture notes).	2	3.03

Six of nine head act strategies used for ESL request performance are the mood derivable, explicit performatives, hedged performatives, want statements, and query preparatory and strong hints. As table 4.10 shows, the query preparatory (51.5%) appears to be the most preferred strategy for request performance in ESL, followed by the hedged performative (22.7%) and the mood derivable (15.2%). Want statements (4.54%), explicit performatives (3.03%) and strong hints (3.03%) appear to be the least preferred strategies for request performance, while the locution derivable, language specific suggestory formula and mild hints were not at all used.

When strategies used for request performance in ESL are compared with those used to perform the

same function in KKG, some differences emerge. Although learners, to a large extent, used the same strategies for request performance in both ESL and KKG, the degree to which these strategies were preferred in each language differs. The most preferred strategy for the performance of requests in ESL, as shown in table 4.10, was the query preparatory (51.5%). In KKG, however, the mood derivable (57.4%) was the most preferred strategy, followed by the query preparatory (19.1%), whereas the mood derivable was used 15.2% of the time when performing requests in ESL. For ESL requests, the hedged performatives (22.7%) were the second most preferred strategy generally, while this strategy was not preferred for performing requests in KKG. Moreover, mild hints (2.9%) were a preferred strategy for KKG requests, although to a much lesser extent, whereas mild hints were not a preferred strategy for requests in ESL.

Although explicit performatives, want statements and strong hints were used for request performance in ESL and KKG, the frequency of use for each of these strategies differs. In ESL the explicit performatives (3.03%) and strong hints (3.03%) were less frequently used followed by want statements (4.54%), whereas in KKG explicit performatives (11.8%) and want statements (5.9%) were used slightly more frequently than in ESL.

4.3.1.2 Strategies used for requests in English according to situations

Table 4.11 displays strategies used by mother tongue speakers of KKG when performing requests in English according to situations. This is followed by a discussion of each situation and the types of strategy chosen.

Table 4.11: Strategies used for requests in English according to situations

Strategy / Situation	Mood derivable		Explicit performative		Hedged performative		Want statements		Query preparatory		Strong hints	
	f	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*
Geography textbook	3	*20*	1	*6.7*	0	*0*	0	*0*	11	*73.3*	0	*0*

Lesson prep. file	0	*0*	0	*0*	15	100	0	*0*	0	*0*	0	*0*
Talent show	2	*22.2*	1	*11.1*	0	0	1	*11.1*	3	*33.3*	2	*22.2*
Assignment assistance	4	*26.7*	0	*0*	0	0	0	*0*	11	*73.3*	0	*0*
Study group	1	*8.3*	0	*0*	0	0	2	*16.7*	9	*75*	0	*0*

Situation 6 (similar to situation 1)

In situation 6, the respondent (a learner) requests a fellow learner and friend to lend him/her a geography textbook to use for the year. Similar to situation 1, situation 6 represents an equal status relationship. However, in situation 6, a variety of request strategies were used compared to situation 1. The most preferred strategy for requests in KKG was the mood derivable (100%) and for requests in ESL it was the query preparatory (73.3%), while the mood derivable was used by three respondents (20%) only. Examples of strategies used include the following.

Query preparatory: *Can you lend me your geography textbook?*

Mood derivable: *Lend me your geography textbook.*

Explicit performance: *I came to ask you to lend me your geography textbook for me to use.*

Situation 7 (similar to situation 2)

Situation 7 is characterised by an unequal status relationship in which the learner requests the principal for his/her teacher's lesson preparation file. The preferred strategy in this case was the hedged performative (100%). The hedged performative, however, was not a preferred strategy in situation 2. Unlike situation 7 where the hedged performative was the only preferred strategy for request performance, the three most preferred strategies in situation 2 were the explicit performative

(35.7%), mood derivable (28.6%) and query preparatory (28.6%). Some of the requests performed for situation 7 are illustrated below.

Hedged performatives: *My teacher sent me to come and collect the preparation file.*

I was sent to collect the lesson preparation file by my teacher.

I have been sent by my teacher to collect her lesson preparation file.

Ms X has sent me to come and get her lesson preparation file.

Situation 8 (similar to situation 3)

Situation 8 is characterised by an unequal status relationship in which the respondent (the learner) asks the father permission to attend the school talent show at the weekend. The father might not approve as it is a night show. Although both situation 3 and situation 8 are characterised by unequal status between the interlocutors, there is a difference in the social distance between the learner and his/her teacher and the learner and his/her father. Respondents used a wide variety of strategies to perform requests in ESL and KKG. In ESL the most frequently used strategy was the query preparatory (33.3%) followed by the mood derivable (22.2%) and strong hints (22%) as the second most frequently used strategies. However, in KKG (situation 3), the most frequently used strategy was the mood derivable (60%). While respondents used strong hints when performing requests in ESL in situation 8, this strategy was not used for performing requests in KKG in situation 3. Examples of strategies used include the following.

Query preparatory:	*Can I please go to the talent show?*
Mood derivable:	*Please let me go to the talent show.*
Strong hints:	*My friend will be there at the talent show.* [As a request for permission to go to the talent show.]
Explicit performative:	*I am asking dad very kindly so I can go to the talent show.*
Scope stating/want statements:	*I want to go to the talent show.*

Situation 9 (similar to situation 4)

Situation 9 involves a request for assistance with a homework assignment. The speaker (a learner) struggles to complete the assignment and asks the elder brother for assistance. When strategies used in situation 9 to perform requests in ESL are compared with those used to perform the same function in situation 4 in KKG, it is noticeable that there is a difference in the most preferred strategy. In ESL, the query preparatory (73.3%) was preferred, while for KKG the mood derivable (76.9) was preferred. In both situations the interlocutors are siblings. However, in situation 9 the respondent extends a request to a sibling older than him/her, whereas the age of the interlocutor is not specified for situation 4.

Unlike four strategies used for request performance in KKG, only two strategies were used by mother tongue speakers of KKG to perform this request in ESL. Eleven respondents used the query preparatory (73%), while four respondents used the mood derivable (26.7%). Examples of requests made by the respondents include:

    Query preparatory: *Can you please help me with my assignment?*

                                         Could you please help me with my assignment?

    Mood derivable: *Please help me with my assignment.*

                                         Please come and help me with my assignment.

Situation 10 (same as situation 5)

In situation 10 the respondent (a learner) requests another learner (a stranger) to speak to the study group members on his/her behalf for permission to join the group. The most preferred strategy to perform this request in ESL was the query preparatory (75%), while the want statement (16.7%) and the mood derivable (8.3%) were the least preferred strategies. Similar strategies were preferred for requests in KKG. Despite the fact that the scenarios for situation 10 (requests in ESL)

and situation 5 (requests in KKG) are the same, there are differences in relation to the degree to which these strategies were used. For requests in ESL and KKG, the query preparatory was the most preferred at 75% and 58.3% respectively. While for requests in ESL the preference rate for the mood derivable was 8.3%, the preference rate for this strategy for KKG requests was 16.7%. In addition, the preference rate for want statements was 16.7% for requests in ESL, and 25% for requests in KKG. Below are examples of requests made by the respondents.

Query preparatory: *Can I join your group?*

                         Can I join your study group please?

Mood derivable: *Please allow me to join your group.*

Want statements: *I would like to join this group for studying.*

4.3.1.3 Levels of directness for requests in English

Table 4.12 summarises the overall main strategies used by mother tongue speakers of KKG when performing requests in ESL, in terms of their directness or indirectness.

Table 4.12: Frequency of overall main strategies used for requests in English

Strategy type	Frequency of strategy	Percentage
Direct	*30*	*45.5*
Conventionally indirect	*34*	*51.5*
Non-conventionally indirect	*2*	*3*
Total	66	*100*

Table 4.12 shows that respondents mostly used conventionally indirect strategies (51.5%) when performing requests in ESL, while the non-conventionally indirect strategies (3%) were the least preferred. Direct strategies (45.5%) were the second most preferred for request performance in ESL.

In KKG, however, there was a preference for direct requests (75%), whereas conventionally indirect requests (19.1%) and non-conventionally indirect requests (5.9%) were the least preferred strategies for requests in KKG.

Table 4.13 shows the frequency of the main strategies used by mother tongue speakers of KKG when performing requests in ESL according to situations.

Table 4.13: Frequency of main strategies used according to situations

Strategy Situation	Direct		Conventionally indirect		Non-conventionally indirect	
	f	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*
Geography textbook	4	*26.7*	11	*73.3*	0	*0*
Lesson prep. file	15	*100*	0	*0*	0	*0*
Talent show	4	*44.4*	3	*33.3*	2	*22.2*
Assignment assistance	4	*26.7*	11	*73.3*	0	*0*
Study group	3	*25*	9	*75*	0	*0*

Table 4.13 shows that respondents heavily relied on conventionally indirect strategies to perform requests in ESL, particularly for situation 6 (geography textbook), situation 8 (talent show) and situation 10 (study group). Similar to situation 1, situation 6 is characterised by an equal status relationship where the speaker has no social dominance over the hearer, but the level of imposition is high. However, in situation 1 the respondents preferred direct strategies whereas in situation 6 conventionally indirect strategies were preferred.

Additionally, in situation 3 (KKG), which is similar to situation 8 (ESL), there was a very high preference for direct strategies (91%) and conventionally indirect strategies were the least preferred (9%). In contrast, direct strategies were preferred in situation 7 (100%) for request performance in ESL, whereas in a similar situation in KKG (situation 2) preference for direct requests decreased to 60% and conventionally indirect and non-conventionally indirect requests also featured.

Although there was a preference for direct strategies and conventionally indirect strategies in situation 10 (ESL) and situation 5 (KKG), the degree to which these strategies are preferred in each language differed. In ESL, conventionally indirect requests were highly preferred (75%) and even though this strategy was the most preferred in KKG as well, it was only used 58% of the time. Direct strategies are the second most preferred in both situations, but in KKG it was used more frequently (42%) than in ESL (25%).

4.3.1.4 Request perspectives used by L1 speakers of Khoekhoegowab for requests in L2 English

Table 4.14 shows the frequency of overall request perspectives used by learners when performing requests in ESL.

Table 4.14: Overall request perspectives for English requests by Khoekhoegowab speakers

Request perspective	Frequency	Percentage
Hearer-oriented	21	32
Speaker-oriented	45	68
Total	66	100

As evident from table 4.14, mother tongue speakers of KKG make greater use of speaker-oriented requests than hearer-oriented requests when performing requests in ESL. When comparing performance of requests by the same respondents, hearer- oriented requests were less common in ESL requests (32%) than speaker- oriented requests (68%), whereas in KKG (see table 4.5), speaker-oriented requests (27.9%) were less common than hearer-oriented requests (70.6%). In other words, there was a preference for speaker-oriented requests for performance of requests in ESL and a preference for hearer-oriented requests when performing requests in KKG. In addition, although hearer-speaker requests (1.5%) were the least preferred strategy for requests in Khoekhoegowab, they were not a preferred strategy when performing requests in English.

Table 4.15 shows the frequency of request perspectives used by learners when performing requests in ESL in different situations.

Table 4.15: Request perspectives of Khoekhoegowab speakers for requests in English according to situations

Request perspective	Geography textbook		Preparation file		Talent show		Assignment		Wanting to join study	
	f	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*
Hearer-oriented	10	*71.42*	0	*0*	0	*0*	11	*73.33*	0	*0*
Speaker-oriented	4	*28.57*	15	*100*	9	*100*	4	*26.67*	12	*100*
Total	14	*100*	15	*100*	9	*100*	15	*100*	12	*100*

As table 15 shows, respondents used speaker -oriented requests across multiple situations. Speaker-oriented requests were most preferred in unequal status relationships (situation 7=100% and situation 8=100%) and an equal status relationship where the hearer and speaker were strangers to one another (situation 10=100%). However, preference for speaker-oriented requests dwindled in situation 6 (28.57%) and situation 9 (26.67%), where there was high preference for hearer-oriented requests (71.43% and 73.33% respectively). Hearer-oriented requests are not a preferred strategy in situations 7, 8 and 10.

In contrast, there was a preference for hearer-oriented requests in KKG for equal status relationships (situation 1=100% and situation 4=92.3%) and an unequal status relationship (situation 3=86.7%). Unlike situation 3 where hearer- oriented requests were preferred, in a similar situation (situation 8), speaker-oriented requests were the only preferred strategy (100%). Differences were also observed for situation 5 and 10, with a preference for hearer-oriented requests in situation 5 (41.7%) and speaker-oriented requests in situation 10 (100%). In situation 6, an equal status relationship similar to situation 1, similarities become evident. Hearer-oriented requests were preferred in ESL (71.43%) as well as in KKG (100%) although to a higher degree compared to ESL. Moreover, in situation 2 (similar to situation 7), speaker-oriented strategies (71.4%) were preferred although to a lesser degree than in ESL (100%)

4.3.1.5 Modification devices used by speakers of Khoekhoegowab for requests in English

Table 4.16 shows the internal modification devices used by KKG speakers when performing requests in ESL.

Table 4.16: Internal modification devices used for requests in English

Frequency / Device	Overall	Situation 6	Situation 7	Situation 8	Situation 9	Situation 10
Syntactic downgrader 1) Play-down/past tense	2	1	-	-	-	1
2) Past tense	14	-	14	-	-	-
3) interrogative	28	9	-	3	8	8
4) use of modality	3	1	-	-	2	-
Lexical downgrader 5) marker *please*	34	9	-	5	14	6
6) consultative device	2	-	-	1	1	-
Lexical upgrader 7) intensifier	1	-	-	1	-	-
Total	84	20	14	10	25	15

As shown in table 4.16, internal modification devices were used 84 times for requests in ESL as opposed to 56 times in KKG. This is because in many instances learners used a combination of modification devices per utterance (e.g. *Can you please ...* is a combination of an interrogative strategy and the politeness marker *please*). Each modification device, whether used in combination or alone, was counted for the purpose of analysis. Syntactic downgraders represent 55.95% of the overall internal modification devices used while lexical downgraders (including lexical upgraders) represent 44.05%.

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Syntactic downgraders that were used include the play-down/past tense device (I *was wondering if* you could lend me your geography textbook), past tense (My teacher *sent* me to fetch her lesson preparation file), interrogative (*Can* you please help me with my assignment) and modality (*Could* you please help me with this assignment?). The interrogative was the most preferred internal modification device across multiple situations and represents 59.6% of all syntactic modification devices used for requests in ESL. The second most preferred internal modification device was the past tense representing 29.8% of overall syntactic downgraders used. However, the use of this device was restricted to situation 7, which is characterised by an unequal status relationship. This could also be an indication that the requester is hesitant about making the request (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1986: 203). The least preferred devices representing a combined 10.6% are the play-down/past tense and the use of modals.

On the other hand, the most preferred lexical downgrader/upgrader was the marker *please* (Can you *please* help me with my assignment) representing 91.9%. According to Blum-Kulka et al. (1989:283), the marker *please* is "an optional element added to a request to bid for co-operative behaviour." Interestingly, no marker *please* was used in situation 7. Situation 7 also represents the only situation where this internal modification device was not used at all. The least preferred devices are the consultative (used only twice) and the intensifier (used only once).

When the use of internal modification devices in ESL and KKG requests are compared differences and similarities are evident. Internal modification devices were used more frequently in ESL requests (84 times) than in KKG requests (56 times); syntactic downgraders were used more frequently in ESL requests (55.95%) than in KKG requests (32.4%). The interrogative was a preferred syntactic modification strategy in both ESL and KKG requests, although it was used more frequently in KKG requests (66.7%) than in ESL requests (59.6%). Additionally, while the second most preferred syntactic strategy in ESL requests was past tense (29.8%), it was not a preferred strategy for requests in KKG. The marker *please* was a preferred strategy in both ESL (91.89%) and KKG (86.84%) requests, although to varying degrees.

Table 4.17 shows external modification devices used by KKG speakers when performing requests in ESL.

Table 4.17: External modification devices used for requests in English

Device \ Frequency	Overall	Situation 6	Situation 7	Situation 8	Situation 9	Situation 10
1) Grounders	17	5		1	4	7
2) Confirmatory	1				1	
3) Disarmers	2			2		
4) Pre-pre strategy	1		1			
5) Pre-commitment	2			1		1
6) Preparators	5			2	3	
7) Promise of reward	2	2				
8) Marker *please*	3	1	1		1	
9) Sweeteners	1					1
10) Combinations	5	2		2		1
Total	39	10	2	8	9	10

As table 4.17 shows, a wide variety of external modification devices (see 2.3.1 for a list of devices) were used for requests in ESL. Respondents used ten different types of external modification devices at least 39 times, with the most preferred external modification device being grounders (43.6%) across multiple situations (situation 6, 9 and 10).

When the uses of external modification devices for ESL and KKG requests are compared, differences emerge. Although a wide variety of external modification devices were used for requests in KKG, as was the case in ESL requests, the number of devices used in KKG was less (six different types) than that of requests in ESL. The overall number of external devices used in KKG requests (56 times) exceeded the number of those used for requests in ESL (39 times). In addition, although the most preferred external device in both ESL and KKG was grounders, the frequency of use of grounders in KKG requests (82.14%) exceeded that of ESL requests (43.6%).

4.3.1.6 Alerters used by speakers of Khoekhoegowab for requests in English

Table 4.18 presents alerters used by KKG speakers for ESL requests.

Table 4.18   : Alerters used by speakers of Khoekhoegowab for requests in English (N=66)

Frequency / Alerters	Overall	Situation 6	Situation 7	Situation 8	Situation 9	Situation 10
Attention getters e) Formal (e.g. *excuse me*)	0	-	-	-	-	-
f) Informal (e.g. *hi or hello*)	8	2	-	-	2	4
g) Greetings (e.g. *good morning Sir/Principal*)	15	-	15	-	-	-
h) Self-introductions	1	-	-	-	-	1
Terms of address d) Titles (e.g. *professor*)	0	-	-	-	-	-
e) Roles (e.g. *waiter/brother/ father*)	14	2	-	4	8	-
f) Names (e.g. *Corien*)	2	1	-	-	-	1
Endearment terms (e.g. *dude, sweetheart or daddy/my father*)	12	5	-	4	2	1
None /no alerter	14	5	-	1	3	5
Total alerters used	52	10	15	8	12	7

According to table 4.18 attention getters, terms of address and endearment terms were used for request performance in ESL. The most frequently used alerters across situations were terms of address (26.92%) and terms of reference (23.07%). Although attention getters (46.2%) were used more frequently than any other alerter, their use was mostly situation sensitive (for example in situation 7=28.8%) whereas terms of address (30.8%) were used in multiple situations.

When the use of alerters in ESL and KKG are compared, similarities are noticeable. Similar to

ESL requests, terms of address (32.7%) and terms of reference (51.9%) were the most frequently used alerters in KKG requests. However, preference for these alerters in KKG was higher compared to their preference in ESL requests.

4.3.2.1 Comparison of English requests by Khoekhoegowab speakers and mother tongue speakers of English

According to Žegarac and Pennington (2009), pragmatic transfer occurs when rules of speaking Language X are used when interacting in Language Y. To establish whether speech act realization patterns of KKG learners are transferred to ESL as a target language, a comparison will be made between speech act realization patterns of native speakers of BE – as explicated in existing research in the field of cross-cultural pragmatics – and the patterns of the KKG learners in L2. The comparison will focus specifically on strategies, request perspective, modification devices and the use of alerters.

4.3.2.1 Strategies used by speakers of British English as a mother tongue

Memarian's (2012) baseline results for head act strategies used by speakers of BE as a mother tongue are used for comparison purposes. Memarian (2012) investigated Iranian students' performance of requestive head act strategies in English and used mother tongue speakers of BE as one of the baseline groups for the study. A DCT consisting of 14 situations controlled for degree of familiarity (situations 1-7) and social power (situations 8-14) was administered to ten British native speakers of English. Table 4.19 presents the requesting head act strategies used by speakers of BE as a mother tongue.

Table 4.19: Strategies used for requests in British English (N=10)

Strategy	Situations 1 – 7 (Regarding degree of familiarity)		Situations 8 – 14 (Regarding social power)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Mood derivable	6	8.57	12	17.14
Scope stating/want statements	-	-	1	1.42

Preparatory	58	82.85	55	78.57
Strong hints	6	8.57	2	2.85
Total	70	100	70	100

According to table 4.19, the most preferred strategy overall in BE is the query preparatory. In situations controlled for degree of familiarity, the query preparatory (82.85%) was a preferred strategy, followed by mood derivable (8.57) and strong hints (8.57%). Scope stating/want statements did not feature in these situations. For situations controlled for social power, the most preferred strategy was the query preparatory (78,57%), followed by the mood derivable (8.57%), while want statements (11.42%) and strong hints (2.85%) were the least preferred. Illustrative examples from Memarian (2012: 78) for situations controlled for social power are presented below.

Query preparatory: *Excuse me Mr. X, I wasn't able to finish my paper in time, because of a family circumstance. Is it possible to extend the deadline?*

Mood derivable: *Hey, do you know what time it is?*

Scope stating/want statements: *Hi Ms. I've been meaning to ask you if you were free anytime soon because I wanted to discuss my thesis with you.*

Strong hint: *Excuse me, I'm trying to find this book but I can't seem to find it.*

A study by Mahani (2012) similarly investigated realization patterns of requestive speech acts among Iranian speakers learning English as a first language. The baseline group in this study consisted of ten multilingual native speakers of BE (they spoke Turkish, French, Portuguese and Welsh as well), with an age range of 34 to 69. Nine participants in the baseline group taught English as a profession and one taught mathematics at an English medium college. A DCT consisting of 24 situations controlled for social power and social distance was administered to the

baseline group. Table 4.20 presents the requesting head act strategies used by speakers of BE as a mother tongue according to Mahani (2012).

Table 4.20: Strategies used for requests in British English according to Mahani (2012)

Strategy	Frequency	Percentage
Mood derivable	12	5.28
Hedged performative	1	0.44
Obligation	1	0.44
Suggestory	1	0.44
Preparatory	207	91.18
Strong hints	2	0.88
Mild hints	2	0.88

As is evident from table 4.20, the most preferred strategy by far was the query preparatory (91.18%) followed by the mood derivable (5.28%). These results support the findings of Memarian (2012), whose study identified the query preparatory and the mood derivable strategies as the most preferred strategies in BE. Although hedged performatives, obligation statements, suggestory formula, strong hints and mild hints are used, they are the least preferred strategies for realising requests in BE.

When strategies used by speakers of BE as a mother tongue and those used by KKG speakers for requests in ESL are compared, it becomes evident that the query preparatory (51.5%) is the most preferred strategy for realising requests in ESL, although it was used to a lesser degree. However, unlike the mood derivable, which was the second most preferred strategy for request performance in BE (5.28%), the hedged performative (22.7%) was the second most preferred strategy for realising requests in ESL (see table 4.10). On the other hand, the mood derivable was the least preferred (15.2%) for ESL requests by KKG speakers, while the hedged performative was one of the least preferred (0.44%) by native speakers of BE (Mahani, 2012). Another difference is that the mood derivable was used more frequently (15.2%) for ESL requests than for BE (5.28%) requests.

Scope stating/want statements and strong hints are used for requests in both BE (Memarian, 2012) and ESL, but the frequency of use of these strategies differed slightly. While the frequency

of the use of strong hints was 2.85% and that for scope stating/want statements was 1.42% (situations controlled for social power) and 8.57% (situations controlled for familiarity) in BE, the frequency of scope stating/want statements in ESL requests by KKG speakers was 4.54% and for strong hints 3.03%.

4.3.2.2 Strategies for requests in BE according to situations

Mahani (2012) categorised the 24 DCT situations into six combinations in terms of presence and absence of social distance and power as variables. The results of three of the combinations comparable to situations for request performance in ESL by KKG speakers are presented below.

Combination A (comparable to situation 10)

Combination A is characterised by equal status relationships in which the interlocutors were unfamiliar with one another. The situations in this combination included turning down music, asking for a pen, taking a photo as well as asking for an address. The only preferred strategy for situations in this combination was the query preparatory (100%). While speakers of BE had no other preference for request performance in situations in combination A, the query preparatory (75%) and the scope stating/want statements (16.7%) and mood derivable (8.3%) were a choice for realization of requests in ESL by KKG speakers.

Combination A is comparable to situation 3 and 4 (no familiarity between interlocutors) in Memarian's (2012) study, which identified the query preparatory as the most preferred strategy for requests in BE (situation 3 = 60% and situation 4 = 100%). In this study, the query preparatory was a preferred strategy (82.85%) regardless on the degree of familiarity in multiple situations (situations 1, 2, 4 and 7). However, in addition to the query preparatory, strong hints (40%) were also used (Memarian, 2012). In contrast, in situation 10 (no familiarity between interlocutors), the strong hint was not a strategy of choice for ESL requests by KKG speakers. Illustrative examples of these strategies from studies on BE are provided below.

   Query preparatory: *Can I have your camera?*

Could I borrow your pen for a moment?

Would it be possible if I could please borrow your camera?

Strong hints: *You wanna make easy cash, come and help me move out.*

Combination B (comparable to situation 6)

Situations in combination B were characterised by interlocutors of equal status and who were familiar with one another. Lending money, asking notes, asking for lotion and taking care of a child exemplify situations in this combination. While the query preparatory (100%) was the only preferred strategy for request performance in BE, speakers of KKG had the query preparatory (73.3%), the mood derivable (20%) and the explicit performative (6.7%) at their disposal.

Similar to Mahani (2012), Memarian (2012) identified the query preparatory strategy as a preferred means of request realization in BE regardless of degree of familiarity between interlocutors, although the frequency of use varied. In situations characterised by a high degree of familiarity (e.g. situations 1 and 2; interlocutors = friends), the query preparatory was used more frequently (100%) than in situations characterised by medium familiarity (e.g. situations 5, 6 and 7) and situations where interlocutors were strangers (e.g. no familiarity). Situations 1 and 2 in Memarian's study are comparable to situation 6 of ESL requests performed by KKG speakers. Unlike the KKG speakers who used a variety of strategies for request performance in situation 6, speakers of BE from Memarian's study relied on the query preparatory for request realization.

Combination F (comparable to situations 7 and 8)

Combination F consists of situations characterised by interlocutors who are familiar with one another, with the requester having lower social status than the requestee. This combination includes exchanging a shirt, asking for an extension, being out of work early and writing a letter. The most preferred strategy for BE requests was the query preparatory (97.14%) and the hedge

performative (2.85%). Although these strategies were preferred for request performance in ESL for situations 7 and 8, the frequency of use differed. Hedged performatives (100%) were the only preferred strategy for situation 7 while the query preparatory (33.3%), the mood derivable (22.2%) and strong hints (22.2%) were used in situation 8.

Situations in combination F are comparable to situations 5, 6 and 7 from Memarian's (2012) study. In situation 5 (asking a friend to help move out), for example, the strong hint was a preferred strategy (80%), followed by the mood derivable (20%), while in situation 6 (asking an acquaintance for time) three different strategies were used: mood derivable (40%), query preparatory (40%) and strong hint (20%). Both situations are characterised by a medium degree of familiarity (Memarian, 2012).

Situations characterized by power distance (comparable to situations 7, 8 and 9)

Situations 8, 9, 10 and 12 for requests in BE were characterized by power distance between interlocutors (Memarian, 2012). The preferred strategy used in these situations was the query preparatory with the highest frequency of 78.57%. The query preparatory is used in situations where the requester has lower social power as it is considered polite (Memarian, 2012; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984). However, the preferred strategy in situation 7 for English requests by KKG speakers was the hedged performative. In addition, in situation 8 a variety of strategies were used: query preparatory (33.3%), mood derivable (22.2%) and strong hints (22.2%), while for situation 9 the query preparatory (73%) and mood derivable (26.7%) were preferred. In all these situations, with the exception of situation 7, the query preparatory was the most preferred

Situations characterized by absence of power distance (comparable to situation 6)

In situations 11, 13 and 14 for requests in BE, there was no social power difference between interlocutors. In these situations, the preferred strategy was the mood derivable at a frequency of 17.14%. Although scope stating/want statements (1.42%) and strong hints (2.85%) were also used, they were the least preferred strategies for request realization in BE. In contrast, the query preparatory (73.3%) was preferred in situation 6, followed by the mood derivable (20%) and the

explicit performative (6.7%).

4.3.2.3 Levels of directness for requests in BE

Konakahara (2011) investigated request realization strategies of Japanese learners of English by comparing their performance with that of speakers of BE as a mother tongue and that of Japanese speakers of English. Sixteen speakers of BE participated in the study by responding to a DCT consisting of four situations controlled for power and rank of imposition.   Results of the quantitative analysis of responses by speakers of BE are used for comparison purposes. Table 4.21 presents the overall main strategies used for requests in BE.

Table 4.21: Overall main strategies used for requests in British English (N=64)

Strategy type	Frequency of strategy	Percentage
Direct	3	*4.7*
Conventionally indirect	59	*92.2*
Non-conventionally indirect	2	*6.1*
Total	65	*100*

Table 4.21 shows that speakers of BE preferred conventionally indirect requests (92.2%) to non-conventionally indirect (6.1%) requests and direct (4.7%) requests. This is supported by the findings of Memarian (2012) and Mahani (2012), who identified the query preparatory (conventionally indirect) as the most preferred strategy regardless of social distance or degree of familiarity. Although direct strategies (mood derivable and scope stating/want statements) and non- conventionally indirect strategies (strong hints) were used for request performance in BE, they were the least preferred (Memarian, 2012). However, the mood derivable strategy was the second most preferred for request realization in BE, although at a low frequency rate of 5.28%, while the preparatory was used much more frequently at a rate of 91.18% (Mahani, 2012).

When directness levels of requests in BE and ESL are compared, similarities and differences emerge.   Conventionally indirect requests were a preferred strategy by KKG speakers for requests in ESL as well as by speakers of BE. However, the degree to which the levels of

directness were preferred by these speakers varied. While request performance was mostly achieved through conventionally indirect (92.2%) means in BE, there was a preference for direct requests (45.5%) in English by KKG speakers. In addition, the second most preferred choice of directness level in BE was the non-conventionally indirect request (6.1%), whereas for requests in English by KKG speakers it was the conventionally indirect requests (5.5%). Although direct strategies (4.7%) were also used for requests in BE, they were the least preferred, while speakers of KKG rarely used non-conventionally indirect requests (3%).

4.3.2.4 Request perspective for requests in BE

Ogiermann (2009) investigated request strategies in four different languages, British English, German, Polish and Russian, amongst university students. A total of 400 DCTs (100 students per language) were analysed. The DCTs consisted of a single scenario – a student falls ill, misses a lecture and phones a fellow student to borrow notes - to which students had to respond. This scenario was characterised by low social distance between interlocutors, with equal social power and the request was "not particularly face-threatening" (Ogiermann, 2009:195). Among the strategies investigated was the request perspective. Table 4.22 below summarises the request perspectives by speakers of BE as identified by Ogiermann (2009), including request perspectives for ESL and KKG requests by speakers of KKG as a mother tongue.

Table 4.22: Request perspective in BE and ESL

Perspective	BE	ESL	KKG
Hearer-oriented	18%	66%	70.58%
Speaker-oriented	76%	33%	27.94%
Hear and speaker	0	0	1.47%

Table 4.22 shows a preference for speaker- oriented requests in BE. This is contrary to the findings of Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984), who maintain that speakers of BE make hearer-oriented requests. Request perspective unfortunately is an area that has not been investigated widely yet, which creates challenges for possible comparison of these strategies. However, using Ogiermann (2009) as a starting point, differences between preferred strategies in BE, ESL and

KKG surface. Hearer-oriented, as opposed to speaker-oriented requests in BE, were preferred for ESL (66%) and KKG (70.58%) requests. Hearer-oriented requests were the least preferred strategy in BE (18%), while speaker-oriented requests were the second most preferred in ESL (33%) and KKG (27.94%) requests.

4.3.2.5 Modification devices used by speakers of BE

Konakahara's (2011) investigation of request realization strategies of Japanese learners reveals that speakers of BE as a mother tongue use both internal and external modification devices equally frequently. Table 4.23 Shows internal modification devices used by speakers of BE as revealed by Konakahara.

Table 4.23: Internal modification devices used for requests in British English

Modification device	Frequency	Percentage
Syntactic markers		
Playdown/Aspect (e.g. I was *wondering*)	13	3.6
Modality (e.g. *can, could, would, might*)	56	15.3
Negations (e.g. *couldn't,* I *don't* suppose)	5	1.4
Tense (e.g. I *was* wondering)	16	4.4
Openers/Consultative devices (e.g. *Do/Would you mind/* I *wonder*)	34	9.3
Softeners		
Understatements/Hedges (e.g. *a little, a bit, just, kind of*)	10	1.35
Downtoners (e.g. *possibly*)	5	1.4
Politeness markers (e.g. *please*)	8	2.2
Fillers		
Hesitators (e.g. Could I *er ...* borrow your salt?)	1	0.3
Appealers (e.g. *right?*)	5	1.4

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As is evident from the table, Konakahara (2011) sub-classified internal modification devices into four, namely, syntactic markers, openers/consultative devices, softeners and fillers. There is a high preference for modality (15.3%) among mother tongue speakers of BE. Other syntactic markers used, although to a lesser degree, include tense (4.4%) and playdown/aspect (3.6%). Although negations (1.4%) are used, they are the least preferred syntactic markers used in BE. It is also evident from the table that mother tongue speakers of BE use a wide range of lexical downgraders. These include openers (9.3%), understaters/hedges (1.35%), downtoners (1.4%), politeness markers (2.2%), hesitators (0.3%) and appealers (1.4%).

When internal modification devices used for requests in BE and ESL are compared, differences become evident. The most preferred syntactic downgrader in ESL (59.6%) and KKG (66.7%) requests was the interrogative. However, modality is a preferred syntactic means for modifying requests in BE (15.3%). While the marker *please* was preferred in ESL and KKG, it was not a preferred strategy in BE.

Table 4.24 shows external modification devices as explicated in the research of Konakahara (2011).

Table 4.24: External modification devices used for requests in British English

Modification device	Frequency	Percentage
Preparators (e.g. *Do you have a minute?*)	17	4.6
Grounders (e.g. *I forgot to buy it*)	65	17.8
Disarmers (e.g. *I know you are busy*)	12	3.3
Promise of reward (e.g. *I could return the favour some time in future*)	2	0.5
Imposition minimizers (e.g. *I will give it back to you as soon as we get home*)	21	5.7
Expanders (e.g. *Please? Could you?*)	14	3.8
Hesitators (e.g. *er ...can I use your salt?*)	1	0.3
Self insults (e.g. *I'm so stupid*)	6	1.6

Although speakers of BE as a mother tongue use a wide variety of external modification devices, there is a clear preference for grounders (17.8%). This is in line with the findings of Han (2012), who also observed a preference for grounders (reasons) by speakers of BE as mother tongue. According to Han (2012), grounders are indicative of a speaker's consideration for the hearer. However, grounders are also an indication that the speaker expects the hearer to be more understanding and willing to cooperate. In addition to grounders, imposition minimizers (5.7%), preparators (4.6%), expanders (3.8%) and disarmers (3.3%) were used, although to a lesser degree.

When external modification devices used for requests in BE and ESL are compared, similarities emerge. Although a wide variety of external modification devices were used for requests in ESL, *grounders* were the most preferred. Grounders, however, were used more frequently in ESL requests (43.6%) than in BE requests.

Although Konakahara (2012) did not provide details of internal modification devices used by speakers of BE as a mother tongue according to situations, details of the use of external modification devices according situations were provided. Table 4.25 shows the use of external modification devices by speakers of BE as a mother tongue across situations.

Table 4.25 External modification devices used for requests in BE according situations

Modification device	Situation 2		Situation 3		Situation 4	
	Freq.					
Grounders	18	17.3%	17	19.3%	22	22.1%
Imposition minimizers	18	17.3%				
Preparators			10	11.4%		

Grounders, imposition minimizers and preparators were the three most frequently used external modification devices for requests in BE. While grounders were used across three of the situations, imposition minimizers and preparators were situation specific. Below are the four situations specific to Konakahara's (2012) study.

Situation 1

Situation 1 involved borrowing salt from an acquaintance in the same accommodation establishment. This was an equal status situation characterised by low imposition between interlocutors. Konakahara (2012) did not provide details of the preferred external modification devices in BE for this situation.

Situation 2

Situation 2 involved borrowing money from an acquaintance at the supermarket as closing time approached. Even though this was an equal status situation, it was characterised by high imposition between interlocutors. Grounders (17.3%) and imposition minimizers (17.3%) were equally preferred as external modification devices for requests in this situation. It is noteworthy that imposition minimizers were specific to situation 2.

Situation 3

Situation 3, which was requestee dominant and characterised by low imposition, involved asking a professor to correct errors in the mark of the speaker. The most preferred external modification device was grounders representing 19.3%, with preparators being the second most preferred representing 11.4%. This was also the only situation according to Konakahara (2012), where preparators were used.

Situation 4

Grounders were a preferred strategy in situation 4 and represented 22.1% of external modification devices used. Situation 4 involved asking a professor to change the appointment time because of a severe tooth ache. This situation was requestee dominant with high imposition.

4.4 Conclusion

This chapter analysed and discussed the results of the research on strategies used by speakers of

Khoekhoegowab (KKG) as mother tongue when performing requests in English as a second language (ESL). Aspects focused on in this chapter included overall and situation specific directness levels of request performance, request perspective, alerters and modification devices used by KKG speakers. The chapter also addressed the issue of possible effects of strategies used for request performance in KKG on the performance of this request in ESL. In order to achieve this, comparisons were made between strategies used by KKG speakers for request performance in ESL and those used by speakers of British English as a mother tongue for request performance as explicated in existing research in the field of cross-cultural pragmatics. The next chapter provides a summary of the findings of this study and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the findings of the study and makes recommendations for further research. The purpose of this study was to uncover the strategies used by speakers of Khoekhoegowab (KKG) as mother tongue for request performance as well as to determine possible effects of transference by speakers of KKG into English when acquired as a second language (ESL). To uncover the strategies used for request performance in KKG participants had to respond to a written DCT consisting of five different scenarios. The same data collection method was used to uncover strategies for request performance in ESL. In order to determine possible effects of transference by speakers of KKG into English, strategies used for request performance in ESL were compared with those used by speakers of British English (BE) as mother tongue as explicated in existing research.

5.2 Summary of the findings of the study

In what follows, a summary of the research findings is presented in terms of research questions, in order to determine whether the purpose of this research was achieved.

5.2.1   What are the speech act realisation strategies used for requests in Khoekhoegowab?

Overall request strategies

The analysis of data the revealed that speakers of KKG use a wide variety of strategies to perform requests in their mother tongue. However, the most preferred strategies for request

performance were the mood derivable (57.4%) followed by the query preparatory (19%) and explicit performatives (11.8%), although these strategies were used less frequently than the mood derivable. The least preferred strategies for request performance were want statements (5.9%) and mild hints and strong hints (each representing 2.9%). The mood derivable was also a preferred strategy across multiple situations regardless of social status (situations 1:100%, 3: 60% and 4:76.9%). However, its use dwindled in some situations (situations 2:28.6% and 5:16.7%). It seems likely that the choice of strategy (for example the mood derivable) was determined by the degree of familiarity between interlocutors because the degree of familiarity between a learner and principal (situation 2) and strangers (situation 5) is often low and this could perhaps be the reason for the limited use of the mood derivable strategy in these situations, whilst it was highly preferred between friends (situation 1) and siblings (situation 4). Its decreased use in situation 3 could be attributed to the fact that the degree of familiarity between a learner and a teacher is often lower than that between friends and siblings. In situations characterised by no to little familiarity between interlocutors, the query preparatory (situation 5:58.3%) and explicit performative (situation 2:35.7%) were the most preferred. These were preferred strategies in situations characterized by a high degree of familiarity; however, the frequency of use of these strategies was low.

Directness levels

In terms of the main directness levels, speakers of KKG as mother tongue preferred direct strategies (75%) as opposed to conventionally indirect (19.1%) and non-conventionally indirect (5.9%) strategies. Directness levels were preferred across multiple situations (situations 1:100%, 2:64.3%, 3:80% and 4:85%). The interpretation is that directness levels were used in situations characterized by both equal and unequal status relationships regardless of the degree of familiarity (for example, situation 2 and situation 5:42%). In situation 5, however, the most preferred means of realising requests was the conventionally indirect strategy (58%). In this case the choice of strategy might have been influenced by the high degree of imposition of the request on the hearer and compounded by the fact that the interlocutors were strangers to each other. This is because situation 1 is characterised by

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a high degree of imposition and familiarity between interlocutors, yet the only strategy used was direct as opposed to conventionally indirect. Moreover, preference for indirect strategies points to a speaker's need to minimize the degree of imposition of the request on the hearer (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984) and performing a request with an acquaintance is easier than with a stranger (Aribi, n.d.). The conventionally indirect strategy was also used in situations 2 (28.6%) and 3 (13.3%) but it appears that social power did not exert much influence in the choice of strategy compared to the influence exerted by the degree of imposition. Although non-conventionally indirect strategies were used they were limited in frequency across multiple situations 2 (7.1%), 3 (6.7%) and situations 4 and 5 (each representing 15%), making it the least preferred strategy for request performance in KKG.

Request perspective

In relation to request perspective, speakers of KKG as mother tongue preferred hearer oriented requests (70.6%) compared to speaker oriented (27.9%) and hearer-speaker oriented (1.5%) requests. Hearer oriented requests were the most preferred strategy in situation 1 (100%), situation 3 (86.7%) and situation 4 (92.3%), but preference for this strategy decreased in situations 5 (41.7%) and 2 (28.6%). The implication of this is that the choice in perspective might have been influenced by degree of familiarity between interlocutors. In situations characterised by a low degree of familiarity (situation 2: 71.4% and situation 5: 50%) speaker oriented requests were preferred compared to hearer oriented requests. Hearer-speaker requests were limited in frequency (8.33%) and restricted to situation 5.

Modification devices

In order to soften or increase the impact of the request (Trosberg, 1995), speakers of KKG used the following internal and external modification devices. The interrogative (syntactic downgrader representing 30.4%) and the marker please (lexical downgrader representing 58.9%) were the most preferred internal modification devices used for request performance in KKG in multiple situations. Syntactic downgraders represented 32.14% of

all internal modification devices used while the lexical downgrader represented 67.85%. Syntactic downgraders were not preferred as a modification strategy in situation 1, while the lexical downgrader was the only preferred strategy in this situation. This implies that the marker please was a preferred strategy in this situation to soften the impact of direct requests. In situations 2 to 5, both syntactic (playdown/past tense, interrogative and modality) and lexical (marker please, hedges/understaters and consultative devices) modifications were used, but only the interrogative and marker please were used in most situations. In relation to external modification devices, the most preferred external modification used for KKG requests was grounders (82%). According to Han (2012), grounders point to a speaker's way of showing consideration for the hearer or it can also point to the speaker's anticipation for the hearer to be more understanding. Grounders were used across multiple situations and even though imposition minimisers, apologies, pre-commitments, promise of reward and combinations of external modifications were used, they were limited in frequency and, in most cases, to some situations.

Alerters

When it comes to type of alerters used for requests in KKG, endearment terms were the most preferred (51.9%) and they were used across multiple situations except in situation 5. Although terms of address were a preferred strategy their frequency of use was 30.76% and they were restricted to situations 2 and 3. Attention getters were used less frequently than terms of address and constituted 15% of all alerters used for requests in KKG.

5.2.2 What are the possible effects of the speech act realisation strategies used for requests in Khoekhoegowab on the performance of these speech acts in ESL?

Overall request strategies

The preferred strategy for request performance in ESL was the query preparatory (51.5%), with the hedged performative (22.7%) and mood derivable (15.2%) as less frequently used

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strategies. Similarly, Memarian (2012) and Mahani (2012) identified the query preparatory as the most preferred strategy for request performance in BE. According to Mahani (2012), the query preparatory represented 91.18% of requests made in BE, while the mood derivable represented 5.28%. The query preparatory was also a preferred strategy for ESL requests across multiple situations (situations 6:73.3%, 9:73.3% and 10:75%) but preference for the query preparatory decreased in situation 8 (33.3%), although it is the most preferred strategy in the situation. In situations controlled for degree of familiarity and social power the query preparatory (82.85% and 78.57% respectively) was a preferred strategy in BE (Memarian, 2012). The results of Mahani's (2012) study support these findings. Similar results were observed for requests in ESL. The speakers of KKG thus appear not to have transferred rules of performing requests in their mother tongue into ESL because their preferred strategy for requests in KKG differed from strategies used in ESL and BE in terms of the nine levels of directness.

Directness levels

There was a preference for conventionally indirect requests (51.5%) compared to direct requests (45.5%) in ESL. This is in line with the findings of Konakahara (2011), who identifies conventionally indirect strategies as the most preferred (92.2%) means of request performance in BE. Moreover, Memarian (2012) and Mahani (2012) identified conventionally indirect requests as a preferred strategy in BE regardless of degree of familiarity or social distance. In contrast, speakers of KKG showed a preference for direct requests compared to conventionally indirect requests preferred in ESL and BE request performance. This difference between choice of directness levels in KKG requests and those for ESL and BE could be further evidence that participants did not use KKG request performance rules for requests in ESL. However, direct strategies (45.5%) were used almost as frequently as conventionally indirect strategies (51.5) for requests in ESL, while the opposite holds true for requests strategies used in BE requests as direct requests were used less frequently (4.7%) than conventionally indirect (92.2%) requests (Konakahara, 2011). There is, however, insufficient evidence to argue that rules of request performance influenced request performance in ESL.

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Request perspective

Speakers of KKG opted for speaker oriented requests (68%) in ESL instead of hearer oriented requests (32%). Speaker oriented requests were the only preferred strategy for request performance in multiple situations (situations 7, 8 and 9). High preference of hearer oriented requests was restricted to situation 6 (71.43%) and situation 9 (73.33%). Ogiermann (2009) also identified speaker oriented requests (76%) as a preferred strategy for request performance in BE. This is in contradiction to Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) who found that speakers of BE prefer hearer oriented requests. Hearer oriented requests (70.58%) are a preferred strategy for request performance in KKG. However, the lack of consensus regarding the preferred request perspective in Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) and Ogiermann (2009) poses challenges. Moreover, limited research in relation to request perspective in general and BE in particular compounds these challenges. Thus, the researcher is unable to confirm or deny the influence of KKG rules of request performance in ESL requests.

Modification devices

There is a preference for the interrogative (33.33%) as a syntactic downgrader and the marker *please* (40.47%) as a lexical downgrader across multiple situations for requests in ESL. There are similarities in the choice of modification devices in ESL and KKG requests. In contrast, these strategies were least preferred as internal modification devices for request realisation in BE (Konakahara, 2011). In relation to external modification, speakers of BE showed a preference for grounders (17.8%) as a preferred strategy (Konakahara, 2011). Grounders were also a preferred strategy for requests in ESL and KKG. This similarity might be due to instruction, data analysis and interpretation methods or universality in strategies used across languages and cultures. However, this research did not investigate possible causes of similarities or differences amongst the three languages. Therefore, there is lack of evidence to attribute the similarities to the effect of transference from KKG to ESL.

Alerters

The three most frequently used alerters in ESL requests included attention getters, particularly greetings, terms of address and terms of endearment. Greetings, however, were restricted to situation 7. Similar choices were made for requests in KKG. According to Konakahara (2011), preferred alerters in BE are attention getters (12.3%). This information is insufficient for making judgements about the possible effects of KKG on ESL request performance.

5.3 Limitations of the study

This study had several limitations. Firstly, the number of participants was low and although the researcher was able to collect a large amount of requests for the purpose of analysis, this compromised the generalisability of the research results. Secondly, the use of written DCTs as a research instrument is marked with numerous drawbacks. However, the use of DCTs allows for the collection of large amounts of data in a short period of time (Houck and Gass 1999 cited in Beltrán-Palanques, 2014). DCTs are also an important starting point for further research (Lorenzo-Dus and Bou-Franch., 2003). Another limitation was the choice in standard of English used as well as the use of existing literature on BE for the purpose of comparison of request strategies. In addition, the study did not investigate possible factors that may influence choice of strategies used in both KKG and ESL, including the possible reasons for the similarities and/or differences between them that were evident in the data.

5.4   Recommendations for further research

In view of the above findings and limitations of the study, the following recommendations are made for future studies on research strategies used by mother tongue speakers and the possible effect of transference on English when acquired as a second language by speakers of KKG.

Future researchers could replicate the study on a larger scale. Although this study was

preliminary in approach, it identified strategies used in KKG and attempted to identify possible transference effects of KKG (L1) on ESL (L2). Thus, future studies could build on the research findings of the study and explore, in more detail, strategies used as well as factors that impact choice of strategies used. Replication of the study could lead to a more in-depth understanding of strategies used by speakers of KKG as mother tongue, as well as determine possible effects of transference into ESL, when acquired as a second language. Conducting a similar study in all areas where KKG is spoken could also lead to an understanding of cultural, regional, individual, as well as possible situational differences in strategy choices and could provide a holistic understanding of rules pertaining to KKG language use in Namibia and would make comparison with other local and international languages possible. Replication of this study on a larger scale could make generalizability of the results to a larger population possible.

Future studies could also address the limitations of this preliminary study. DCTs have been widely criticized in the literature. However, the use of the DCT in this preliminary study made collection of a larger amount of data in a shorter time possible. Future researchers could make use of improved versions of the DCT, and use DCTs together with other data collection methods. The use of multiple methods could increase the validity of future research findings.

Finally, future research could include an assessment of the level of proficiency in English for both teachers and second language learners as this could impact speech act performance in the target language. It is important to investigate the extent to which proficiency affects request performance in the target language and by so doing also assess to what extent similarities in choice of strategies in L1 and L2 could be attributed to transfer of rules of language use. Understanding rules of language use and possible effects of transference could lead to interventions in language classrooms and by so doing limit the occurrence of miscommunication between interlocutors.

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Appendix A: Discourse completion tests

A QUESTIONNAIRE ON

GRADE 8 LEARNERS SPEECH ACT REALISATION PATTERNS IN KHOEKHOEGOWAB

NB: English version which was translated into Khoekhoegowab

Please respond to the questions below as truthfully and honestly as possible.

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF PARTICIPANTS

F		M

1. Please indicate your gender.   *(Tick as appropriate)*

2. In which year were you born? _____

3. What is your mother tongue? _____

4. What language do you speak at home? _____ *(If different from mother tongue)*

DESCRIPTION OF SITUATIONS

Please read the following descriptions of situations and write what you would say in each case. There are ten (10) situations. It is important for you to respond to each situation as if you would in a real life conversation. Please write what you would say on the lines provided.

1. You never take notes in class. You have another life science test next week. You want your friend to lend you her notes again to make copies. You go to your friend. What do you say to her?

2. Your mother asked you to prepare dinner before 18h00. However, you decide to take a nap after completing your homework and you oversleep. Your mother arrives home and finds that you have not prepared dinner. What do you say to her?

3. You are not feeling well. You decide to ask the school principal for permission to go home. What do you say to him?

4. You have arrived ten minutes late for your English class. Your teacher usually does not condone late coming, but you do not want to miss the lesson. What do you say to your teacher?

5. You are chasing your friend who has grabbed your diary from you. You accidentally bump into the school principal, causing him to spill coffee on his shirt. What do you say when the principal looks at you disapprovingly?

6. Your history teacher asked your class to do individual projects on Namibia's independence. The project is due in two days and you are concerned that you might not be able to complete it in time. You decide to ask your teacher for an extension. What do you say to her?

7. You have been helping your neighbour's daughter with her mathematics homework every Tuesday and Thursday after school as a request from her mother. You have a test on Wednesday and want to cancel your Tuesday meeting with your neighbour's daughter. What do you say to her mother?

_____

_____

8. You are sharing a room with your brother/sister. You are trying to study for a test, but you cannot focus because your brother/sister is playing loud music in the bedroom. What do you say to him/her?

_____

_____

9. You were using your uncle's laptop to type your history assignment. You accidentally erase an important document he had been working on for the past two weeks. What do you say to him?

_____

_____

10. You are having trouble with understanding one of your school subjects. You have heard that a number of learners have formed a study group to prepare for the upcoming examination. You have never spoken to these learners before, but you decide to speak to them about joining the study group. You approach one of the learners and say …

_____

_____

Thank you for your participation in this study.

QUESTIONNAIRE ON

GRADE 8 LEARNERS SPEECH ACT REALISATION PATTERNS IN ENGLISH

Please respond to the questions below as truthfully and honestly as possible.

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF PARTICIPANTS

5.   Please indicate your gender.   [F]   [M]   *(Tick as appropriate)*

6.   In which year were you born?   _____

7.   What is your mother tongue?   Damara [ ]   Nama [ ]   *(Tick as appropriate)*

Other [ ]   _____ (*Please specify*)

8.   What language do you speak at home?   _____ *(If different from mother tongue)*

DESCRIPTION OF SITUATIONS

Please read the following descriptions of situations and write what you would say in each case. There are ten (10) different situations. It is important for you to respond to each situation as if you would in a real life conversation.

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Please write what you would say on the lines provided.

11. Your teacher has sent you to the office of the principal to collect her lesson preparation file. What do you say to him when you enter his office?

   _____

   _____

12. You are struggling to complete an assignment, which is due within the next three days. You want your elder   brother   to   help   you   with   the   assignment.   What   do   you   say   to   him?

   _____

   _____

13. You are washing dishes after dinner. You accidentally break one of your mother's favourite dinner plates. What do you say to her?

   _____

   _____

14. You forgot a get-together with a friend. This is the second time that you have forgotten such a meeting with your friend. What do you say to your friend when he/she calls to ask what happened?

_____

_____

15. Your school has a talent show at the weekend. All your friends will be there and you want to be there too,

but you know that your father might not approve of you going out at night. What do you say to him?

_____

_____

16. You are rushing to get to class on time, but as you turn a corner you step on a teacher's foot. What do you

say to him?

_____

_____

17. Your school does not have enough geography textbooks and your teacher asks you to buy an expensive

geography book that you will use for the year. Your friend, who was in the same grade last year, already

has the book, which he used the previous year. You ask your friend to lend you his book for the year.

What do you say to him?

_____

_____

18. You accidentally knock down an elderly lady while getting off a taxi in a hurry. She fell to the ground and

injured her knee. What do you say to her?

_____

_____

19. You are having trouble with understanding one of your school subjects. You have heard that a number of

learners have formed a study group to prepare for the upcoming examination. You have never spoken to

these learners before, but you decide to speak to them about joining the study group. You approach one

of the learners and say …

_____

_____

20. Your classmate bought a new mobile phone. You ask him/her to let you look at it, but you carelessly drop and break it. What do you say to him/her?

_____

_____

Thank you for your participation in this study.

Appendix B: Informed consent form for parents

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jou kennisvennoot • your knowledge partner

Dear Parent

You are hereby requested to allow your child/children to participate in the following research study:

Speech act realisation patterns and possible effects of transference by speakers of Khoekhoegowab into English when acquired as a second language

The study is conducted by Ms Yolanda Uises for fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of MA in Intercultural Communication at Stellenbosch University. Learners enrolled for Khoekhoegowab at schools in Erongo region are expected participants for the study.

Participation of your child in this study will require him/her to complete Discourse Completion Tasks (DCT). The DCTs (one in Khoekhoegowab and one in English) will require your child/children to avail some **personal information** with regard to his/her **age**, **gender** and **language background**. In addition, the DCTs will constitute a variety of **situations, to which your child/children will be expected to respond**. In each case, there will be a **short description of the situation**, followed by **a question** prompting your child/children **to respond to as** he/she would **in a real life conversation.**

Participation in this study is **voluntary**, which means that you can choose whether or not your child/children may participate. There will be no negative consequences should you decide not to allow your child/children to participate. If you do permit your child/children to participate, please be informed that his/her participation may be terminated at any time without having to provide reasons for doing so.

No legal claims or rights will be waived through allowing your child/children to participate in this study.

Participation is **free of charge**, and your child/children will receive **no monetary payment** for

participating. There are **no direct benefits** or **no identifiable risks or discomforts** associated with participation in this study. However, your child/children's involvement will assist the researcher in obtaining a better picture of speech act realisation patterns in

Khoekhoegowab, and how performance of speech acts in Khoekhoegowab may affect performance of speech acts in English, which could contribute to existing body of knowledge in speech acts and in particular, on realisation of speech acts in Khoekhoegowab and how it may affect second language learning.

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you or your child/children will remain **confidential** and will be disclosed only with your written permission or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of (i) limiting access to the information obtained through your child/children to only the researcher and her supervisor and (ii) safe storage of hard copy versions of the completed DCTs. Confidentiality is thus ensured. Anonymity is also ensured as your child/children are not expected to reveal his/her name. When the findings of this study are reported in the form of a thesis and/or journal article, no reference will be made to you or your child/children. If any reference is made, it will be made in such a manner that **you or your child/children will not be identifiable** to the readers.

Should you have any **queries** regarding this study, please contact the researcher, Yolanda Uises at 0812516925 or e-mail: atikan3@gmail.com or the supervisor of this project, Dr M du Plessis at menan.du.plessis@gmail.com

Consent:

I _____ have read the above–mentioned and understand the nature of my child/children's participation in this research project and hereby agree for him/her to participate. I am aware that there is opportunity for me to ask questions about the study via telephonic contact or email, and that all questions I need answers to will be addressed/ were answered to my satisfaction. I, therefore, consent for my child/children to complete the DCTs by revealing the required personal information and responding to the prompts for the described situations.

_____   _____

Signature of parent   Date

Appendix C: Informed assent form for learners

Assent form for underage learners

Study title: **Speech act realisation patterns and possible effects of transference by speakers of   Khoekhoegowab into English when acquired as a second language**

Investigator: **Ms Yolanda Uises**

We use words to perform specific functions, such as informing or warning someone about something. The ways in which functions are performed in various languages may differ. The researcher is interested in finding out how speakers of Khoekhoegowab use words to perform functions in specific situations in two languages (Khoekhoegowab and English). The researcher is here to find out if you would be willing to participate in the study. This form tells you more about the study. If there is anything you do not understand, please ask your parent/guardian, teacher or the researcher.

The reasons for conducting the study

The purpose of the study is to see ways in which speakers of Khoekhoegowab use words to perform specific functions in Khoekhoegowab and English. In addition, it seeks to find out if the way you use words to perform these functions in Khoekhoegowab has an effect on the way you use words to

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perform the same functions in English.

If you want to be in the study, the following things will happen.

- The study will last for about 30 minutes of your class time. You will be asked to complete two forms (One in Khoekhoegowab and one in English) during the Khoekhoegowab class time. Only one Khoekhoegowab period will be used for the purpose of the study.

- The forms you will be expected to complete require you to fill in your gender, the year in which you were born, your mother tongue and the language you speak at home, if it is different from your mother tongue. You have to fill in this information for the form in Khoekhoegowab and the one in English. It should take you about 15 minutes to complete in each from.

- Each form will consist of ten different situations, to which you will be expected to respond. In each case, there will be a short description of the situation, followed by a question prompting you to respond to the situation as you would in a real life conversation. The situations will be similar to the example on the next page.

Your friend gives you a something you have wanted but could not afford as a birthday gift. What do you say to your friend when he/she gives you   the gift?

_____

_____

- You must write your response to the question following the description of each situation on the lines provided as neatly and clearly as possible. Your responses should be exactly the way you would respond to each of these situations in real life.

Decision to participate or not to participate in the study

Participation in this study is voluntary, which means that you can choose whether or not you want to be part of the study. There will be no negative consequences should you decide not to participate. You can also change your mind about participation in the study, even after you have already agreed to participate and you will not be expected to provide reasons for doing so.

Benefits and risks of participation in the study

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There are no direct benefits or no identifiable risks or discomforts associated with participation in this study. Participation is free of charge, and you will not receive any payment for participating. However, your involvement will assist the researcher in obtaining a better understanding of performance of language functions in Khoekhoegowab, and how performance of speech acts in Khoekhoegowab may affect performance of these functions in English.

Confidentiality and anonymity

No one, except the researcher and the supervisor of the researcher, will know what you did or said in connection with this study, which means that all information obtained during the study will remain confidential. You will also not be expected to write your name on any of the two forms in Khoekhoegowab and English, which you will be expected to complete. This will ensure that no information you provided can be directly linked to you.

Where to address your questions

Should you have any **queries** regarding this study, you may contact the researcher on 0812516925.

Assent

I want to take part in this study. I know I can change my mind at any time.

a). _____   Verbal assent given: Yes

   Print name of child

or

b).   Written assent if the child chooses to sign the assent

_____   _____   _____
Signature of Child   **Age**   **Date**

I confirm that I have explained the study to the participant to the extent compatible with the participants understanding, and that the participant has agreed to be in the study.

c).   _____   _____   _____

Printed name of   **Signature of**   **Date**

Person obtaining assent   **Person obtaining assent**