



Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of Foreign Languages

MASTER THESIS

Letters and Foreign Languages
English Language and literature
Sciences of the language

Submitted and Defended by:
LEBLALTA Sara

Title

**Investigating the Effects of Pragmatic Failure on the EFL
Learners on the Realization of the Speech Act of Requesting
Case of First Year Master Students of the University of Biskra**

Thesis Submitted to the Department of English Language and literature as Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of Master in Sciences of Language

Board of Examiners

Dr. LAALA Youcef	MAB Biskra	Supervisor
Dr. SEGUENI Lamri	MCA Biskra	President
Dr. NASRI Chahira	MCB Biskra	Examiner

Academic Year : 2023-2024

Abstract

One important component of communicative competence is pragmatic competence. However, pragmatic ability is devalued in the teaching of foreign languages and ignored by language learners. Because they lack the necessary awareness to use language effectively in many settings, specifically speech acts, learners are unable to prevent pragmatic failure. This study aimed to investigate pragmatic failure in English as a foreign language learners by determining which level of pragmatic failure they experience more frequently the sociopragmatic or pragmalinguistic level looking for reasons for this failure, and assessing how they perform speech acts. In order to do this, a case study involving thirty Master's level students from the University of Biskra's English department was carried out. Two research tools a questionnaire and a discourse completion test were used in this study to gather data. Both qualitative and quantitative analyses were performed on the collected data. The results showed that Algerian EFL students lack familiarity with the language, sociocultural norms, and context-specific language use of the target. Additionally, they lack the practical competence to carry out proper speech acts in English in various social contexts. Consequently, the sociopragmatic level is where EFL learners struggle more than the pragmalinguistic level. The magnitude of the imposition, taboos, culturally disparate perceptions of relative power or social distance, and value judgments are the primary reasons for this kind of failure. Pragmatic failure results from the learner's ignorance of how to execute speech acts effectively in the various settings.

Key words : communicative competence , pragmatic competence , speech acts , pragmatic failure , sociopragmatic , pragmalinguistic .

Dedication

In the accomplishment of this project successfully , many people have bestowed upon me their blessings and the heart pledged support , this time I am utilizing to thank all the people who have been concerned with this project. Primarily , I would like to thank God for letting me through all the difficulties . I have experienced your guidance day by day . You are the one who let me finish my degree . I will keep on trusting you for my future .

Secondly , I would like to dedicate my thesis to my loving parents whose continuous efforts , support and encouragement made it possible for me to do this work .

To my brothers and my only sister for making me feel that I will always have someone standing

By my side even though sometimes you are standing by my side just to annoy me.

Last but not the least , I would like to thank my cousin Fedoia who have helped me a lot .

Acknowledgments

I would like to acknowledge and give my warmest thanks to my supervisor Dr. Laala Youcef who made this work possible . His guidance and advice carried me through all the stage of writing my project .

I would also like to thank my committee members Dr. Nasri Chahira and Dr. Segueni Lamri for letting my defense be an enjoyable moment and for your brilliant comments and suggestions , thanks to you .

A big appreciation to all the students who took part in the study and led me the research results .

List of Figures :

Figure 1 : Students' gender.....	48
Figure 2 : Students' age.....	49
Figure 3: Years of studying English.....	50
Figure 4: Students' attitude towards speaking.....	51
Figure 5: Students' background knowledge of language	52

List of tables

Table 1 : Students' gender	48
Table 2 : Students' age	49
Table 3 : Years of studying English	50
Table 4 : Students' attitude towards speaking	51
Table 5 : Students' background knowledge of language	52
Table 6 : The most common request strategies used by EFL learners	53
Table 7 : The most used request strategies in situation 1	54
Table 8 : The most used request strategies in situation 2	54
Table 9 : The most used request strategies in situation 3	55
Table 10 : The most used request strategies in situation 4	56
Table 11 : The most used request strategies in situation 5	56
Table 12 : The most used request strategies in situation 6	57
Table 13 : The most used request strategies in situation 8	57

List of Acronyms :

CC Communicative Competence

CIR (H.O) Conventionally Indirect Requests (Hearer-Oriented)

CIR (S.O) Conventionally Indirect Request (Speaker-Oriented)

DCT Discourse Completion Test

EFL English as a Foreign Language

FL Foreign Language

IFID The Illocutionary Force Indicating Device

L1 Mother Tongue

L2 Second Language

PC Pragmatic Competence

TL Target Language

UIR Unconventionally (Non-conventionally) Indirect Requests

Table of contents

Abstract..	I
Dedication	II
Acknowledgments	III
List of Graphs:	IV
List of tables:	V
List of acronyms:VI
Table of contents	VII
GENERAL INTRODUCTION:	1
Chapter One :	5
Literature Review	5
Introduction	6
Pragmatics	6
A Brief History of Pragmatics	6
Nature of Pragmatics :	7
Pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics	9
Intercultural pragmatics :	10
Communicative Competence :	12
Components of communicative competence :	13
Pragmatic Competence :	18
The relation between communicative competence and pragmatic competence :	19
Pragmatic Failure:	20
Types of Pragmatic Failure :	21
Pragmalinguistic Failure :	21
Sociopragmatic Failure :	22

Origins of Pragmatic Failure	24
Relevance and communication	25
Naïve optimism, (mis)interpretation and pragmatic failure	26
SPEECH ACTs	28
Speech Act Theory :	29
Performative utterances	31
Levels of speech act :	33
Classification of Speech Acts :	36
Representatives	37
Directives	37
Commissives	37
Expressives	37
Declarations	38
Direct and Indirect Speech Acts :	39
Request Speech Act.....	39
Strategies of requesting	41
-Direct requests:	41
- Indirect requests:.....	41
Requests of native speakers of English	42
Conclusion	42
chapter two:Research Methodology and Data Analysis and Recommendations....	44
Introduction :	45
Participants :	45
Research Instrument :	45
Advantages and Disadvantages of DCT:.....	46
A/ Advantages :.....	46
B/ Disadvantages :	46
Description of the Questionnaire :	47
Discussion of the results :	58
Interpretation of the overall results in relation to the research questions :	62
Recommendations to overcome pragmatic failure :	64

Conclusion :	65
General conclusion :	66
Reference List	69
Appendices	62
ملخص.....	76

General Introduction

GENERAL INTRODUCTION:

Learning a language is not just learning a collection of rules and applying them in sentences , we need to understand how language is used within the cultural context of its speakers . A successful communication is an eligible result of every person , who is in participation in the discourse , in order to create favorable conditions for interaction , both interlocutors should be aware of how communication act emerges .

Pragmatic is the study of the use of language in communication particularly the relationship among sentences and the context of situations in which they are used . Pragmatic includes the study of ; how the interpretation and use of utterances depends on knowledge of the real world ; how speakers use and understand speech acts ; how the structure of sentences is influenced by the relationship between the speaker and hearer this tell us that pragmatic stresses on the relationship among utterances and the context and speaker's intention . When the pragmatic force of language is misunderstood the communication fail , which is called the pragmatic failure .

According to Hymes' notion, for foreign learners acquiring the linguistic competence only in the target language is not enough to communicate effectively and to participate in cross-cultural communication; communicative competence as a whole is required with all its components: linguistic, discourse, sociolinguistic and strategic competence. Competent language users need mastery of both the form and the function of a language, and most importantly to have the ability to use language appropriately in different social contexts, i.e., pragmatic competence. This latter is a key element of communicative competence since it is related to the individual's achievement of appropriateness and effectiveness in his choice of language, namely speech acts, in a specific context. There are two types of pragmatic competence: sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic .

In this regard , since English in Algeria is considered as a foreign language, Algerian learners of English are considered as EFL learners. Hence, pragmatic competence is a must for them. The fact that one can produce grammatically correct sentences does not guarantee that he owns pragmatic competence.

Contributing to the field of study , taking first year Master students as a case study , this study aims at investigating EFL learners' pragmatic failure

Research Questions

In order to examine the raised issue , the following research questions have been put forward :

1. At what level , pragmalinguistic level or sociopragmatic level do EFL learneres exhibit more pragmatic failure ?
2. What are the key factors behind sociopragmatic Failure ?
3. Does the unawareness of performing speech acts (namely Apologizing and Requesting) lead to Pragmatic Failure ?

Research Hypotheses

In relation to the above stated questions the researcher puts forward the following hypotheses:

1. EFL learners exhibit more pragmatic failure at the sociopragmatic level
2. The key factors behind sociopragmatic failure are lack of communication with native speakers , taboos , cross culturally different assessments of relative power or social distance and value judgments and size of imposition
3. Yes , the unawareness of performing speech acts namely apologizing and requesting lead to pragmatic failure .

In order to conduct this research and meet the goals that were set in advance , the research designed a research methodology . An exploratory case study will be used with master one English students at the university of Mohamed Khider Biskra . In this study both qualitative and quantitative data will be gathered using different research instruments : a questionnaire and a DCT for students . Both qualitative and quantitative methods will be employed for data analysis .

The study aims

- This study aims to investigate how pragmatic failure in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners affects their realization of the speech act of requesting.
- Investigate the cognitive factors that contribute to pragmatic failure in requests. This could involve exploring how learners' limited vocabulary or knowledge of social cues impact their ability to formulate appropriate requests.
- Examine the impact of pragmatic failure on learners' motivation and confidence in using English for communication. This could involve analyzing if pragmatic errors lead to discouragement or a reluctance to make requests.
- Explore the effectiveness of different teaching methods or materials in helping EFL learners avoid pragmatic failure in requests.
- Investigate how pragmatic failure affects the success rate of requests made by EFL learners. This could involve analyzing if different request strategies (direct vs. indirect) are more susceptible to pragmatic failure depending on the context.

Research objectives

- To analyze how pragmatic failure impacts the effectiveness of EFL learners' requests in achieving their desired outcomes (e.g., getting something done, receiving information).
- To explore the potential causes of pragmatic failure in EFL learners' requests, including factors like limited vocabulary, cultural differences, or lack of exposure to appropriate request strategies.
- To investigate the impact of pragmatic failure on the listener's perception of

the EFL learner.

- To investigate the strategies EFL learners employ to recover from pragmatic failure in requests. This could involve analyzing how they rephrase requests, offer explanations, or adjust their tone based on listener feedback.
- To track the development of pragmatic competence in requests over time, potentially linking it with overall language proficiency gains in EFL learners.

Chapter One :

Literature Review

Introduction

The first chapter is about the literature review of pragmatic failure and all the theoretical data related to it . It aims at showing the different strategies to perform speech acts of : apology and request , and the reasons behind EFL learners' pragmatic failure . The theoretical foundation for pragmatic failure will be presented in this chapter. Intercultural pragmatics will be discussed once we have covered the general definition of pragmatics. Furthermore, we will focus on pragmatic competence and its different components throughout the definition of communicative competence and its many models. Furthermore, we shall address pragmatic failure by defining and categorizing it. Lastly, we will discuss speech acts of request and apology, their methods, and how native speakers carry them out.

.1Pragmatics

Before defining pragmatics and intercultural pragmatics few words about its history are in order.

1.1.A Brief History of Pragmatics

Originating in the philosophy of language, pragmatics is a contemporary field of study within linguistics. The philosophical foundations of it can be found in the 1930s writings of philosophers Charles Morris, Rudolf Carnap, and Charles Peirce. For instance, Morris (1938:6-7), influenced by Peirce, divided semiotics a generic science of signs into three categories: syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. This typology states that semantics deals with the relationship between signs and what they denote, pragmatics with the relationship between signs and what they denote, and pragmatics with the relationship between signs and their users and interpreters. Syntax is the study of the formal relationship between one sign and another. (Levinson 1983:1;Horn and Ward 2004) . Carnap (1942) adopted this trichotomy and proposed a similar order of degree of abstractness for the three branches of inquiry: pragmatics is the least abstract, semantics is in the middle, and syntax is the most, based on Morris' observation that syntax, semantics, and pragmatics are ranked hierarchically. As a result, pragmatics receives input from semantics, which receives input from syntax.

Literature Review

The analytic philosophy of language saw the emergence of two loosely affiliated conflicting schools of thought or movements in the 1950s: the school of ideal language philosophy and the school of ordinary or natural language philosophy.

According to Bar-Hillel's sensible advice, linguists like Laurence Horn, Gerald Gazdar, and Charles Fillmore conducted a considerable deal of significant research in the 1970s to "bring some order into the content of the pragmatic wastebasket" (1971).

The area of study has kept growing and developing. Over the past twenty years, there have been significant advancements in the field of philosophy, including the neo Gricean pragmatic theories of Jay Atlas, Laurence Horn, and Stephen Levinson, the relevance theory of Dan Sperber and Deirdere Wilson, and the significant contributions of philosophers like Kent Bach, Herman Cappelen, Ernest Lepore, and François Recanati. There is currently no doubt about the future of pragmatics . (Huang, 2014)

1.2. Nature of Pragmatics :

Pragmatics, in general, studies how language users understand and do a communicative act, or speech act, during a discussion. It distinguishes between two meanings or purposes in statements or verbal communication acts. The communicative intent or speaker meaning is recognized as the other, while the informational intent or sentence meaning is recognized as the first (Leech, 1983; Sperber & Wilson, 1986). In modern linguistics, pragmatics research is expanding quickly. According to Huang (2007), pragmatics has grown to be both a hub for linguistics and the philosophy of language. People's verbal communication is guided by a number of generally acknowledged pragmatics rules, which also lead to proper utterances and language comprehension. (Lan, 2019)

The study of pragmatics is concerned with meaning, language usage, and users. It concerns the way in which people use language in social interactions. One of the most creative human endeavors, this process involves communicators manipulating language while they simultaneously act as hearers, translators, and speakers.to construe and deduce meaning within a sociocultural framework. For pragmatists, the following are the major research questions: why do we select to say what we say ? (producing), and why do we perceive the world in the manner that we do? (Awareness). We must first provide some background information on the enterprise before we can start answering these queries. Philosophers like Morris, Carnap, and Peirce created a semiotic trichotomy in the 1930s. According to this

Literature Review

theory, pragmatics dealt with how signs relate to their users and interpreters, semantics handled how signs relate to what they represent, and syntax handled the formal relationships between signs. According to Morris (1938:6), pragmatics is "the study of the relation of signs to interpreters." Since then, all definitions of pragmatics have been partially influenced by his.

Stalnaker stated that pragmatics is "the study of linguistic acts and the contexts in which they are performed," which is what pragmatics have attempted to accomplish by making the Morris definition more specific. According to him, pragmatics aims to "define the characteristics of the speech situation which aid in determining which A provided statement expresses a proposition (Stalnaker 1972:383). Pragmatics is "the study of the competence of language use," according to Kasher (1998). Wilson (2003) defined pragmatics as the study of the interaction between linguistic features and contextual elements in the interpretation of utterances, allowing listeners to understand the meaning of the speaker and the sentence.

pragmatics According to Horn and Ward (2004), is the study of the meaning-dependent contexts that are systematically ignored when creating logical forms. As may be seen, The producer-interpreters of the linguistic code, the socio-cultural context (frame) in which interaction occurs, and the linguistic code itself are the fundamental components shared by all definitions. Since these three factors interact to produce communication, pragmatics should concentrate on how meaning is formed and inferred during social interactions between people. It is not so easy, though, as language research is typically broken down into two sections: a description of language's structure and a description of its use. Thus, linguists are hesitant to mix grammar and usage studies, despite the fact that they have always acknowledged the close relationship between the two. Pragmaticians are split as a result. Although linguistic pragmatists all highlight language use as their primary focus, others are mainly interested in studying the relationships between language and environment that are encoded in a language's structure, or grammaticalized (Levinson 1983:9). Pragmaticians, on the other hand, are concerned in the code, its interpreters, and the sociocultural background in addition to the code itself. They contend that an investigation into the grammaticalized pragmatic features alone is unable to provide a sufficient understanding of meaning construction and comprehension, and that inferential communication is only possible because of the dynamic and generally harmonious interaction of all three participating elements (speaker, code, and context). As a result of the attempt to limit pragmatics to only linguistic issues, the component approach was developed, which lists pragmatics alongside phonology, morphology, semantics, and syntax as components of grammar.

Literature Review

The general theory of speaker/hearer competency is said to include a pragmatic module. This perspective stems from the modular understanding of the human mind, which is widely accepted by psychologists, cognitive scientists, and computer scientists. Numerous people have questioned the strategy. Sperber & Wilson (1986), for example, contended that, similar to scientific reasoning, pragmatics, the paradigm case of a nonmodular, "horizontal" system, cannot be a module because of the uncertainty of the predictions it makes and the global knowledge it summons. Verschueren (1999) provided a description of the viewpoint view, contending that pragmatics provides a perspective rather than being an extra element of a theory of language. In terms of linguistic phenomena and how they are used in forms of action, he views pragmatics as "a general cognitive, social, and cultural perspective" (Verschueren 1999:7).

The perspective view is inclusive, but the component view is exclusive. The former concentrates on specific language components, such as words (morphology), sounds (phonology), and sentences (syntax), whereas the latter examines language as a whole from an operational, functional standpoint. (Kecskes, 2014)

1.3. Pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics

pragmatics is divided into two categories According to Leech (1983) : pragmalinguistics , which examines the relationships between particular intentions and actual utterances, and sociopragmatics, which examines the impact of general socio-cultural elements on language use. The interface he perceives between pragmatics and the fields of semantics, syntax, and phonology collectively referred to as grammar is pragmalinguistics. Thomas (1983) defined sociopragmatics as the "... social conditions placed on language in use...", (p. 99), but Wolfson (1989a) defined it as "... knowing what to say and whom to say it to" (p. 17). Pragmalinguistics is concerned with the internal relationship between the speaker's intents and particular utterances, as opposed to the exterior orientation of sociopragmatics. This is referred to as "... the particular resources which a given language provides for conveying particular illocutions," as Leech (1983) puts it. One sociopragmatic concern is how a hearer's status affects the reality of an apology. A pragmatic language issue is the impact of the imposition's intensity. The fact that the same linguistic features may respond to both types of effects or just one of them makes it more difficult to distinguish between pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic effects (Hudson et al., 1992). (Morrow, 1995)

1.4. Intercultural pragmatics :

Current pragmatic ideas have given rise to the field of intercultural pragmatics. The increased interest in cross-cultural pragmatics in the 1990s led to the necessity to verify the applicability of the main principles of the Gricean methods, which were mostly monolingual-centered in character, to intercultural encounters. Intercultural communication, interlanguage pragmatics. Consequently, as we shall see later, some of the key claims of Gricean pragmatics have been interpreted differently, while the others have required modification. Gricean pragmatics has always been the main source of development for intercultural pragmatics, even though it has since evolved into an independent, interdisciplinary field with its own biannual conferences and journal. It draws on insights from anthropology, communication, linguistics, discourse and dialogue studies, and second language acquisition in addition to pragmatics theory. Thus, providing an overview of current pragmatics research from the standpoint of intercultural pragmatics is crucial. (Kecskes, 2014)

Once pragmatics was split into two components pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics by Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983), sociopragmatics emerged as an influential line of inquiry within pragmatics. This line of inquiry must be distinguished from intercultural pragmatics. The tools used to communicate interpersonal or relational meanings as well as communicative behaviors are referred to as pragmatic languages. These tools include pragmatic approaches like routines, directness and indirectness, and a wide range of linguistic sociolinguistics. His research revealed that systematically disparate ways of interpreting and creating meaning through language contributed to discrimination against West Indian, Pakistani, and Indian residents of London in the workplace. Tannen (1985; 2005) focuses not only on language but also on the ways in which communication styles help or impede interpersonal relationships. She asserts, for example, that men and women are products of distinct cultures. Their communication approaches are distinct but equally valid. Rather of focusing solely on the language itself, Scollon and Scollon (2001; 2003) found meaning in the richness and complexity of the experienced world. They view communication as a process of selection in which the other person is positioned as a certain type of person who selects from a range of meaning potentials a subset of pathways that can either soften or increase communication (Scollon and Scollon 2003:205). Compare these two iterations of the request, for instance:

POLICE OFFICER TO A DRIVER: - Can I see your driver's license?

Literature Review

ALESSANDRO TO HIS AMERICAN FRIEND, BILL: - Hey, dude, show me your driver's license?

In both situations, the speaker makes a selection from a wide range of English language pragmalinguistic resources that can be used to make a request. All the same, these two statements indicate quite distinct social relationships and attitudes. For this reason, sociopragmatics plays a crucial role in speech analysis. Sociopragmatics is defined by Leech (1983:10) as "the sociological interface of pragmatics." He was speaking about the societal conceptions that guided how participants interpreted and carried out their communication behavior. Speech communities vary in how they evaluate the social distance and social power between speakers and hearers, as well as the rights and obligations of each party and the level of imposition inherent in specific communication acts (Kasper and Rose 2001). Sociopragmatics is concerned with the social appropriateness of communicative behavior, whereas pragmalinguistics is similar to grammatical studies in that it investigates linguistic forms and their relative purposes, according to Thomas (1983). As the example below shows, speakers need to be mindful of the effects of their pragmatic decisions.

BILL: Well, I have to go now. Why don't we have lunch some time?

DMITRIJ: When? Do you have time tomorrow at noon?

BILL: I am afraid not. I'll talk to you later.

It is clear that Dmitrij committed a sociopragmatic error here. His American friend used the expression "why don't we have lunch some time?" as a politeness marker rather than a real lunch invitation. Among other publications by Gumperz, Tannen, and Scollon, sociopragmatics was explored further. In 1982, Gumperz established interactional . (Kecskes, *Intercultural Pragmatics* , 2014)

Cross-cultural pragmatics and interlanguage pragmatics are two subfields that have developed as a result of advancements in sociopragmatics and the socio-cultural–interactional line. Distinguishing research on intercultural interaction and discourse from interlanguage pragmatics and cross-cultural pragmatics was a major factor in the formation of intercultural pragmatics as a separate field of study at the start of the 2000s. Under the motto "when in Rome, do as the Romans do," cross-cultural pragmatics embodies the positivist research endeavors of the 1980s and 1990s. To accomplish that, one must be aware of the variations and commonalities in language use across cultural contexts. Because of this, the discipline's main

Literature Review

objective has been to look into and highlight linguistic behavior elements where speakers of different cultures differ and agree. The cross-cultural pragmatics method is comparative, according to Kasper and Schmidt (1996), and it focuses on the similarities and differences between cultures in terms of language realization and sociopragmatic judgment in various circumstances. (Kecskes, *Intercultural Pragmatics*, 2014)

2. Communicative Competence :

Hymes gives us a far more expansive definition of competence that aims to explain how a typical child learns to recognize sentences as appropriate in addition to being grammatically correct. He or she gains competency in knowing when to say and when to remain silent, as well as what to discuss and with whom, where, when, and how. To put it briefly, a child learns how to perform a repertoire of speech actions, participate in speech events, and assess their own performance in relation to that of others. Furthermore, this competence is important to attitudes, values, and motivations about language, its characteristics, and its applications. It is also integral to competence and attitudes toward the relationship between language and other codes of communicative conduct.

This kind of competence adds the pragmatic component of being able to use language forms appropriately in context, as opposed to only knowing language forms. Hymes uses the term "competence" to refer to both technique knowledge and application ability. This broadening of the definition of competence highlights the interdependence of cognitive from effective and volitive components and permits the incorporation of non-cognitive elements like motivation, attitude, and values (cf. Hymes 1972:283). As a result, it is possible to argue that Hymes's theory of communicative competence is predicated on the interaction of probabilistic, sociolinguistic, psycholinguistic, and grammatical thought systems. However, anything that is not grammatical is confined to the realm of performance in Chomsky's concept of (linguistic) competence. Performance, or communicative performance, is the manifestation of the four components mentioned and their interaction in the actual production and interpretation of utterances, in line with Hymes's much broader definition of (communicative) competence.

Canale / Swain's concept of communicative competence Canale / Swain were interested in communicative competency since they had to create language assessments to gauge French language learners' proficiency and understanding of the language. They are obviously influenced by Hymes in their theory of the nature of such knowledge and proficiency: they

Literature Review

include linguistic competence in communicative competence and assert that "there are rules of language use that would be useless without rules of grammar" (Canale/Swain 1980: 5). Four competency domains are distinguished by their concept of communicative competence (cf. Canale/Swain 1980: 27–31; Canale 1983: 22–25). For a comprehensive examination of its alignment with Hymes's plan, go to Widdowson (2003: 166–66). Understanding of phonology, spelling, vocabulary, word creation, and sentence structure are all components of grammatical competency.

Understanding of sociocultural norms of usage is a component of sociolinguistic competency. It focuses on the student's capacity to manage various sociolinguistic contexts, themes, and communicative tasks, among other things. Furthermore, it addresses the appropriate use of grammatical forms in various sociolinguistic contexts and for various communicative purposes.

The ability of a student to comprehend and produce texts in the listening, speaking, reading, and writing modes is referred to as discourse competency. It addresses coherence and cohesiveness in various text forms.

When faced with grammatical, sociolinguistic, or discourse difficulties, strategic competence refers to compensatory strategies. These include using reference materials, paraphrasing grammatically and lexically, asking for clarification or repetition, speaking more slowly, and having trouble approaching strangers when unsure of their social status in order to find the appropriate cohesion devices. It also takes into account performance aspects like using gap fillers or managing background noise. (Peterwagner, 2005)

2.2 Components of communicative competence :

Grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence are the four knowledge and skill domains that make up the minimal components of the theoretical framework for communicative competence that is put forth here. This theory of communicative competence is thought to interact in as-yet-unspecified ways with a theory of human action (which addresses aspects like will and personality) as well as other systems of knowledge and skill (like world knowledge). Additionally, it is presumed that some of the competences discussed here are related to language usage for purposes other than communication (cf. Canale 1981b).

Literature Review

Grammatical competence: This kind of competency is still focused on mastering the verbal and nonverbal language codes. Language characteristics and conventions, including vocabulary, word and phrase construction, pronunciation, spelling, and linguistic semantics, are so covered here. Grammatical competence is a crucial component of any second language curriculum because it focuses directly on the information and abilities needed to comprehend and effectively convey the literal meaning of utterances. Though see the excellent discussions in Allen and Widdowson 1975 and Rutherford 1980 on this last point, note that it is still unclear which current theory of grammar can be chosen over others to characterize this competence and in what ways a theory of grammar is directly relevant for second language pedagogy.

Sociolinguistic competence : This component was described in Canale and Swain (1980) as comprising both sociocultural rules of discourse and rules of use; only the former set of rules is discussed here. The degree to which utterances are generated and understood appropriately in various sociolinguistic contexts, depending on contextual factors like the participants' status, the interaction's goals, and its norms or conventions, is thus referred to as sociolinguistic competence (for more on these factors, see, for example, Hymes 1967). The term "appropriateness of utterances" refers to both form and meaning suitability. The degree to which specific communicative functions (such as demanding, complaining, and inviting), attitudes (such as formality and politeness), and concepts are deemed appropriate in a given circumstance is known as appropriateness of meaning. For example, no matter how the utterance and communication function (a command) were presented grammatically, it would usually be improper for a server in a restaurant to order a certain menu item off the menu. The degree to which a given meaning (including communicative functions, attitudes, and propositions/ideas) is expressed in a verbal and/or non-verbal form that is appropriate in a particular sociolinguistic situation is known as appropriateness of form. For instance, asking, "OK, chump, what are you and this broad gonna eat?" would be considered inappropriate grammar use (here register) by a waiter attempting to take a polite order in a sophisticated restaurant. As such, the concept of appropriateness of form encompasses what Richards (1981) and others have referred to as "interactional competence," which deals with proxemics and kinesics appropriateness. It is evident that the concept of naturalness or probability of occurrence (cf. Hymes 1972a, b, p. 281) can also be a significant factor in determining whether meaning and form are appropriate; however, considering the unpredictable and creative nature of communication as mentioned in Section 1.1 above, this concept may not have much application. Regarding the last point, see Can- ale and Swain (1980, p. 38, footnote 2) and Blum-Kulka (1980).

Literature Review

Many second language programs have a propensity to prioritize grammatical proficiency over sociolinguistic competency. For two reasons, this propensity looks strange. First of all, it conveys the idea that grammatical accuracy is more significant than appropriateness in real-world communication; however, data from the use of first and second languages contradict this idea (see Terrell 1980, p. 330, footnote 2 and Jones 1978, p. 92). Second, when interpreting utterances for their "social meaning," such as communicative function and attitude, when this is unclear from the literal meaning of utterances or from non-verbal cues (such as sociocultural context and gestures), this tendency overlooks the importance of sociolinguistic competence. Without a doubt, there are universal components of proper language use that do not require learning again in order to communicate well in a second language. (cf. Brown and Levinson 1978; Canale and Swain 1980; Goffman 1976; Schmidt and Richards 1980). However, there are also cultural and linguistic differences. Blum-Kulka (1980), Brown and Levinson (1978), Cazden (1972), Clyne (1975), Cook-Gumperz and Gumperz (1980), Richards (1981), Scollon and Scollon (1979), and Tannen (1980), among others, have all contributed significantly to this last point. For instance, Blum-Kulka (1980) separates three categories of rules—pragmatic, social-appropriateness, and linguistic-realization—that interact to determine how well a particular communicative function is expressed and understood.

The situational prerequisites that must be met in order to perform a specific communicative function are known as pragmatic rules (e.g. to offer a command, one must have the authority to do so). Social-appropriateness standards address whether or not a particular function is typically communicated, and if it is, how directly (such as by asking a stranger how much money they make). The number and structural range of forms associated with each function, the generality of forms across functions and situations, the frequency with which a given grammatical form is used to convey a given function, and the ways to modulate the attitudinal tone of a given function are just a few of the factors that are taken into account by linguistic-realization rules. Her exploratory research indicates that from pragmatic norms to social-appropriateness rules to linguistic-realization rules, the universality of sociolinguistic appropriateness declines. Clyne (1975) reports comparable results. Blum-Kulka's own concluding remarks, "It is quite clear that as long as we do not know more about the ways in which communicative functions are being achieved in different languages, [second language] learners will often fail to achieve their communicative ends in the target language, and neither they nor their teachers will really understand why," wonderfully capture the significance of sociolinguistic competence for second language pedagogy. Page 40

Literature Review

Discourse competence: This kind of competency focuses on the ability to blend meanings and grammatical constructions to produce coherent written or spoken language across a variety of genres.² A genre is a type of text; for instance, an argumentative essay, a scientific report, a business letter, an oral and written tale, and a set of instructions are all examples of distinct genres. Coherence in content and cohesion in form are what give a book its unity. Cohesion helps in text interpretation by addressing the structural links between utterances. Pronouns, synonyms, ellipses, conjunctions, and parallel structures are a few examples of cohesion devices that are used to link individual utterances and specify how a collection of utterances is to be understood as a text, such as logically or chronologically. The relationships between the various meanings in a text—which can include literal meanings, communicative purposes, and attitudes—are referred to as coherence. Take into consideration, for instance, the following three statements (from Widdowson 1978, p. 29):

SPEAKER A: That's the telephone.

SPEAKER B: I'm in the bath.

SPEAKER A: OK.

Widdowson notes that even though there isn't a clear indication of coherence between these statements, they do make up a coherent discourse to the extent that A makes a request in the first place, B responds with an explanation for why she didn't comply, and A acknowledges the explanation in the last line. Charolles (1978, p. 11f.) provides a very incisive treatment of coherence, distinguishing four kinds of 'meta-rules' for achieving and evaluating text coherence. These are: meaning that is repeated to denote continuity; meaning that is progressive to show direction and growth; meaning that is relevant to suggest congruity; and meaning that is non-contradictory to express consistency. Charolles' study also makes it abundantly evident that cohesion devices function to support these kinds of coherence meta-rules. The significant research of Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Freedle, Fine, and Fellbaum (1981) aims to pinpoint the various coherence-serving cohesion methods that enhance a text's coherence and overall quality. It should be rather obvious to distinguish between grammatical and sociolinguistic competence and this idea of discourse knowledge and skill. Take the following discussion, for instance (Widdowson 1978, p. 25):

SPEAKER A: What did the rain do?

SPEAKER B: The crops were destroyed by the rain.

Literature Review

Although B's response fits our framework's grammatical and sociolinguistic requirements, it is not clearly related to A's query. As noted by Widdowson, the breach in this instance appears to be at the discourse level and involves the standard arrangement of English sentences (and texts), where topic (shared information) comes before remark (new information). The grammatical forms of utterances that can coexist with A's question are limited by this discourse principle, which separates compatible from incompatible forms based on both grammaticality and sociolinguistic appropriateness. This interplay of discourse, sociolinguistic, and grammatical rules is consistent with the division between these three domains of competence that is put forward here and suggests the complexity of communicative competence. While Morgan (1981) and Williams (1977) emphasize the formal distinction between rules of grammar and rules of discourse, it is not obvious that all discourse rules must be separated from grammatical rules (as concerns cohesion) and sociolinguistic rules (as concerns coherence).

Strategic competence : This element consists of the ability to effectively use both verbal and nonverbal communication techniques. It can be used for two main purposes: (a) to make up for communication breakdowns caused by limiting circumstances during the actual communication (such as a brief loss of memory for an idea or grammatical form) or by a lack of competency in one or more other areas of communicative competence; and (b) to increase the effectiveness of communication (e.g. deliberately slow and soft speech for rhetorical effect). For example, paraphrasing is a compensatory method that can be employed when one cannot recall a specific grammatical form. Therefore, a learner would attempt a paraphrase like "the place where trains go" or "the place for trains" if they were unfamiliar with the English term for "train station." However, effective communication calls for learners to address issues of a sociolinguistic (e.g., how to address strangers when uncertain of their social status) and discourse (e.g., how to achieve coherence in a text when unsure of cohesion devices) nature in addition to grammatical problems. The works of Bialystok, Fröhlich and Howard (1979), Palmer (1977), Stern (1978), Swain (1977), Tar-one (1977, 1980), and Terrell (1977) all have insightful discussions and provide examples of communication techniques. Moreover, the significance of emotive variables in enhancing successful communication is highlighted by Hinofotis (1981a), Lepicq (1980), Wiemann and Backlund (1980), and Wong-Fillmore (1979). Lepicq (1980), for example, notes that native-speaker judges believe that learners' self-assurance and openness to communication can make up for their grammatical accuracy problems. (Jack C . Richards, 1983)

2.3 Pragmatic Competence :

The study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction, and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication" (Crystal, 1997, p.301) is the definition of pragmatics, a subfield of mathematics. Originally belonging to the field of philosophy of language (Morris, 1938), this word has evolved to be associated with sociolinguistics and other subdisciplines. This phrase is currently widely used in the context of teaching and acquiring second and foreign languages, particularly in relation to pragmatic competence, which is one of the skills included under the general heading of communicative competence. Chomsky (1980) defined pragmatic competence as "knowledge of conditions and manner of appropriate use (of the language), in conformity with various purposes" (p. 224). This definition is notable for its earlyness. This idea was seen to be in contradiction to grammatical competence, which is defined as "the knowledge of form and meaning" according to Chomsky. In a more contextualized way, pragmatic competence was one of the key elements of Canale & Swain's (1980) model of communicative competence. According to Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983), pragmatic competence is defined as the ability to use language in a context that is suitable. It was classified as sociolinguistic competence in this model. Later on, Canale (1988) expanded on this definition, saying that pragmatic competence encompasses both "sociolinguistic competence, or knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions for performing language functions appropriately in a given context, and illocutionary competence, or the knowledge of the pragmatic conventions for performing acceptable language functions" (p. 90). (Rueda, 2006)

The following is a definition of pragmatic competence provided by Chomsky (1980)[9]: being aware of the guidelines and appropriate ways to use the language according to certain objectives. Understanding how to utilize appropriate language for social interactions in various social circumstances is known as pragmatic competence for second language learners. Nonetheless, Thomas (1983)[10] views pragmaticlinguistic competence as language users' capacity to carry out their own speech acts and to accomplish The two categories of communicative extra-linguistic power are sociopragmatic competence and pragmatic competence. The knowledge of one's native tongue is frequently linked to pragmatic proficiency, because grammatical norms vary among nations. The root cause of sociopragmatic competency is cultural diversity. Every second language learner wants to increase their

communicative ability, even though some have already mastered certain language skills. Nonetheless, in some communication situations, pragmatic expertise is essential. Preliminary findings indicate that there might be a connection between second language learners' pragmatic competence improvement and greater attentiveness. Some Chinese language learners think that pragmatic competence is the ability to communicate and accomplish goals by using suitable speech in particular settings. communication skills are broken down into four categories: discourse organization skills, pragmatic language skills, social pragmatic skills, and pragmatic knowledge skills (Chen, 2009)[11]. His categorization of dimensions does have certain limits, though, such as not addressing the psychological aspects of learners. People have distinct ways of doing things when they are in different environments. Conversations with friends tend to be informal and center around the question of whether the message can be communicated in the end. They don't give a damn about some practical knowledge gaps. Thus, pragmatic competence plays a crucial role in communicative expression.(Yan, 2022)

2.4 The relation between communicative competence and pragmatic

competence :

It is a difficult but crucial task to comprehend the relationship between pragmatic competence (PC) and communicative competence (CC). The two ideas represent diverse viewpoints and have come from distinct research lines. The research of sociolinguists and anthropologists has led to the extension of the term "communicative competence" to L2 pedagogy. This phrase was coined by Hymes (1967) to describe the comprehension of the principles necessary to produce and comprehend language's social and referential meanings. Grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence are the four components of Canale's (1983) seminal model of communicative competence. Canale intended for the word "CC" to refer to a universally recognized level of effective language proficiency, although some writers (Paulston, 1990, for example) have limited the concept by distinguishing it from linguistic competence in the Chomskyan sense . The use of pragmatic competence to second language acquisition is a relatively new development, having originated in theoretical linguistics. But the conventional understanding of PC and CC are almost identical. "The ability to use language effectively in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand language in context" (p. 92) is how Thomas (1984) defined

PC. The primary distinction between the two ideas is that, although PC is not typically associated with global language competency, CC is. In contrast to Canale's concept, Leech and Thomas believed that PC was an element of general linguistic ability. According to Wolfson (1989a) and Olshtain and Cohen (1991), PC might be found in Canale's sociolinguistic component of the CC model. This seems untenable, however, since discursive (sequential) factors are so important in normal speech-act performance. Since speech acts are the subject of the present investigation, PC will be used by this author in the rather narrow sense delineated by Kasper and Dahl (1991). They used the term interlanguage pragmatics to describe "nonnative speakers' comprehension and production of speech acts, and how their L2-related speech act knowledge is acquired" (p. 216). (Morrow, 1995)

3. Pragmatic Failure:

It is important to remember that the majority of our misinterpretations of other people don't stem from a lack of capacity to hear, comprehend, or form sentences in their speech. The fact that we frequently fail to understand the goal of the person speaking is a considerably more significant cause of communication problems. Thomas (1983) coined the term 'pragmatic failure' to describe the incapacity to understand the meaning implicit in what is uttered. In a way, the collapse of cross-cultural communication is the result of pragmatic failure. Thus, it's critical to investigate the reasons behind pragmatic failure and figure out how to avoid humiliating situations caused by careless language selection, or, alternatively, how to avoid unintentionally offending someone. There are primarily two sorts of pragmatic failure: sociopragmatic failure and pragmalinguistic failure. Thomas (ibid) borrows these terms from Leech's (1983) discussion of the scope of pragmatics, where he makes a distinction between the two.

According to Leech (1983), pragmatics is the study of language use and our linguistic awareness of it. According to Crystal (1998), it is the examination of language use through the lens of a language's structural resources. For instance, it looks at the pronoun system of a T/V language to confirm how individuals use pronouns to indicate intimacy or deference, or it ascertains the available linguistic patterns or forms to express apology. While sociopragmatics studies the social backgrounds of the participants in an interaction and examines how factors (like sex, age, power, etc.) affect people's choice of linguistic patterns or forms, sociopragmatics is concerned with how our sociological knowledge influences our interaction (Leech, 1983). (Crystal, 1998). While sociopragmatic failure results from disparate cultural conceptions of

what constitutes appropriate language behavior, pragmaticlinguistic failure is primarily a linguistic issue brought on by variations in the linguistic encoding of pragmatic force (Thomas, 1983). These two categories of failure are indicative of two essentially distinct approaches to practical decision-making. However, it is important to note that because of their close relationship and overlap, these two forms of pragmatic failure are not always easily distinguishable from one another. Understanding various contexts, motives, and interlocutors is crucial for accurately interpreting an unsuitable speech, which can be viewed as a sociolinguistic or pragmatic failure depending on the perspective (He, 1997: 27).(Mubarak, 2005)

3.1.Types of Pragmatic Failure :

Thomas (1983 distinguishes two types of pragmatic failure: pragmalinguistic failure and sociopragmatic failure.

A. Pragmalinguistic Failure :

...occurs when speech act strategies are improperly transferred from L1 to L2, or when the pragmatic force mapped by S onto a specific utterance is systematically different from the force most frequently assigned to it by native speakers of the target language (Thomas 0983:99). It is the outcome of issues with pragmatic force's language encoding. Both pragmatic transfer and interlanguage-specific errors can lead to pragmatic linguistic failure (cf. 3.1) . A common instance is when a learner perceives an utterance to have the illocutionary force of a request, but the hearer hears the speech as a command because of improper use of directness or modification.

Stated differently, it occurs when a non-native speaker uses the target language appropriately, but in an improper manner (Reynolds, 1995:6). Teaching-induced mistakes and pragmalinguistic transfer—the improper transfer of speech acts from the speaker's native language to the target language are the two distinct causes of it. In actuality, some instructional strategies may make pragmalinguistic failure more likely. In an extensive examination, Kasper (1981) has discovered a number of what she refers to as "teaching-induced errors." Some of

these errors are related to teaching materials (such as the improper use of modals), while others are related to classroom discourse (such as complete sentences, answers, improper propositional explicitness, etc.).

English textbooks in our preparatory schools have instilled in pupils the notion that they must only use perfectly grammatically correct sentences when speaking English. The textual pragmatic "principle of economy" is violated by entire phrase responses, nevertheless (Leech, 1983: 67-8). Thus, in interactions, misinterpretations happen frequently. This will be made clearer by the following example:

A : Have you washed the dishes ?

B : yes , I have washed the dishes .

Here 'Yes , I have (or ' Yes' alone) is the proper answer which is usually given by native speakers of English in similar situations . The complete response in this example otherwise implies B's being irritated , annoyed , ...etc. to give an answer , the matter which gives the unintended impression of B's uncooperativeness (Jernigan, 2007) .(Mubarak, 2005)

B.Sociopragmatic Failure :

The phrase "sociopragmatic failure" refers to the breakdown of the societal constraints imposed on language use. Stated differently, it occurs when assumptions regarding variables such as the scope of the imposition, social distance, relative rights and obligations, etc. are incorrect. Thus, rather than being linguistic at the beginning, sociopragmatic decisions are social (Thomas, 1983: 104). Therefore, it's conceivable that a non-native speaker will evaluate social distance, imposition size, etc. differently from a native speaker. Reynolds (1995:5) tells the story of how he once had a conversation with a stranger from Poland when they were traveling on a train for two hours in Poland.

Reynolds : I wonder how many trees there are in Poland . pause

Literature Review

The Polish : I cannot imagine who would want to know that

The Polish misses the fact that Reynolds' statement is merely an attempt to start a pointless conversation to kill time. Not only did the Polish not comprehend the discourse, but he also made his interlocutor feel as though they were being reprimanded for posing an impossible or even stupid question. Sociopragmatic failure can occasionally arise from the assessment of relative power made by non-native speakers . . . A typical instance occurs in the following conversation between a Chinese passenger (P) and a native English taxi driver (D) :

P: Excuse me ! I wonder if you could take me to the airport .

D : Oh ...well ... (at loss)

Because he is not a native speaker, the traveler feels disadvantageous in this situation. As a result, he speaks too submissively, which makes him sound strange and amusing. Actually, native English speakers only use the word "airport" in these circumstances. Additionally, "taboos" are presented by Thomas (1983: 105) as an illustration of sociopragmatic failure. The exchange that follows, which is taken from Montgomery and Tinsely-Kim (2001: 75), exemplifies a taboo situation. Sara, the host country of Korea, is a native English speaker. Korean Laura is assisting Sara with unpacking her clothes.

Laura : What nice things you have

Sara : Thank you . It took me long time to pack

Laura : But your clothes so tiny . You are too thin ...How much do you weigh?

Sara : Uh , well ... I'm not sure .

Laura : Not sure You're about 52 or 54 kilos , aren't you ?

Sara : Uhm well ...

Laura : My scale is right in the bathroom there . Let's weigh you now .

Sara : Uhm thank you , really , that's OK. ...

According to Eun-Sook (2006: 7) , Koreans ask friends or acquaintances questions about age , weight , religion , height ...etc. in ordinary conversation , and in Laura asks Sara her

Literature Review

weight .However , in the western culture it is a taboo to ask about age , weight , and so on . Like this , taboo can cause sociopragmatic failure .

Thomas (1983 :106) believes that “ pragmatic principles , such as politeness , conflict with other deeply held values such as truthfulness or sincerity” and can lead to sociopragmatic failure . An example sociopragmatic failure cited by Montgomery and Tinsley-Kim (2001:76) Includes the use of “No thank you” by an American nativespeaker woman (B) in a conversation with a Korean man(A):

A: It's Friday night. Nice music, isn't it? ...Why don't you dance with me

B: No, thank you. I don't like this music.A: (After 10 minutes, another piece of music is on. . .) It is very romantic. Would you like dance withme?

B: Uhm, I don't feel like dancing right now.

A: (After few minutes later) How about drink? You will feel better. Go ahead! Have some drink. Andthen, let's dance.

B: Umm..... Please, leave me alone!

By saying "No, thank you," the American woman is expressing her sincere disinterest in dancing with him. She has no expectations and has already made a clear decision. However, the man from Korea approaches it entirely "Korean."In Korea, men should typically show interest in a woman until they receive a good response. They think it's the appropriate way to treat women. This circumstance exemplifies a sociopragmatic breakdown brought on by an incorrect assessment of "value judgment" (Thomas, 1983:106)(Mubarak, 2005)

Miscalculation of the relative authority or social distance between the interlocutors due to cultural differences: for example, speaking with a teacher or supervisor is not the same as talking to someone else. Speaking with a native speaker is different from speaking with someone with whom we share the same mother language, whether it be a colleague or classmate. For instance, in certain cultures, teachers have greater authority over their pupils than in others (Thomas, 1983)

3.3 Origins of Pragmatic Failure

Knowing how hearers process utterances, the processing method they employ, and the reasons behind their unique interpretations is undoubtedly necessary to comprehend the causes and origins of pragmatic failure (Sperber and Wilson 1986, 1995). Relevance theory, which is a component of cognitive pragmatics, provides an interpretation model that explains the potential causes of misunderstandings.

Relevance and communication

Human communication carries some risk: according to Mascaro and Sperber (2009: 367), "while providing extraordinary benefits, communication is also a source of vulnerability to accidental or intentional misinformation." According to Sperber (1994, 1995), utterances are the speaker's public metarepresentations of their ideas. In order for communication to be successful, the hearer needs to digest a speech appropriately and derive the meaning that the speaker wants to convey. However, how is he going to do that? And why does a hearer choose a particular interpretation and think that his interlocutor meant for him to convey that view?

A guarantee of the significance of utterances as intentional stimuli means that processing them will produce cognitive effects. Contextual implications arise when the information utterances communicate interact with the hearer's existing knowledge, either by supporting or refuting the existing knowledge or by producing new information that the hearer would not have otherwise been able to access. However, the hearer will need to use some cognitive energy in order to process utterances in order to get those cognitive effects. However, statements create strong expectations—that is, expectations of relevance—that the hearer's processing of them will be worthwhile and not require undue effort.

The hearer will look for the interpretation that produces the greatest cognitive effect at the least amount of cognitive work while processing an utterance. Stated differently, the hearer will search for the interpretation that best fits his needs. He will accomplish so by utilizing the relevance-theoretic comprehension technique, which is the interpretative path that offers him the greatest quantity of cognitive consequences with the least amount of processing work (Wilson 1999; Wilson and Sperber 2004). After discovering this interpretation, the hearer can conclude that this is the speaker's intended meaning and see it as part of her informative intent. Misunderstandings are likely to occur and communication will break down if he is unable to arrive at an interpretation that is both ideally relevant and aligned with the speaker's intended message.

Naïve optimism, (mis)interpretation and pragmatic failure

Sperber (1994) refers to naïve optimism as the simplest cognitive technique available to hearers for understanding utterances. A naive and optimistic hearer assumes that his interlocutor is (i) competent—that is, that she adequately commands the grammatical rules and principles of usage of the language she speaks, will work to avoid misunderstandings, and will provide him with pertinent information—and (ii) benevolent, meaning that she will not attempt to deceive him (Sperber 1994; Mascaro and Sperber 2009).

If the speaker is indeed competent and benevolent, she will check the following:

a) that the information that she intends to communicate will in fact turn out optimally relevant to the hearer,

b) that the communicative strategy that she selects to transmit her message is appropriate, and

c) that the hearer will quickly and easily recover the intended interpretation instead of other possible candidates.

Consider an utterance such as (17):

(17) It is freezing in here!

(17) could be a complaint about the room's temperature, an indirect request to close the window, an indirect request to close the window and turn on the stove, or just a phatic remark about the room's temperature in the scenario where two people enter a room on a cold winter morning with the windows wide open. One of these interpretations may be all that a skillful and kind speaker wants to convey to her audience.

The hearer who is naïve and hopeful will follow the relevance-theoretic comprehension method and would realize that the speaker intended for him to recover the request-understanding since he has observed the stove in the room and the open window. As a result, he will determine that the speaker's informational goal is this one, deem it to be highly relevant, and refrain from considering any other interpretations. The hearer would have to adopt the alternative meaning, which would take away from ideal relevance. This should not, however, rule out the chance that a hearer who is naive and idealistic will perceive something differently than the speaker intended.

Literature Review

For example, the relevance-theoretic comprehension procedure may lead the hearer to believe that the speaker's intention was merely to comment on the room's temperature if he realizes that the assumptions that (17) makes manifest are already manifest to himself and cannot obtain cognitive effects. In that scenario, even though the speaker's true intention was not to convey that interpretation, he would understand (17) as a phatic symbol. Should this transpire, the interpretation that the listener ascribed to the utterance in question would diverge from the speaker's intended meaning. It is not always the case in communication that hearers will understand speakers as intended (Sperber and Wilson 1986, 1995; Wilson and Sperber 2004). By using their general or global knowledge about other people, their behavior, etc., their specific or local knowledge about more particular aspects of reality and behavior, and their interactive knowledge about interaction in particular contexts, hearers contextualize the information they communicate (Escandell Vidal 1996; Hayashi 1996). The fact that I grew up in a sociocultural milieu or community of practice has greatly influenced my understanding. As a result, it is cultural and created by the milieu's members' shared metarepresentations (Sperber 1996). This understanding influences people's behavior in both verbal and nonverbal domains as well as their interpretation of spoken words. Sometimes cultural ignorance or disparities in the content of cultural metarepresentations about various facets of an individual's social behavior in a given situation can lead to misunderstandings and pragmatic failures. If intercultural communication occurs between people who only share a small number of cultural metarepresentations related to behavior in particular situations, then intra-cultural communication is defined as communication between interlocutors who share most or all of their cultural metarepresentations (Jegarac 2009: 40).

In light of this, Reynolds (1995) observed that the cultural metarepresentations that pervaded their society influenced the behavior of the Finnish students who chose to remain silent when faced with British casual conversation. These could specify when and with whom it is best to talk or remain silent, as well as how much speaking or silence is reasonable, acceptable, or expected. A sociopragmatic failure on the side of the Finnish students may occur when they are with their British counterparts because, to those interlocutors, the proper or expected behavior in such a setting would be to avoid silence. A comparable phenomenon occurs with specific language patterns or equations. To the Arabs Nelson et al. (1996) reported, the formula in (2) is an ideal choice for the ritual of starting a conversation, but to their American interlocutors who are unfamiliar with them, that formula is viewed as an invasive question:

(2) Where are you from?

The expectations of relevance that each speaker's verbal behavior generated guided how their Finnish and American interlocutors processed the behavior of the Britons trying to strike up a conversation with their Finnish interlocutors and the Arabs using the alluded formula to start a conversation with Americans. They used their own cultural knowledge to draw judgments about their individual interlocutors after going through the relevance-theoretic understanding process, which may or may not be realistic or correct. When they get to those conclusions, they stop because their expectations about relevance are met, leading them to misinterpret the actions of their interlocutors.

Speakers are typically expected to act in a courteous and competent manner. Even while speakers believe their behavior is entirely appropriate and suitable for the interactive context, a lack of cultural metarepresentations or disparities in its contents may result in regrettable misunderstandings and pragmatic failure. However, many non-native speakers and learners may lack competence when engaging with others. They might not be proficient in the L2 language system or conscious of the limitations imposed by the target culture on particular linguistic behaviors under particular conditions. Alternatively, non-native speakers might not anticipate the contexts that their interlocutors will most quickly and easily access to interpret utterances, or they might overlook certain aspects of the interactive environment that might favor one interpretation over another. However, in other situations, non-native speakers might not choose the best vocabulary or tone to help listeners understand what they're trying to say (Sperber 1996: 192). Non-native speakers' poor language skills might cause bias and unintentional interpretations from their interlocutors, which significantly raises the possibility of pragmatic failure. Because hearers—native or non-native—may arrive at interpretations that drastically differ from those that speakers may have intended to transmit, pragmatic failure can have unfavorable effects. These perceptions could lead individuals to believe that speakers have motives that they do not. Now, the question is how teachers can assist students in avoiding or overcoming these kinds of failures that stem from hearers misinterpreting speakers' words. In these cases, hearers choose the first interpretation that occurs to them and mistakenly believe that this is the meaning the speaker intended to convey.(Cruz)

4.SPEECH ACTs

What are speech acts and why are they important in language learning?

4.1 Speech Act Theory :

One of the branches of philosophy of language where context was first introduced is speech act theory. According to Austin (1962, p. 148), context is already an element of the explanation that language philosophers need to provide for "the total speech act in the total speech situation." Given the intimate relationship that exists between a speech act and its context, how the context of a speech act is conceptualized influences the speech act's intended meaning, such as whether or not it is a true social action and in what sense. (Sbisà, 2002)

Austin demonstrates in the first few chapters of *How to Do Things with Words* (Austin, 1962) that an utterance cannot be performative—that is, it cannot carry out a social action with a conventional effect—unless it is made under the right conditions. The contextual requirements for the felicity of performative utterances also apply to speech acts performed by using sentences that do not contain explicit performative formulas, as demonstrated by the identification of performative utterances with explicit ways of performing speechacts (Austin, 1962, pp. 69, 103). Austin appears to have defined the context of a speech act as a collection of real-life situations or occurrences of all types connected to the making of an utterance and its intended impact. There is no clear separation made between the psychological states or attitudes of the participants and the external events or states of affairs (such as past or current social behavior or facts about material objects). In certain instances, at least (cf. Austin, 1962, pp. 29, 37–38), the expectations and attitudes of the participants are thought to get in the way of the speech act's success. Currently, the focus is on whether the actual circumstance satisfies the contextual conditions for the felicity of speech actions, rather than just whether they are assumed to be satisfied.

Austin and Searle (1969, 1979) concur that speaking acts have felicity or successfulness characteristics that must be met by the context. However, how we think about context has evolved. The idea that context is more closely related to a set of propositional attitudes held by the participants than a collection of factual states of affairs first appears in Searle's discussion of successfulness conditions for illocutionary acts (Searle, 1969, pp. 54–71). The majority of these conditions are expressed in terms of the participants' beliefs or intentions. Thus, the door is now open to elevating a subjective or mental understanding of context. In this direction, Searle (1979, pp. 3–6) takes a further step. He focuses on three specific aspects of the

Literature Review

speech act—the illocutionary point, the direction of the speech, and the expressed inner state—in his quest for a precise definition of illocutionary classes. In doing so, he pushes conditions pertaining to external social circumstances to the periphery, viewing them as unimportant to the illocutionary act.

Grice's intention-based and inferential view of communication greatly influenced Bach and Harnish's reformulation of speech act theory in 1979. According to this theory, the hearer's recognition of the speaker's communicative intention defines the speech act's success (qua communicative illocutionary act). Although context is mentioned in the first overview of the elements of the total speech act (Bach and Harnish, 1979, p. 3), "mutual contextual beliefs"—beliefs that are pertinent to and activated by the context of utterance, or by the utterance itself—that are shared and believed to be shared by the participants—are actually invoked in descriptions of inferences by means of which the hearer recognizes the speaker's communicative intention (Bach and Harnish, 1979, pp. 5, 61). The definitions of communicative illocutionary classes no longer make reference to social situational elements, and the sufficient circumstances for an act of a specific form of illocutionary speech are all couched in terms of articulated propositional attitudes. Ultimately, illocutionary acts seem to be limited to the hearer's inferences about how the speaker's contribution is meant to be relevant in the Relevance Theory (Sperber and Wilson, 1986), which is currently the most influential version of the inferential view of communication. In any case, the context that these judgments are based on is entirely cognitive in nature. (Sbisà, 2002)

Speech act theory states that when a sentence is spoken in context, it performs an act or acts in addition to being a collection of abstract symbols (Searle, 1975). As a result, speech act theory addresses both the actions or accomplishments made while speaking as well as the words spoken. This technique has an intriguing characteristic in that there is no requirement for a correlation to exist between actions and words. For instance, in appropriate situations, one can say, "Open the window," "Could you open the window?" or "It sure is hot in here" to request that someone open a window. These two approaches to carrying out the same action—the first being a direct act and the other two being indirect speech actions—have been conceptualized as direct and indirect speech acts. (Holtgraves, 1986)

The idea of indirect speech acts is widely accepted, despite considerable debate over certain features of them (such as how they are identified and processed). The direct and indirect speech act definitions provided by Searle (1975) were used in the study for this article.

Statements that have propositional content (sentence meaning) that aligns with the speaker's intention (speaker meaning) are referred to as direct speech acts. Such a relationship is not necessary for indirect speech acts, and the speaker's meaning and the meaning of the statement may disagree. An inquiry about the hearer's capacity to open the window, for instance, is implied by the sentence "Can you open the window?" Of course, the speaker means to ask the hearer to open the window, but that is not what they truly mean to say. The meaning of the speaker and the sentence are therefore different in this instance, as they are in all indirect speech acts. (Holtgraves, 1986)

4.2 Performative utterances

Despite the seeming paradox, there are some things one can perform just by declaring that they are being done. Saying "I apologize," "I promise," and "thank you" are ways to express regret, gratitude, and appreciation. These are instances of statements that are explicitly performative and that instruct without really doing so. When Austin (1962) compared them to constatives, he may have had this concept. Performatives are statements that clarify what we are doing. Austin questioned the widely held philosophical belief—or at the very least, the pretense—that indicative sentences are inherently meant to make assertions. According to him, an express promise, for instance, does not include the declaration that one is promising. This particular act is the one that the performative verb, "promising," refers to. Of course, one can make a promise without saying so out loud or using the term "promise," but if one does, Austin contends that doing so amounts to making what one is doing clear without claiming to be doing it. Austin finally came to the conclusion that explicit constatives work pretty much the same way. . After all , a statement can be made by uttering “ I assert ...” or “ I predict ...” just as a promise or a request can be made with “ I promise...” or “I request...” . So Austin let the distinction between constative and performative utterances be superseded by one between locutionary and illocutionary acts. He included assertions, predictions, etc. (he retained the term ‘constative’ for them) along with promises, requests, etc., among illocutionary acts. His later nomenclature recognized that illocutionary acts need not be performed explicitly – you don’t have to use “I suggest . . . ” to make a suggestion or “I apologize . . . ” to apologize. Even so, it might seem that because of their distinctive self-referential character, the force of explicit performatives requires special explanation. Indeed, Austin supposed that illocutionary acts in general should be understood on the model of explicit performatives, as when he made the notoriously mysterious remark that the use of a sentence with a certain illocutionary force is

“conventional in the sense that at least it could be made explicit by the performative formula” (1962: 91). He presumably believed that, in a simpler sense, performative statements that are explicitly stated are conventional. Perhaps there is some tradition to such effect, since it is not within the definition of the word "apologize" for an utterance to be considered an apology as opposed to a declaration. If so, it is most likely a component of a universal convention that applies to all performative verbs. Is a convention like this necessary to explain performativity, though? According to P.F. Strawson (1964), Austin was unduly taken aback by situations that were institutionbound. There certainly appear to be customs in these situations wherein certain expressions—such as "Out!" from an umpire, "Nay!" from a legislator, or "Overruled!" from a judge—are considered to be the accomplishment of specific kinds of deeds. The same is true of some explicit performatives, such as when a clergyman or judge declares, "I pronounce you husband and wife," which officially unites a couple in marriage. In certain situations, a person with a given type of socially acknowledged authority may carry out an act of a certain kind by using a certain form of words under certain, socially accepted circumstances. However, according to Strawson, the majority of illocutionary activities contain the aim to communicate with an audience rather than to follow an institutional rule. The usage of a certain sentence with a certain illocutionary power is not inherently customary, as he pointed out, nor does it have anything to do with the fact that this force can be "made explicit by the performative formula." From a pertinent perspective, an action is considered conventional if and only if a particular type of institutional regulation designates it as such. But without the benefit of such a rule, utterances can count as requests, apologies, or forecasts, as the case may be, unlike the exceptional examples Austin concentrated on. For example, it is entirely acceptable to apologize without saying so out loud or use the performative expression "I apologize." That is the problem with Austin's theory of speech acts, as well as John Searle's (1969) theory, which aims to use "constitutive rules" to explain illocutionary forces through the use of "force-indicating devices," like performatives. These ideas are unable to account for the reality that an apology, for example, can be offered without the use of such a device. While there is a surface-level distinction between expressing, "I apologize," and offering an implicit apology, there is no conceptually significant difference. Six Performativity doesn't need a special explanation, much less a particular kind of convention, unless it is applied to institution-bound circumstances such as the ones mentioned above. (Bach, 2008)

4.3 Levels of speech acts

J. L. Austin (1962) recognizes 3 levels of utterances. He asserts that <Speech acts

consists of locutionary acts which have a meaning, illocutionary acts which have a certain force in saying something, and perlocutionary acts which achieve certain effects by saying something.= (Austin, 1962:120).

Locutionary , Illocutionary and Perlocutionary Acts :

Austin distinguishes between three different levels of activity that follow the actual act of speaking. He designates as the locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts, respectively, the act of saying something, what one does in saying it, and what one does by saying it. For instance, let's say the bartender says, "The bar will close in five minutes." reportable with a straight quote. By declaring that the bar, or the one he is tending to, will close in five minutes (from the moment of utterance), he is engaging in the locutionary act. When the content of the bartender's locutionary act is not entirely established by the words he uses, as they do not indicate the bar in question or the moment of the speech. Instead, what is said is recounted through an indirect quote. By telling the customers that the bar is about to close and maybe even pushing them to get one last drink, the bartender is engaging in the illocutionary act. While the audience's knowledge is the ultimate result of these illocutionary acts, perlocutionary acts are executed with the goal of evoking further effects. The bartender plans to use perlocution to trick the customers into thinking the establishment is about to close and persuade them to order a last drink. By simply saying specific words, he is doing all three of these speech acts. (Bach, 2008)

Austin proposed a three-way contrast between the types of acts that are performed when language is used, in place of the original distinction between constatives and performatives. These acts are locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary, and they are all typical of most utterances, including standard examples of both performatives and constatives. Using specific words and using them in accordance with the grammatical rules of a particular language, as well as with certain senses and references as determined by the rules of the language from which they are drawn, are examples of locutionary acts, according to Austin. These acts involve the construction of speech. Austin's primary invention, illocutionary acts, are actions performed through speech (hence the term illocutionary), particularly those actions that seem to call for the use of a performative sentence, such as marriage, christening, and other such ceremonies. Austin drew attention to the fact that the usage of canonical constatives is characterized by acts of stating or affirming, which are probably illocutionary acts. As a result, such sentences are presumably not performatives. Moreover, imperative phrases are usually used to order or request something, and interrogative sentences are used to ask whether something is the case—though these forms are, at most, highly questionable examples of performative sentences. In the Austin Lecture XXI (1962), It was concluded that when

Literature Review

constatives are used, we focus primarily on the locutionary component of speaking, whereas when performative sentences are used as standard examples, we focus as much as possible on the illocution. The perlocutionary act, which is a result or by-product of speaking, whether intentionally or not, is the third of Austin's kinds of acts. Speaking acts are known as perlocutions, as the name would imply. Austin defines perlocutionary acts as the production of effects upon the thoughts, feelings, or actions of the addressee(s), speaker, or other parties. Examples of such acts include persuading someone that a particular ship is the Joseph Stalin, generating the notion that Sam and Mary ought to be regarded as husband and wife, persuading someone that a statement is true, making someone feel as though they must take action, and so forth. Austin (1962: 101) uses the (now politically incorrect) example of saying "Shoot her!" to highlight the differences between these types of activities, which he breaks down into the following three categories:

- Act (A) or Locution

He said to me "Shoot her!" meaning by shoot "shoot" and referring by her to "her."

- Act (B) or Illocution

He urged (or advised, ordered, etc.) me to shoot her.

- Act (C) or Perlocution

He persuaded me to shoot her.

While being able to differentiate pretty sharply between the three groups is essential under Austin's system, drawing the necessary lines is frequently challenging in practice. The issues of distinguishing between illocutions and locutions and between illocutions and perlocutions are particularly annoying; in fact, Austin claims that the latter is the most problematic. According to Austin (1962: 103), the primary way to distinguish between an illocution and a perlocution is to say that the former is "conventional, in the sense that at least it could be made explicit by the performative formula; but the latter could not." However, rather than serving as a workable test to determine whether a given sentence or utterance is illocutionary, this is more of a description of a potential illocutionary behavior. The test is able to clearly identify acts that are not illocutionary, but it is unable to identify the exact illocution. Do we consider the speech act of warning in this case to be an illocutionary act of warning because the speaker could have stated, "I warn you that the bull is about to charge," for example,

Literature Review

alerting the addressee to approaching danger? Another plausible explanation in this instance would be that the addressee's warning, that is, the production of a feeling of alarm, is a perlocutionary by-product of asserting that the bull is about to charge

While some authors, like Sadock (1977), do not agree, many, including Searle (1969, 1975a) and Allan (1998), appear to support the notion that the ability to articulate oneself through a performative sentence is a sufficient criteria for the identification of illocutions. According to Austin, an illocutionary act needs to be carried out via customary methods in order for it to qualify as such. Even while Austin's theory—which defines illocutionary acts as speech acts that could have been performed with the use of an explicit performative—is the foundation for many explorations of illocutions that follow, some examples—like threatening—continue to pose difficulties. Almost all authorities who have discussed threats deviate from Austinian theory, which links illocutionary acts to prospective performatives. This is because, although threatening may appear illocutionary, it cannot be done by uttering phrases like "I threaten you with a failing grade." Austin asserts that there is a contrast between the illocutionary power of the speech and the locutionary meaning when discussing the distinction between the locutionary act of employing specific words and structures with specific meanings and the illocution done in using that locution. Nonetheless, the criterion appears circular in the absence of independent knowledge about these two words' usage in this context. While the distinction between locution and illocution is frequently intuitively apparent, performative statements like "I christen this ship the Joseph Stalin" give rise to issues and debates. Should the performative prefix "I" be incorporated into the locutionary act or removed from it? Is declaring that one christens the main illocutionary act in saying this statement, if it is included? Although Allan (1998), for example, maintains that the main illocution is to express something, Austin probably would have replied that to utter these words is to christen, not to state that one christens. A portion of the extensive body of research on the validity and identification of the distinctions between locutions, illocutions, and perlocutions will be covered or mentioned below. (Horn, 2004)

The Acts of Locution, Illocution, and Perlocution
In actuality, a speech act is composed of three fundamental elements: the locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts. The author Leech (1983: 199).

Briefly put, they are defined as follows:

Act of locution: the act of stating something
Illocutionary act: the act of saying something through performance

Perlocutionary act: acting through uttering words
While illocutionary and perlocutionary acts transmit a more complex message for the hearer, locutionary acts can be understood as simply pronouncing certain words in a particular language. A perlocutionary act shows the effect the speaker wishes to exert on the hearer, whereas an illocutionary act discloses the speaker's objectives behind the locution. An easy example will illustrate this:

An easy example to illustrate this would be to ask someone to kindly close the door. This statement's surface form and locutionary act are both questions with an obvious answer (Close the door.) A request is communicated by the illocutionary act from the

The speaker's wish for the listener to go and shut the door is expressed in part by the perlocutionary act. However, it's not always possible to separate the constituent parts with such ease. According to Bach and Harnish (1979: 3), they are closely related in a significant way. I will, however, address each of them separately initially in order to provide a clearer understanding of their role within a speech act. (Justová, Direct and Indirect Speech Acts in English, 2006)

4.4 Classification of Speech Acts :

While Chomsky saw language as a collection of sentences, Austin and Searle base their theories on the idea that "speaking a language is engaging in a rule-governed form of behavior" (Searle 1969: 11). However, they also presume that language can be thought of as a type of verbal acting. Searle (1976: 1-16) provides a consistent taxonomy of language usage functions in "A classification of illocutionary acts" by grouping illocutionary acts into a small number of main types. The speaker's communicative intention as expressed in the act's illocutionary aim (or point), which corresponds to the essential condition, and the correspondence between direction of fit serve as his primary classification criteria. , i.e. the relation between words and the world, and the psychological state of the mind expressed by the speaker (corresponding to

the sincerity condition). He finds that communicative functions are reducible to five major classes, namely representatives, directives, expressive , commissives , and declarations.

Representatives

In order to perform as a representative, the speaker must pledge to believe that the utterance's propositional content is true. The speaker uses the phrase "the words match the world" (Searle, 1976: 3) to try and explain the way things are or how they are seen to be.

Directives

When giving instructions, the speaker seeks to persuade the listener to follow through on a future plan of action (verbal or non-verbal). Directives, in contrast to representatives, are an endeavor to "make the words and the world match." The cost and profit of each illocutionary element under copyright varies.

Commissives

In a commissive speech, the speaker makes varied degrees of commitment to a future course of action. "World to words" is the direction of fit, just as it was with directions. During an offer, the speaker lets the hearer know that, while they are not certain if the hearer wants this action to be carried out, they are not opposed to carrying out a future action that they believe will benefit the hearer. In contrast to an offer, a promise is made by someone who has reason to believe that the person receiving it will support the speaker in carrying out the promised activity.

Expressives

This category of illocutionary acts is intended to convey the speaker's psychological attitude or state of mind regarding a previous action or situation. Since the goal is not to explain the universe or affect what will happen in the future, there is no direction of fit; rather, the

veracity of the propositional content is assumed. When it comes to propositional content, expressiveness varies. In a thank-you note, the speaker conveys appreciation for the hearer's involvement in a previous action that benefited the speaker; in a complaint, the speaker holds the hearer accountable for a previous action that was against the speaker's interests; and in an apology, the speaker expresses regret for having carried out (or neglected to carry out) a previous action that had unfavorable effects on the hearer. Items subject to rights of ownership

Declarations

Extralinguistic institutions are needed to carry out declarations; a judge must sentence a prisoner, a priest must christen a child, and a dignitary must name a ship. Both "words to world" and "world to words" are the directions in which the declaration fits, as the proclamation itself alters reality. Searle has made it apparent that he believes language to perform a finite and determinate number of functions by listing the aforementioned functions. Leech (1983: 104–105) has taken a similar stance, but he based his categorization of illocutionary functions on other standards. (Trosborg, 2011)

Several linguists recommended classifying illocutionary acts in order to improve comprehension and orientation, as there are thousands or even hundreds of them. The most frequently referenced classification in linguistic literature comes from Searle, who categorizes illocutionary (speaking) activities into five main kinds (which I will define using Levinson's explanations; see Levinson,)):

- **Representatives** : are such utterances which commit the hearer to the truth of the expressed proposition (e.g. asserting, concluding)
 - ✓ “ The name of the British queen is Elizabeth”.
- **Directives** : are attempts by the speaker to get the addressee to do something (e.g. ordering, requesting)
 - ✓ “ Would you make me a cup of tea? “
- **Commissives** : commit the speaker to some future course of action (e.g. promising, offering)

Literature Review

- ✓ “ I promise to come at eight and cook a nice dinner for you ‘’.
- **Expressives** : express a psychological state (e.g. thanking, congratulating)
- ✓ “ Thank you for your kind offer ’’.
- **Declarations** : effect immediate changes in the institutional state of affairs and which tend to rely on elaborate extra-linguistic institutions (e.g. christening, declaring war)

“ I bequeath all my property to my beloved fiancée ’’ . (Justová, Direct and Indirect Speech Acts in English , 2006)

4.5 Direct and Indirect Speech Acts :

Speech acts can be carried out directly or through a variety of indirect means (Searle, 1975). It is suggested that (a) the speaker's relative standing and face management technique influence the appropriateness of this decision, and (b) the option of how to carry out speech acts will encode social information. In Experiment 1, a written scenario style was employed, and subjects were asked to score both direct and indirect questions and replies based on the target interactants' status and the degree of face-threatening nature of the desired information. Face danger affected how suitable people thought the answers were, but not how acceptable they thought the questions were. The effects of status were significant only for the perceived politeness of inquiries, although they were in the predicted direction for both questions and replies. In Experiment 2, participants scored possible responses to the direct and indirect responses as well as the scenario interactants and their relationships in regard to these responses. When a clear rationale (i.e., to manage face) was given for using an indirect reply, it was more likely to be accepted than to be questioned. Inferences of status, like, and closeness varied depending on the style of reply employed. (Holtgraves, 1986)

4.6 Request Speech Act

Empirical research has paid a lot of attention to the study of speech acts. One such speech act that requires more research is the requesting speech act, which has been identified

Literature Review

as the most prevalent speech act (Félix-Brasdefer, 2007; Shakki et al., 2020). According to Searle (1976), a request is "an attempt to get the listener to do something" (p. 3). The speaker is making an attempt to persuade the addressee to act or not act. Verbal urging is seen by Brown and Levinson (1987) as a face-threatening act (FTA). The speaker imposes "freedom of action" on the listener, which is why they categorize this speech act as an FTA. Speakers employ particular questioning tactics in order to limit facial threats and reduce the degree of impudence towards recipients (Blum-Kulka, 1982; Sykes, 2009). Blum-Kulka (1991) split the question sequence into three sections for their study, "Cross-Cultural Study of Realization Patterns of Speech Acts (CCSARP)": "Alerters," "Head Act," and "Supportive Moves." Finding the utterance that serves as the "core of the head act" is the goal of breaking the command utterance act up into these three sections (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984, p. 200). It is claimed that the request can be fulfilled from four different angles: Avoidance of any of these elements by referring to the perspective of the listener, the perspective of the speaker, the perspective of both participants, or only the action being performed (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984, p. 201). In addition, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) distinguish four categories:

1. Listener Oriented: Could you open the door?
2. Speaker directivity: May I borrow your laptop?
3. Speaker and Listener Orientation: Could you please edit this paper?
4. Impersonal: It might be a good idea to open the windows.(Shakki, 2023)

Requests are those illocutionary activities that fall under Searle's directive category. This author states that "these are the speaker's attempts to persuade the hearer to take action. They can be as gentle as when I ask you to do it, or they might be as forceful as when I demand that you do it "(Searle, 1979:13). As a result, the speaker uses request acts to persuade the hearer to do a future action that advances the speaker's objective. Unlike apologies, which are post-event acts, these acts are pre-event in that they foreshadow the intended or expected behavior. Requesting something from someone else for your personal gain has an impositive quality and could be seen as a territorial encroachment. In accordance with Brown & Levinson's (1987) classification, request acts are distinguished by their potentially dangerous demeanor. In fact, rather than classifying these acts as instructions, some scholars prefer to refer to them as impositive acts (Green, 1975; Leech, 1983). Though requests often direct the hearer to take action, we agree with Sifianou (1999) that the term direction would be preferable

because it does not always imply an imposition on the hearer. Additionally, Sifianou notes that the process of making a request demonstrates the social relationships that already exist between the participants because the latter group gets to select the object that will be given prominence when fulfilling the request: (A) The orator Could I close the door?, Could you close the door, Addressee?, or Can the speaker and Addressee both close the door? Could the door perhaps be closed?, and (d) the activity Could the door possibly be closed? Trosborg (1995) considered these characteristics in her proposed request formulation categorization, which we discuss in the next part. (JORDA, 2008)

Strategies of requesting

Several scholars have given their own types and strategies that could be summarized in the four types proposed by Trosborg (1995:192):

-Direct requests:

when the hearer is expected to obey the speaker or when the speaker frequently has the upper hand in conversation. In this situation, the hearer may perceive the request as more authoritative and demanding. This kind is usually utilized for duties and requirements. employing imperatives and performatives, such as: shut the door; you must close the door; I want you to close the door; I am requesting that you close the door; etc.

- Indirect requests:

- atypically (as opposed to customarily) Requests that are not directly stated: under this category, there is a discrepancy between the requester's words and the implied meaning of the statement. It isn't said clearly. Whether or not the hearer infers the situation's significance if they are not paying attention to it. The fundamental purpose of applying it with hints is to make the imposition less harsh. For example, the speaker wishes to suggest to the hearer to close the window when they say, "It's cold in here."

- Typically Indirect Requests (Hearer-Oriented): These requests can be formulated using the questioning approach to test the hearer's capacity and willingness, as well as the suggestion approach. Examples of such queries include: could/can/would you close the door? How about

closing the door? Inquiring as to whether the hearer is ready to shut the door; the listener can decide whether to accept or reject.

- Traditionally, an indirect request (speaker-oriented) is made when the speaker expresses a wish to persuade the hearer to perform a particular action. The speaker's intention can be communicated directly or as a kind request. This kind of indirect request uses the speaker's wishes and desires as a technique. Requests that are speaker-oriented are frequently interpreted as requests for authorization, implying that the hearer has some degree of influence over the speaker. It frequently takes place in a formal context between individuals with distant relationships. As an illustration, could/can I close the door? They are regarded as more courteous than requests that are hearer-oriented because they suggest that the hearer will not be imposed upon or controlled.

Requests of native speakers of English

Several studies (Clark and Schunk, 1980; Leech, 1983; Wierzbicka, 1985; Brown and Levinson, 1987) examined English requests. The findings of these studies show that English speakers most frequently employ customarily indirect requests. Native speakers, as they view maintaining one's distance as a sign of civility. Speaker-oriented requests are ranked second, and hearer-oriented condition requests are ranked first. Thirdly, unconventionally indirect requests which are employed in situations involving severe imposition rank. Since they may be interpreted as rude, native English speakers use direct requests the least. According to Brown and Levinson (1987: 74–76), the situation and social characteristics determine which method is best. The speaker's and the addressee's social distance; the relative power of the speaker, addressee, and the order in which the imposition is made.

Conclusion

The first chapter provides an overview of the literature review related to pragmatics and pragmatic failure. This chapter covered the historical overview of pragmatics and how, due to its significance for language learning, it developed into a separate field of study. Next, we discussed communicative competence and the ways in which its models incorporate pragmatic competence. We also discussed the types and causes of pragmatic failure, delving deeper into the topic. We concluded our talk with a consideration of speech acts of request and apologies,

Literature Review

outlining the approaches that had to be taken in order to generate them suitably in various situations.

Chapter Two :
**Research Methodology and Data
Analysis and Recommendations**

Introduction :

This chapter will first explain the methodology that was followed for data collection, analysis and interpretation throughout this research. It started with providing information about the participants. It then describes the instrument used to collect data in this study, a discourse completion task (DCT) followed by its advantages, and disadvantages. Next, the situations which constitute the DCT are described followed by data collection procedure. And then mentioning limitations of the study. Finally, this chapter will end by suggesting recommendations in a try to fix the main issue of this research.

Participants :

The original sample selected to participate in the current study was 30 Master's one students majoring in English as a foreign language (EFL) from the University of Biskra. The sample was selected from Master 1 because normally at this stage they may have developed to a certain extent a pragmatic competence and a minimum knowledge about the target language's culture. The participants answered a questionnaire and a DCT in order to investigate the pragmatic issues, i.e., pragmatic failure.

Research Instrument :

Among all the linguistic data elicitation methods (interviews, field notes, audio and video recording, role plays, stimulated recall, direct observation ...), the most suitable way to collect a large sample of data in a short time and in controlled and stable circumstances, as the majority of scholars reckons, is the discourse completion task (DCT).

DCT is the most frequently used instrument for eliciting speech act data in contrastive and interlanguage pragmatics research (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993). Indeed, starting from Blum Kulka (1982), DCT has been extensively used as a way to gather linguistic data in a lot of speech act studies including: Olshtein and Cohen (1983), Kasper (1989), Bergman and Kasper (1993) for apologies; Eisenstein and Bodman (1986) for expressions of gratitude; Bardovi Harlig and Hartford (1991) for refusals; House and Kasper (1987), Blum Kulka and house (1989), Faerch and Kasper (1989) for requests; and Wolfson et al. 1983) for invitations .DCT

Research Methodology and Data Analysis and Recommendations

It is defined by Kasper and Dahl (1991-221) as : Discourse completion tasks are written questionnaires including number of brief situational description followed by a short dialogue with an empty slot for the speech act under study . Subjects are asked to fill in a response that they think fits into the given context .

Another definition of the DCT can be as “a series of short written role-plays based on everyday situations which are designed to elicit a specific speech act by requiring informants to complete a turn of dialogue for each item” (Barron, 2003, p. 83). Schauer and Adolphs (2006, p. 120) put it, “the aim of discourse completion task research is to investigate a linguistic act within highly predefined parameters.” That is to say, the DCT focus can be limited to a very specific context of use.

Advantages and Disadvantages of DCT:

Despite its popularity as a means of data collection , several studies have discovered that DCT has some drawbacks wich influence its reliability in gathering appropriate data . Nurani (2009) illustrated the advantages and disadvantages of using such a method of eliciting data.

A/ Advantages :

- ◆ DCT allows the collection of large ammount of data in a limited amount of time .
- ◆ It reveals a society’s stereotypical response for a specific situation .
- ◆ It can be adminsterd to a large number of people at the same time .
- ◆ It can be also applied to many participants coming from different cultural backgrounds .

B/ Disadvantages :

- ◆ The simple description of the situation in a DCT cannot fully represent the complexity of interactions in everyday conversations .
- ◆ Wolfson (1989) pointed out that short decontextualized written responses may not be comparable to authentic spoken interaction .
- ◆ Beebe and Commings (1985, 1996) noted that DCT responses do not adequately represent the actual wording used in real interactin .
- ◆ Because the DCT elicits written responses , certain kinds of information such as elaborated responses typicaly found in naturaly occuring interactions , prasodic and

Research Methodology and Data Analysis and Recommendations

nonverbal features of oral interaction cannot be obtained through this data collection method (Cohen, 1996; Hartford & Bardovi Harlig, 1992).

Description of the Questionnaire :

The questionnaire is addressed to first year English students at the division of English at Biskra University for the academic year 2023-2024. The participants of this questionnaire are 30 students who were selected spontaneously to explore their pragmatic failures. The questionnaire contains 7 questions of both types "Close-ended questions" and "open-ended questions". The questionnaire is divided into two parts :

Part one : General Information

This part is about student's background information. It contains items outlined as follows : Student's gender, Students' age, the length of their study, their opinion about speaking English and where their teachers at previous school levels focus on.

Part two: DCT

The DCT consists of five situations about requesting. These situations were used to investigate how the EFL learners perform speech acts. Thirty participants answered this DCT. The total may exceed 100% or 30 because there were situations where 2 or more strategies (same or different) were used together within the same situation.

Analysis of the results :

The procedure of analyzing data from the questionnaire is as follows:

- Statement of the questionnaires as they appear.
- The results of the questions are presented in the form of tables.

Part One: General information :

Research Methodology and Data Analysis and Recommendations

1. Students' gender

Gender	Number	Percentage
Male	9	30%
Female	21	70%
Total	30	100%

Table 1 : Students' gender

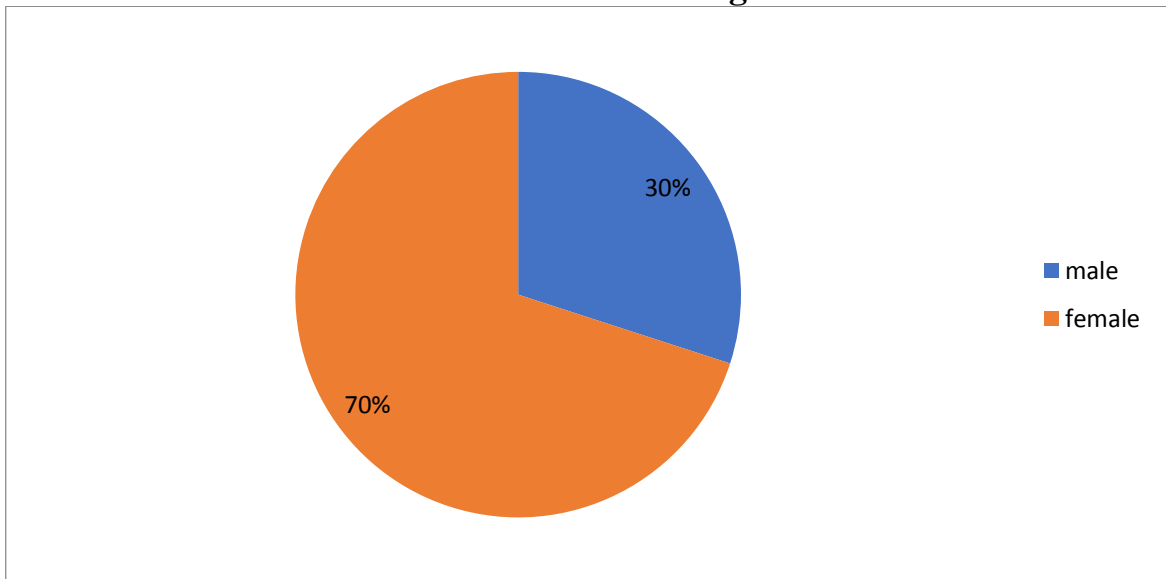


Figure 1 : Students' gender

The results displayed in the table above show that the majority of students are girls (70%) who study English as a foreign Language in Master one , and only (30%) that represent boys from the rest. Also as shown in the table.

2. Students' age

Age	Number	Percentage
20-29	24	80%
30-39	6	20%
40 and above	0	0%

Total	30	100%
--------------	-----------	-------------

Table 2 : Students' age

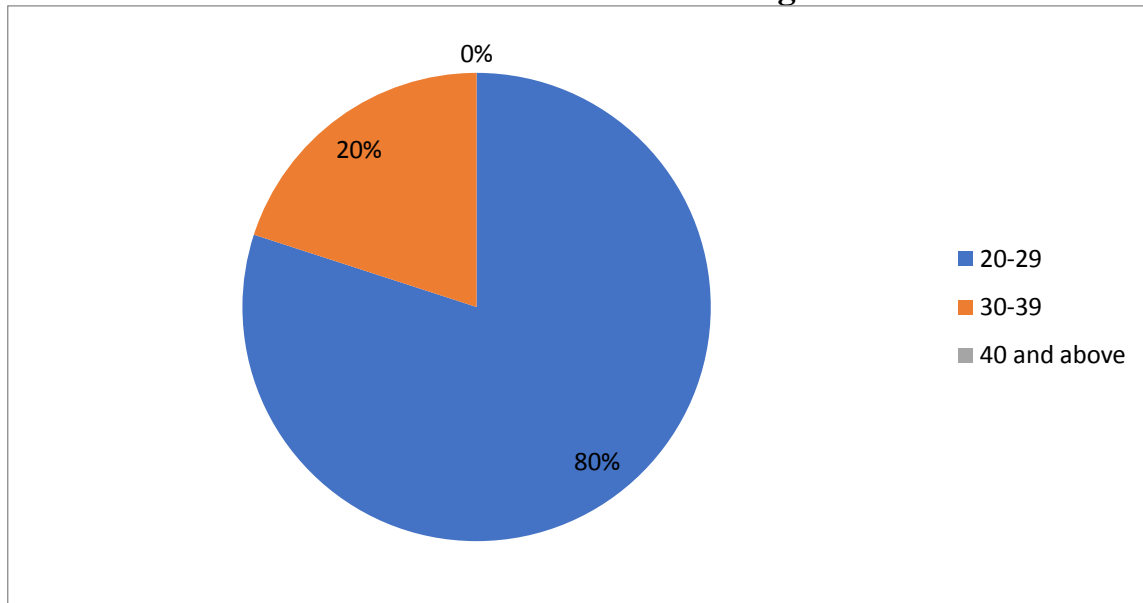


Figure 2 : Students' age

As it is shown in the table students' age are varying from 20 to 40 and more years old. It shows that the majority (80%) is varying from 20 to 29 years old . The second part (20%) represents the students at the age 30-39 years old . Finally (0%) represents the aged students are 40 years old and above .

3. How long have you been studying English?

Options	Number	Percentage
Under 5	9	30%
5-10	6	20%
10-15	15	50%
More than 15	0	0%
Total	30	100%

Table 3 : Years of studying English

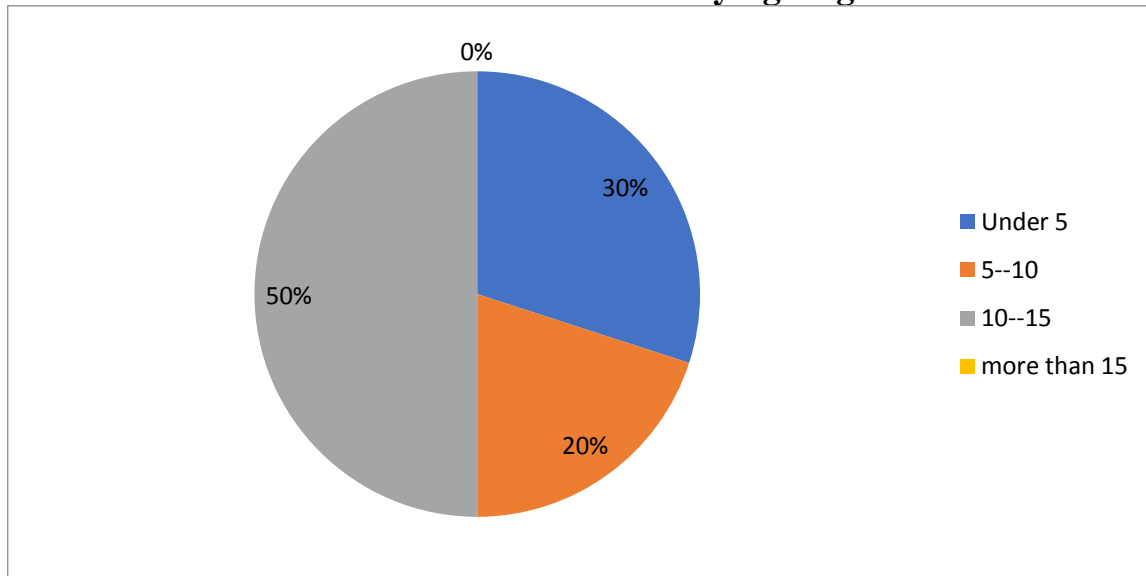


Figure 3: Years of studying English

These results represent the years of studying English language. A quick look at this table reveals that the majority (50%) of the students studies English for 10 to 15 years , this means that they are successful in their studies, so they have to master the English Language perfectly. However some students (30 %) have studied English for less than 5 years as a foreign Language .Hence, only 06 students (20%) who study English for 05 to 10 years . Finally , none studying English more than 15 years (0%) .

. How do you find speaking English?

Options	Number	Percentage
Easy	12	40%
Neutral	15	50%
Difficult	3	10%

Research Methodology and Data Analysis and Recommendations

Very difficult	0	0%
Total	30	100%

Table 4 : Students' attitude towards speaking

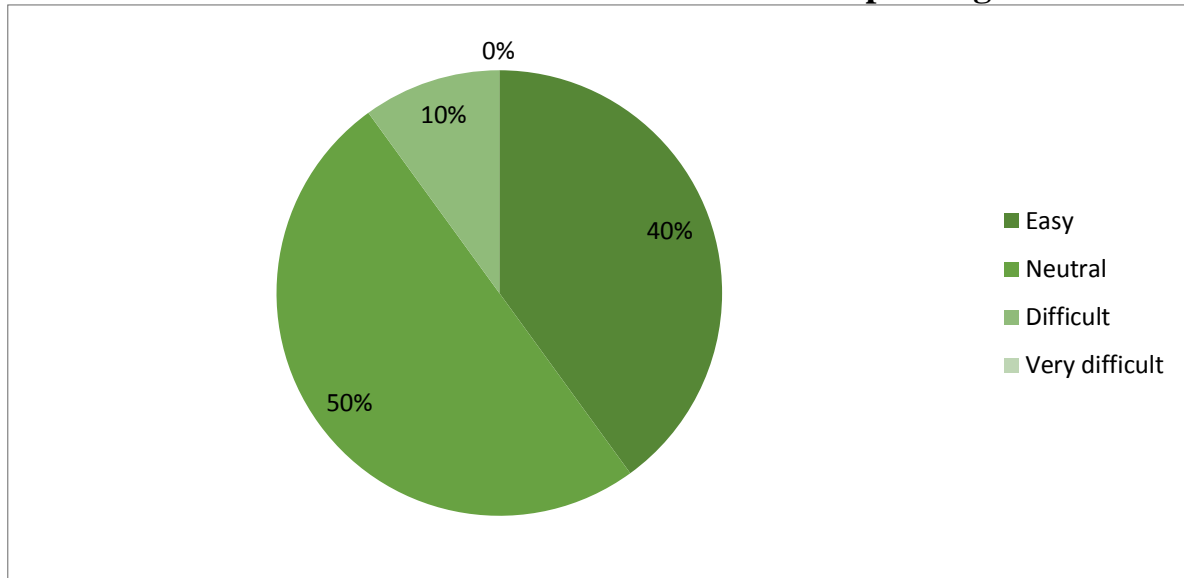


Figure 4: Students' attitude towards speaking

These results represent the evaluation of the level of students in English . Half of the students (50%) found speaking in English as neutral .The second part(40%) they found that it is so easy to talk, but others (10%) they found it very difficult .The last part (00%) or none found it very difficult .

5. What did your Teacher at previous school levels focus on?

Options	Numbers	Percentage
Grammar	12	40%
Vocabulary	6	20%
Pronunciation	9	30%

Research Methodology and Data Analysis and Recommendations

All of them	3	10%
Total	30	100%

Table 5 : Students' background knowledge of language

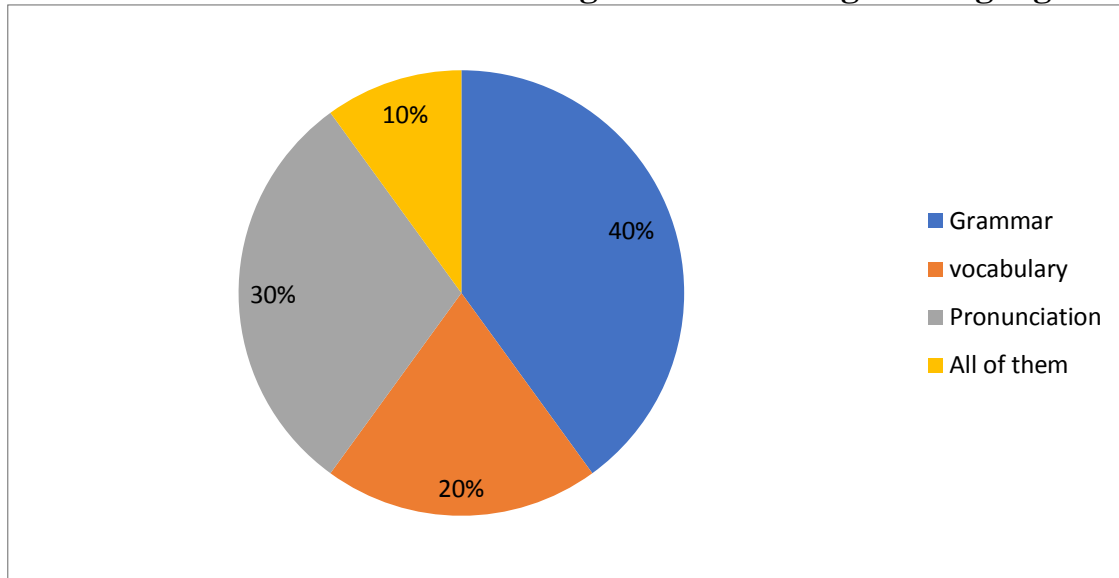


Figure 5: Students' background knowledge of language

Table 05 shows that the majority of the students' previous knowledge they received during their study of English were focused mostly on the grammar (40%) . The second majority responded that the focus was on pronunciation (30%) . while the others focus on vocabulary (20%) . Finally , the rest are chosen the last option which is all of them (10%) .

7.If you have ever found yourself in a situation where you had to request something from someone in English, write what you said

Strategy	Number	Percentage
Direct requests	6	20%
UIR	0	0%
CIR (H.O)	15	50%
CIR (S.O)	9	30%

Table 6 : The most common request strategies used by EFL learners

The aim of this question is to investigate the most common request strategies used by EFL learners in no specific situation. Most (15) of the learners choose the CIR (H.O) strategy using: can/could/would you... Whereas, some of them (9) opt for CIR (S.O) saying: can/may I... Only few (6) chose the direct request strategy using: I need your help, do it for me... Since, there is no specific context no one opt for UIR.

Part two : DCT

Situation 1 : You are a university student , and you missed a class and need to borrow your friend’s note . What would You Say ?

Strategy	Number	Percentage
Direct requests	3	10%
UIR	0	0%
CIR (H.O)	21	70%
CIR (S.O)	6	20%
Total	30	100%

Research Methodology and Data Analysis and Recommendations

Table 7 : The most used request strategies in situation 1

This situation is between two classmates where one of them asks the other for his/her notes. Majority of the participants (21) use CIR (H.O) like: can/could/would you give me your notes. CIR (S.O) is used by (6) where they say: can I have your notes, can I have a look on your notes ... Direct requests were rarely used (03) by saying: lend me your notes, I would like to take a look on your notes. UIR is not used in the current situation .

Situation 2 : You find an interesting book with your professor, which may help you in your research project , and you Want to borrow it . What would you say ?

Strategies	Number	Percentage
Direct requests	3	10%
UIR	0	0%
CIR (H.O)	18	60%
CIR (S.O)	9	30%
Total	30	100%

Table 8 : The most used request strategies in situation 2

In this situation a student wants to ask a Professor to borrow his/her book. . More than half of the participants (18) choose to use CIR (H.O) by saying: can/could you lend me the book. Some of the participants (09) prefer using CIR (S.O) strategy saying: can/could/may I borrow this book. Direct requests were used by the rest (03) saying: I really need this book, I would like/ love if you lend me this book. UIR is not used in this situation .

Situation 3 : You left your wallet , and you want to borrow some money from

your classmate to grab something the teacher asks to bring . What would you say ?

Strategies	Number	Percentage
Direct requests	3	10%
UIR	0	0%
CIR (H.O)	24	80%
CIR (S.O)	3	10%
Total	30	100%

Table 9 : The most used request strategies in situation 3

This situation is between two classmates where one of them is asking to borrow some money. Most of the respondents (24) prefer using CIR (H.O) such as: can/could you lend me some money. Few others (3) choose to use direct requests saying: buy me a copy, lend me some money. The same number (3) chooses the CIR (S.O) saying for example: can I borrow some money. No one opt for UIR in this situation.

Situation 4: You have a friend who is good with phones , and you had a major malfunction , and you lost some important stuff , so you need his help.

What would you say ?

Strategies	Number	Percentage
Direct Requests	6	20%
UIR	0	0%

Research Methodology and Data Analysis and Recommendations

CIR (H.O)	24	80%
CIR (S.O)	0	0%
Total	30	100%

Table 10 : The most used request strategies in situation 4

This situation is between two friends where one of them asking for the help of the other . More than half of the students (24) choose CIR (H.O) by saying: can/could you help me .Direct requests comes next as second choice by saying : help me with my phone, I would like you to come check my phone. Both CIR (S.O) and UIR strategies are not used.

Situation 5 : You are new at work , and you need a coworker to help you understand how work works . How do you ask him that ?

Strategies	Number	Percentage
Direct requests	3	10%
UIR	0	0%
CIR (H.O)	15	50%
CIR (S.O)	12	40%
Total	30	100%

Table 11 : The most used request strategies in situation 5

This situation is between two coworkers where one of them is new and he asking for the help of the other. The half of the participants (15) opt for CIR (H.O) using: can/could you help me . CIR (S.O) come second as most used by (12 participants) . Direct requests ranks third . UIR ranks fourth as it was not used at all.

Situation 6 : You need a letter of recommendation for a scholarship application and you want to ask your professor to write you one. What would you say?

Strategy	Number	Percentage
Direct requests	21	70%
UIR	0	0
CIR (H.O)	9	30%
CIR (S.O)	0	0

Table 12 : The most used request strategies in situation 6

In this situation the student is asking his/her teacher to write him/her a letter of recommendation. More than half of the participants (21) opt for direct requests by saying: write me a letter of recommendation, I need you to write me a letter of recommendation... The rest (9) opt for CIR (H.O) using: can/could you write me letter of recommendation.

Findings have revealed that the most used request strategy is CIR (H.O). Direct requests come second as most used. CIR (S.O) ranks third. UIR ranks fourth as it was not used at all.

Situation 7 : You are the head of the department of English. Something went wrong with your computer. One of the students is good with computers and you want his/her help. What would you say?

Strategy	Number	Percentage
Direct requests	21	70%
UIR	0	0
CIR (H.O)	6	20%
CIR (S.O)	3	10%

Table 13 : The most used request strategies in situation 8

This situation is about the head of the department asking for the help of a student.

Research Methodology and Data Analysis and Recommendations

More than half of the students (21) choose direct requests saying: help me with my computer, I would like you to come check my computer... CIR (H.O) comes next as second choice by saying: can/could you help me. CIR (S.O) was the least used (3) by saying: can I ask for your help. The UIR strategy is not used.

Discussion of the Results :

All the results shown in the tables above in order to test our hypotheses . from the table (1) The results displayed in the table above show that the majority are females (70%) so they are dominant over males (30%), this may be because of the fact that females are more interested in studying a foreign languages and they are so serious in their learning process .

All of the participants have been studying English for more than 9 years which normally means having enough knowledge about the language and the language use since English has been part of their lives for a long time .

request speech act :

The first situation :

It is about a student asking his/her classmate, who is not a close friend, to give him/her yesterday's lectures notes. Participants in this situation used CIR (H.O) in the first place. CIR (S.O) came second . Direct requests come third where only few used it. Though the classmate is not a close, which means there is a social distance, EFL learners used many direct requests which is not the case with natives, as Clark and Schunk (1980: 111) : "When people [native speakers of English] make requests, they tend to make them indirectly. They generally avoid imperatives in preference for indirect requests". This led the EFL learners to a sociopragmatic failure because of the miscalculation of the social distance.

There is even a sociopragmatic failure caused by the misinterpretation of the size of imposition because the notes of the other student, who is not a close friend, are a " non-free " good (Goffman, 1967) that cannot be asked as directly as: " give me your notes " . In the CIR (H.O) there is mainly two models used (can/could) which leads to Biesenbach-Lucas⁹ (2007) assumption that non-native speakers generally overuse a particular semantic construction (e.g. could you or can you) which indicates that they lack the ability to use other linguistic constructs to formulate different types of requests.

Research Methodology and Data Analysis and Recommendations

The second situation :

The second situation is about a student who is asking to borrow the professor's book. The most used strategy is CIR (H.O), CIR (S.O) is second most used and direct requests come third. UIR are not used. Although the student holds a lower social position than the professor CIR (S.O), which is considered to be more polite than CIR (H.O) and direct requests, is not even used by half of the student .

Direct requests are used in this situation, where the student holds a lower social position than the professor, more than in the previous one, where the social position and distance is the equal. This is against the explanations of Ervin-Tripp (1976) and Brown and Levinson (1978) that imperatives are scarcely ever used to command or request in formal spoken English. This leads to the conclusion that many EFL learners faced a sociopragmatic failure in this situation because of the miscalculation of the relative power or social distance.

In these direct requests participants even faced sociopragmatic failure caused by the misinterpretation of the size of imposition since the book is a "non-free" good (Goffman, 1967) that belongs to the professor so the respondents should not have asked to borrow the book using a direct strategy request like: "lend me this book". Again, the word "borrow" was often used instead of "lend" in the requests. In the CIR (H.O) there is mainly two models used (can/could) which leads to Biesenbach-Lucas⁹ (2007) assumption that non-native speakers generally overuse a particular semantic construction (e.g. could you or can you) which indicates that they lack the ability to use other linguistic constructs to formulate different types of requests. But even the use of "can" in such situation is kind of impolite "could", "would" and "may" would have been better, so this is a pragmalinguistic failure because of teaching-induced errors.

The third situation :

The third situation is about a student who is asking to borrow some money from a classmate. The most used strategy by EFL learners is CIR (H.O) followed by direct requests and CIR (S.O) are equal . UIR is not used at all. Although the social position is equal, EFL learners used the Indirect strategies more than the direct ones to request. In the CIR (H.O) there is mainly two models used (can/could) which leads to Biesenbach Lucas⁹ (2007) assumption that non-native speakers generally overuse a particular semantic construction (e.g. could you or

Research Methodology and Data Analysis and Recommendations

can you) which indicates that they lack the ability to use other linguistic constructs to formulate different types of requests.

It can be concluded that this lack of ability is caused by teaching-induced errors which can lead them to pragmalinguistic failure. The word "borrow" was often used instead of "lend" in requests such as: "can you borrow me" which is incorrect, because the student borrows and the teacher lends, the correct form is: "can you lend me". This is a pragmalinguistic failure caused by teaching-induced errors as it can be caused by pragmalinguistic transfer if EFL learners applied the <mother tongue= thinking mode when using the target language (as was explained in the first chapter); because in Arabic the source verb is the same for "lend (أعار) and "borrow" (استعار).

The fourth situation :

The fourth situation is about someone who is asking for the help of his friend to fix his/her phone. Direct requests are the most frequent in this situation. CIR (H.O) is the second more frequent strategy and CIR (S.O) is the third since only two used it. UIR is not used. The head of the department has a higher social position so more than half of the participants used direct requests like: <come see what's wrong with my computer= which are not common for natives even if the speaker holds higher social position because it is kind of a formal setting and context as it is pointed out by Wierzbicka (1985), Clark and Schunk (1980) that English native speakers disprefer the use of imperatives and prefer the use of CIR.

Direct requests can lead them to sociopragmatic failures. In the CIR (H.O) there is mainly two models used (can/could) which leads to Biesenbach-Lucas (2007) assumption that non-native speakers generally overuse a particular semantic construction (e.g. could you or can you) which indicates that they lack the ability to use other linguistic constructs to formulate different types of requests.

The fifth situation :

situation is between two coworkers where one of them is new and he asking for the help of the other. CIR (H.O) are the most frequent in this situation. CIR (S.O) is the second more frequent strategy and direct requests is the third since only two used it. UIR is not used. The coworker has a higher social position so direct requests are not suit to this situation but it is

Research Methodology and Data Analysis and Recommendations

used by some of the participants which are not common for natives . According to Wierzbicka (1985), Clark and Schunk (1980) that English native speakers disprefer the use of imperatives and prefer the use of CIR. Direct requests can lead them to sociopragmatic failures.

The sixth situation :

The tenth situation is about a student asking the professor to write him/her a letter of recommendation. Confusingly, the most used strategy in this situation is the direct requests whereas CIR (S.O) is not used at all. CIR (H.O) is the second most used and UIR is not used. In the CIR (H.O) there is mainly two models used (can/could) which leads to Biesenbach-Lucas9 (2007) assumption that non-native speakers generally overuse a particular semantic construction (e.g. could you or can you) which indicates that they lack the ability to use other linguistic constructs to formulate different types of requests. However, even the use of <can= in such situation is kind of impolite <could= <would= and <may= would have been better, so this is a pragmalinguistic failure because of teaching-induced errors.

Even though the student has a lower social position than the professor more than half of the participants used direct requests such as: <write me a recommendation letter= and <I need you to write me recommendation letter=. Searle (1975: 64) states that "ordinary conversational requirements of politeness normally make it awkward to issue flat imperative sentences or explicit performatives, and we therefore seek to find indirect means to our illocutionary ends." Based on this quotation it can be concluded that EFL learners in this situation used impolite direct requests which means that they failed sociopragmatically because of the misinterpretation of relative power or social distance. The absence of the use of CIR (S.O) which is considered more polite than the other strategies is also a serious pragmatic failure.

The seventh situation

The ninth situation is about the head of the department who is asking for the help of a student to fix his/her computer. Direct requests are the most frequent in this situation. CIR (H.O) is the second more frequent strategy and CIR (S.O) is the third since only two used it. UIR is not used. The head of the department has a higher social position so more than half of the participants used direct requests like: <come see what's wrong with my computer= which are not common for natives even if the speaker holds higher social position because it is kind of a formal setting and context as it is pointed out by Wierzbicka (1985), Clark and Schunk (1980) that English native speakers disprefer the use of imperatives and prefer the use of CIR.

Direct requests can lead them to sociopragmatic failures. In the CIR (H.O) there is mainly two models used (can/could) which leads to Biesenbach-Lucas9 (2007) assumption that non-native speakers generally overuse a particular semantic construction (e.g. could you or can you) which indicates that they lack the ability to use other linguistic constructs to formulate different types of requests.

Interpretation of the overall results in relation to the research questions :

This section will offer the study's findings along with a discussion of how they relate to the three research questions and related hypotheses.

A. Interpretation of the overall results in relation to the first research question

As was mentioned in the first chapter, pragmatic competence is a fundamental component of communicative competence and is split into two categories: sociopragmatic competence and pragmalinguistic competence. Consequently, in order to become as competent as a native speaker, language learners need study both the rules of usage and the rules of grammar, according to Gumperz (1982) and Wolfson (1983). A breakdown in communication will result from incompetence in one of them. We will attempt to respond to the first study question, which is: Which level of pragmatic failure the sociopragmatic or pragmalinguistic level does the pragmatic failure of EFL learners tend to manifest itself at?

According to Chen (1996: 14), language learners who are not native speakers often lack pragmatic ability, which is not always developed through the acquisition of grammatical competence. Language learners acquire language apart from socio-cultural contexts. In other words, EFL students acquire language norms independently of their sociocultural contexts. Expanding on this, since sociopragmatics is the sociocultural end of pragmatics and pragmatic language is the linguistic end, as Thomas (1983: 91) states: \can be taught quite straightforwardly as 'part of the grammar'=", pragmatic failure in EFL learners is more likely to occur at the sociopragmatic level. This was evident in the DCT's data analysis and interpretation. Failure scenarios were observed at the sociopragmatic level by the majority of responders⁹, who are M1 EFL students at the University of Biskra.

B. Interpretation of the overall results in relation to the second research question :

Since sociopragmatic failure affects a student's belief system in addition to language proficiency, it is considerably more challenging to handle (Thomas, 1983: 91). Sociopragmatic failure, as defined in the first chapter, is the breakdown of communication resulting from a

Research Methodology and Data Analysis and Recommendations

misapprehension of the social constraints imposed on language use. Thomas (1983: 99) argues that cross-cultural differences in the definition of appropriate language behavior are the root cause of sociopragmatic failure. We will attempt to address the second study question, which is, "What are the main causes behind the sociopragmatic failure?" based on this assertion.

Thomas (1983) identified four factors that collectively fall under the general heading of the lack of genuine input from native speakers. The first chapter outlines and expands on these justifications. First, the imposition's scale, which relates to Goffman's (1967) concept of "free" and "non-free" commodities. In certain cases, it was the primary cause of sociopragmatic failure (3, 4,5, and 8). Second, value judgments: When pragmatic principles, like politeness, clash with other, sincerely held values, like truthfulness or sincerity, this is unquestionably the most challenging kind of pragmatic failure that language teachers have to deal with (Thomas, 1983: 106). It showed up in two circumstances (1 and 2) Thus, two of the causes (value judgment and amount of imposition) that Thomas (1983) identified could be found in the respondents' responses to the DCT and questionnaire. As previously discussed in the interpretation of the questionnaire, the respondents largely continued to use the same strategies mostly the same linguistic forms while responding to questions about the most common strategies of the various speech acts in a general lack of context. They also failed to mention that the performance of the various speech acts depends and varies according to the situation, the context, or the person.

C. Interpretation of the overall results in relation to the third research question :

One of the teaching units used to have students conduct discourse analysis as part of the language learning process is a speech act . (Olshtain & Celce-Murcia 2000: 224). Speech actions have a crucial role in pragmatics; in fact, they form its foundation. For effective communication in FL, knowing how to carry them out is crucial. Cook (1989: 35) characterizes this awareness as: (an capacity which is important for the generation and reception of coherent discourse and hence for successful communication). We shall now attempt to address the third study question: Does pragmatic failure result from EFL learners' ignorance of speech acts?

Based on the aforementioned quotations and the first chapter's explanations, it can be concluded that speech acts are crucial to pragmatics and communication. Being able to execute them appropriately in various contexts will result in a high level of pragmatic competence and

Research Methodology and Data Analysis and Recommendations

successful communication free from misunderstandings. Every speaking act has a specific method and strategy that must be followed; it is important to know which method or strategy works best in any given situation.

Failure to select the right course of action for every circumstance and context can occasionally result in major misunderstandings and communication breakdowns, as Murray (2009:1) notes: \The consequences of misinterpretation or the inappropriate use of language can range from unfortunate to catastrophic That is to say, when a speaker is unsure about the best course of action or speech act to take in a certain circumstance, the hearer may misinterpret them and, in extreme cases, believe that they are being rude. This is evident in both the DCT and the questionnaire's data processing and interpretation.

The respondents, who were EFL learners, experienced pragmatic failures of both the sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic varieties when they were unsure of the best course of action in each given circumstance or, on occasion, even when they were unsure about the proper language forms to employ. Therefore, pragmatic failure results from a lack of awareness regarding the execution of speech acts. Similarly, Schiffrin (1994: 57) asserts that speech acts are essential to language communication, with speakers using language to convey much aided by their knowledge of which speech act to perform and hearers understanding greatly dependent on their ability to recognize that act.

Recommendations to overcome pragmatic failure :

The results of the two research instruments utilized in this study revealed a major problem that has to be addressed for EFL learners. This problem, specifically, is the pragmatic failure of both kinds. According to Martinez-Floral and Usó-Juan (2010: 9), there are theoretical prerequisites for learning speech acts and, consequently, for acquiring pragmatic competence. They state: Three key factors—appropriate input, chances for output, and feedback—have an impact on learners' total capacity to communicate successfully in a specific TL. These requirements are crucial for the growth of learners' pragmatic competence and, as a result, for the acquisition of various speech acts.

First, relevant input, which is described as "the language samples learners are exposed to" by Martinez-Flor and Usó-Juan (2010: 10). The fundamental cause of pragmatic failure, as was covered in the first chapter and the interpretation, is the lack of genuine adequate input, which also entails not being exposed to the target language. For this reason, the primary

Research Methodology and Data Analysis and Recommendations

requirement for overcoming pragmatic failure and gaining pragmatic competence is suitable input.

The second requirement for improving pragmatic competence is output opportunities. According to Martinez-Floral and Usó-Juan (2010), output gives students the chance to improve their language skills and motivates them to take an active part in the process .

Lastly, the final requirement is to provide feedback. As stated by Martinez-Flor and Usó-Juan (2010: 14), corrective feedback is crucial in helping students develop their pragmatic skills in the classroom and should address both meaning and form. To put it another way, pragmatics instructors should oversee the teaching of pragmatics in the classroom from the outset of FL learning in order to give the crucial corrective feedback.

Conclusion :

The approach used in this study's data processing and interpretation was described in this chapter. Information about the participants is first, followed by a description of the study tools, which include the questionnaire and the DCT. This chapter also included an explanation of the methods used to collect data, followed by data analysis of the DCT and questionnaire results. Additionally, this chapter included a description of the findings from the study tools. The findings supported the following research hypotheses: 1) The pragmatic failures showed at the sociopragmatic failure; 2) The size of imposition, taboos, cross-culturally disparate assessments of relative power or social distance, and value judgments are the main causes of the sociopragmatic failure; and 3) The pragmatic failure is caused by the unawareness of performing speech acts. It concluded with suggestions that might aid in preventing practical

General Conclusion

General Conclusion

The globalization that the world is experiencing has made learning a foreign language essential for everyone. Studying a foreign language should involve more than simply grammar and vocabulary; it should also involve learning about the culture of this language as well. When we talk about culture, we are talking about much more than just history, cuisine, the arts, and music. In order to develop a critical cultural awareness that helps them prevent cross-cultural communication breakdowns, foreign language learners should study about various speaking patterns, communicative styles, and sociocultural values and views. This kind of technique aids in the learners' comprehension of the cultural distinctions between the target culture and their mother culture.

The relevance of pragmatic competence is emphasized and is regarded as an essential skill for foreign language learners in the majority of modern EFL research. Foreign language learners still exhibit more, though, competence in language and grammar as opposed to pragmatics. As a result, when they are the speakers, they frequently struggle to understand the intentions of the native speakers or to use language effectively, particularly when it comes to producing speech acts in various circumstances.

The current study was split into two chapters in order to achieve this goal. The first one addressed the theoretical underpinnings of speech acts, pragmatic failure, and pragmatic competence. The research methods, including the description of the research equipment, data analysis, data interpretation, and some suggestions to help EFL learners avoid pragmatic failure, were covered in the second chapter.

The three hypotheses were verified through the design and implementation of an exploratory case study, as well as the analysis and interpretation of the data gathered from multiple sources and the two research instruments, the DCT and the questionnaire, for master's level English students at the University of Mohamed Khider (Biskra). The results showed that master-level English students perform worse at the sociopragmatic level than the pragmalinguistic one, meaning they committed more mistakes relating to misinterpreting sociocultural norms than grammatical and linguistic rules (the first hypothesis was validated).to avoid cross-cultural communication breakdown(the second hypothesis was confirmed). The third hypothesis was validated by the research results, which also demonstrated how EFL learners' ignorance of speech act performance might result in pragmatic failure. The majority of the learners were unable to identify which speech act technique was appropriate in each

General Conclusion

situation and environment.

The classification of errors into pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic failure was a difficult thing to do since as it was explained in the literature review an inappropriate utterance can be seen as a pragmalinguistic failure from one angle and a sociopragmatic failure from another angle. From a psychological point of view, sometimes there was the lack of creativity, other times there was the lack of experience to deal with a whole research since it is our first time as actual researchers.

Some additional investigations can be conducted in light of the findings of this one. To better understand the occurrence and solve the issue, more in-depth research may be quite beneficial. To raise foreign language learners' awareness and knowledge of pragmatic competence, pragmatic failure, and speech act appropriate production, each sort of pragmatic failure can be explored independently, and each type of speech act and its solutions can be discussed independently. There are other related problems to this one that can be checked into.

In conclusion, it can be stated that the absence of authentic input and ignorance of the target language and culture make pragmatic failure a serious issue for EFL learners. It can be prevented, though, if pragmatic studies and initiatives to increase understanding of English culture receive more attention.

Limitations of the Study :

- The study is concerned with only one kind of the speech acts which is requesting .
- Only Master one students are participated in this study .
- The present study deals only with the written performance of all the participants through the DCT questionnaire . The oral performance will not be included in the study .
- Providing seven situations that require for the learners to request and apologize ten people of different social status affects their performance .

References List

- Allen, L. Q. (1999). *Function of Nonverbal Communication in Teaching and Learning a Foreign Language* . Récupéré sur <https://www.yumpu.com/en/document/view/5973966/functions-of-nonverbal-communication-in-teaching-and-learning-a->
- Bach, k. (2008, january). *Speech Acts and Pragmatics*.
- Baroona, P. (s.d.). *The Impact Of Non-Verbal Communication In The Learning Process*. Récupéré sur file:///C:/Users/sarab/Downloads/1738-Article%20Text-6710-1-10-20191112%20(4).pdf
- Bowman, J. M. (2020). *Nonverbal Communication An Applied Approach*. Sage.
- Cruz, M. P. (s.d.). *Undertsanding and Overcoming Pragmatic Failure in Intercultural Communication : From Focus on Speakers to Focus on Hearers* .
- Darn, S. (2005). *Aspects Of Nonverbal Communication*. Récupéré sur <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Darn-Nonverbal/>
- Hitesh, B. (2021). *Nonverbal Communication- Uses, Types, Importance, and Role*. Récupéré sur <http://www.marketing91.com/nonverbal-communication/>
- Holtgraves, T. (1986). *language structure in Social interaction : Perceptions of Direct and Indirect Speech acts and Interactants Who Use them* .
- Horn, L. R. (2004). *The Handbook of Pragmatics*. Blackwell Publishing.
- Jack C . Richards, R. W. (1983). *Language and Communication* .
- Jason S. Wrench, N. M.-C. (2020, May 18). *Importance of Nonverbal Communication in Interaction* . Récupéré sur [https://socialsci.libretexts.org/Bookshelves/Communication/Interpersonal_Communication/Book%3A_Interpersonal_Communication_-_A_Mindful_Approach_to_Relationships_\(Wrench_et_al.\)/05%3A_Nonverbal_Communication/5.01%3A_Importance_of_Nonverbal_Communication_in](https://socialsci.libretexts.org/Bookshelves/Communication/Interpersonal_Communication/Book%3A_Interpersonal_Communication_-_A_Mindful_Approach_to_Relationships_(Wrench_et_al.)/05%3A_Nonverbal_Communication/5.01%3A_Importance_of_Nonverbal_Communication_in)
- JORDA, M. P. (2008, January). *THE SPEECH ACT OF REQUESTING* .
- Justovà, V. (2006, April 20th). *Direct and Indirect Speech Acts in English* . Department of English and American Studies.

- Justová, V. (2006). *Direct and Indirect Speech Acts in English* . Brno, Faculty of Arts Department of English and American Studies .
- Kecskes, I. (2014). *Intercultural Pragmatics* . Oxford University press.
- Kecskes, I. (2014). *Intercultural Pragmatics* . Oxford University Express .
- Lan, X. (2019). *INTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE OF EFL LEARNERS IN CHINA'S UNIVERSITY*.
- Màrquez Reiter, R. (2000). Linguistic Politeness in Britain and Uruguay : A Contrastive Study of Requests and Apologies . In A. H . Jucker (ed) , *Pragmatics and Beyond New Series* . Philadelphia : John Benjamins .
- Morrow, C. K. (1995, September). THE PRAGMATIC EFFECTS OF INSTRUCTION ON ESL LEARNERS' PRODUCTION OF COMPLAINT AND REFUSAL SPEECH ACTS.
- Mubarak, A. S. (2005). A Theoretical Survey of The Notion of Pragmatic Failure.
- Peterwagner, R. (2005). *What is the Matter with Communicative Competence ? An analysis to encourage teachers of English to assess the very basis of their teaching*.
- Rosenthal, N. A. (1998). *Nonverbal Communication* . Récupéré sur <https://ambadylab.stanford.edu/pubs/1998Ambady.pdf>
- Rueda, Y. T. (2006, Jan / Dec). Developing Pragmatic Competence in a Foreign Language .
- Sbisà, M. (2002). *Speech Acts in context*. Département of Philosophy , University of Trieste , Via dell' universita 7, 34123 Trieste , Italy .
- Shakki, A. D. (2023, July 26). *Instructed Second Language Pragmatics for the Speech Acts of Request , Apology , and Refusal : A Meta Analysis*. Springer Nature Switzerland .
- Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-Cultural Pragmatic Failure . *Applied Linguistics*.
- Trosborg, A. (2011). *INTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATICS*. De Gruyter.
- Yan, Y. (2022). The Effect of Pragmatic Competence on the Communicative Competence of Second Language Learners.

Appendices

Questionnaire

Dear participants , this questionnaire is part of a research work , I will extremely appreciate if you could spend some time to answer the following questions . The obtained data will be kept confidential and used only for academic purposes

Part one : General information

1- Gender

- Female

- Male

2 - Age :

- Ages 20 to 29

-Ages 30 to 39

-Ages 40 to 49

-Ages 50 and above

3 - how long have you been studying English ?

- Under 5 years

-5 to 10years

-10 to 15years

-15 years or more

4 - how do you find speaking English ?

- Easy

-neutral

-difficult

-very difficult

5 - did your teacher at previous school levels focus on ?

- Grammar

-Pronunciation

-Vocabulary

-All of them

6 - If you have ever found yourself in a situation where you had to Request something from someone in English. write what you said (your most common expression)

.....

Please read and imagine the situations described below and try to answer them as honestly and Spontaneously as possible . Write what would you Say if you were in these situations .

Requesting

Situation 1 : You are a university student , and you missed a class and need to borrow a Friend's note . What would You Say ?

.....

Situation 2 : You find an interesting book with your professor, which may help you in your research project , and you Want to borrow it . What would you say ?

.....

Situation 3 : You left your wallet , and you want to borrow some money from your classmate to grab something the Teacher asks to bring . What would you say ?

.....

Situation 4: You have a Friend who is good with phones , and you had a major malfunction , and you lost some Important stuff , so you need his help. What would you say ?

.....

Situation 5 : You are new at work , and you need a coworker to help you understand how work works . How do you ask him that ?

.....

Situation 6 : You need a letter of recommendation for a scholarship application and you want to ask your professor to write you one. What would you say?

.....

Situation 7 : You are the head of the department of English. Something went wrong with your computer. One of the students is good with computers and you want his/her help. What would you say?

.....

Thank you for cooperation !

أحد المكونات المهمة للكفاءة التواصلية هو الكفاءة البراغمية. ومع ذلك ، يتم التقليل من قيمة القدرة البراغمية في تدريس اللغات الأجنبية وتجاهلها من قبل متعلمي اللغة. نظرا لأنهم يفتقرون إلى الوعي اللازم لاستخدام اللغة بشكل فعال في العديد من البيئات ، وتحديدًا أفعال الكلام ، فإن المتعلمين غير قادرين على منع الفشل العملي. تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى التحقيق في الفشل البراغمي في اللغة الإنجليزية كمتعلمي لغة أجنبية من خلال تحديد مستوى الفشل البراغمي الذي يواجهونه بشكل متكرر على المستوى الاجتماعي البراغمي أو اللغوي البراغمي بحثًا عن أسباب هذا الفشل ، وتقييم كيفية أدائهم لأفعال الكلام. من أجل القيام بذلك ، تم إجراء دراسة حالة شملت ثلاثين طالبًا على مستوى الماجستير من قسم اللغة الإنجليزية بجامعة بسكرة. تم استخدام أداتين بحثيتين هما الاستبيان واختبار إكمال الخطاب في هذه الدراسة لجمع البيانات. تم إجراء تحليلات نوعية وكمية على البيانات التي تم جمعها. أظهرت النتائج أن طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية الجزائريين يفتقرون إلى الإلمام باللغة والمعايير الاجتماعية والثقافية واستخدام اللغة الخاصة بالسياق للهدف. بالإضافة إلى ذلك ، فهم يفتقرون إلى الكفاءة العملية لتنفيذ أعمال الكلام المناسبة باللغة الإنجليزية في سياقات اجتماعية مختلفة.