



NAMIBIA UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Faculty of Commerce, Human Sciences and Education

Department of Communication and Languages

A PRAGMATIC LINGUISTIC EVALUATION OF COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE OF SECOND YEAR
STUDENTS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATION AT THE NAMIBIA UNIVERSITY OF
SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

BY

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THESIS PRESENTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
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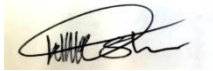
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July 2023

DECLARATION

I, Wilhem Shounawa Henghono hereby declare this thesis, ***A pragmatic linguistic evaluation of communicative competence of second year students of the Department of Communication at the Namibia University of Science and Technology***, and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research and not any part of this study or its entirety has been submitted at any university or any other institution of higher learning for the purpose of receiving a degree.

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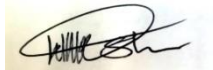
A special thanks to my wonderful parents and family for your unwavering encouragement and support throughout my years of study. I learned to think outside the box, to try my hardest, and to be myself from you. Your prayers have kept me going so far. My fellow Naomi Ashimbuli, your assistance and kind support you offered me from the beginning until my collection of data will not go unnoticed. I am grateful!

Many thanks also to all of my study participants. Their time and enthusiasm have been invaluable to this project.

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ABSTRACT

As the number of students studying at tertiary institutions in a multilingual Namibia increases with English as a medium of instruction and as a second language, the significance of pragmatic competence in the successful social integration of L2 speakers has been highlighted, and the need for assessing it has grown. The majority of currently available pragmatic tests are theoretically grounded in Speech Act Theory and employ discourse completion tasks as test instruments. The purpose of this study is therefore to contribute towards the assessment of pragmatic competence in extend to their oral academic discourse at the Namibia University of Science and technology (NUST). The study specifically focused on assessing the level of students' pragmatic competence by discovering the politeness level found in speech acts of apologies, requests, complaints. The study evaluates the syntactical structures used in these speech acts and how they are pivotal in assessing and accomplishing pragmatic competence. Data were collected from 32 NUST students doing the bachelor of English and politeness utilised as a theoretical framework. A Written Discourse Completion Task (WDCT) was administered to study the formulation of apologies, requests and complaint strategies followed by an open-ended questionnaire, which were analysed qualitatively and quantitatively. The main findings indicate that L2 students used different request strategies to show positive politeness. There are still students who choose to use indirect request strategies which indicate impolite behaviours or negative politeness. High pragmatic level was observed in request strategies unlike in complaints where low level of pragmatic competence is indicated as more face threatening acts were recorded. Syntactical structures played a huge role in students' production of speech acts whereby impoliteness was recorded in the use of imperatives. The indication of these disparities from participants in pragmatic competence is mainly caused by the difference in age, cultural differences and different cultural backgrounds or languages. Therefore, the study recommends the implementation of activities which promote pragmatic awareness and also instructional materials in the training of English teachers to focus in communicative language rather than just grammar.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

NUST – Namibia University of Science and Technology

ESL – English Second Language

EFL – English First Language

WDCT – Written Completion Discourse Task

CC – Communicative Competence

TVET – Teachers Vocational Educational Training

L2 – Second Language

TL - Target Language

FL – First Language

FTA – Face threatening Acts

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1.1 Background of the study

English has served as a significant global communication tool and Namibia is no exception. In Namibia, people's daily lives are becoming more and more dependent on their ability to communicate in English, particularly communicative competence which is defined by Šafranĵ (2009), as the ability to send messages which promote attainment of goals while maintaining social acceptability. Origie (2015) asserts that, successful English language study should focus on communicative competence, or the capacity to use language in real performance, rather than only learning grammar rules and pronunciation. After independence in 1990, Namibia adopted English as its official language due to its diverse people from different cultural backgrounds with fourteen (14) written languages used in school, in addition to the Sign Language (Education Management Information System). As a result, developing the language proficiency of Second Language (L2) learners so that they can use language correctly and responsibly in a range of social circumstances is one of the challenges that language teachers encounter in Namibia. Language proficiency in this sense encompasses knowledge of not only the grammar and lexis of the language system being studied, but also the additional linguistic features of a given communicative scenario, all of which contribute to meaning and the interpretation of meaning. These features can include gesture, silence, or suggested meaning (implicature).

Since English is the official language in Namibia, students are required to possess proficient communicative skills and for any student to be admitted into any of the institutions of higher learning in Namibia, such student should have completed and passed English as a subject in Secondary school.

Institutions of higher learning in Namibia require at least a minimum of E symbol for one to be admitted to any of the programs.

The Namibia University of Science and Technology (NUST) is a tertiary educational institution which offers courses in communication and English at all levels, from beginner to advanced levels. Since English is a service course, it is required of all NUST students to undertake these English courses. This means that in order to be placed into the various levels of the English course, all new students to NUST must complete a placement test. This test does not only test grammatical knowledge, but also communicative competence in writing. It is against this background that this University was chosen for this study in order to assess the link between the communicative competence of students and their pragmatic awareness.

The English language proficiency of Namibian learners is still quite low despite the growing demand for English skills and the educational requirements for English. This is due to the fact that the post-independence adoption of English was a difficult decision because only few Namibians could speak English. The majority of the Namibian citizenry utilised their native languages and Afrikaans as a lingua franca and a primary language of communication in their daily life. In terms of communication skills, the majority of Namibian students still have trouble using English after graduation even though they have started learning it since their grade one. Higher education institutes like NUST, UNAM and IUM appear to have inherited the issue (low English competence) from the schools. Students must learn the English abilities necessary to successfully navigate the demands of their future workplace at these institutions.

The aim of learning a language is to be communicative, thus communicative competence is needed by language learners to communicate in the language in a proper manner (Fitriyani & Andriyanti, 2020). Hymes (2001) argued that while grammatical proficiency is a prerequisite for proficiency in a foreign

language, it does not guarantee it. There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless. Just as rules of syntax can control aspects of phonology, and just as semantic rules perhaps control aspects of syntax, so rules of speech acts enter as a controlling factor for linguistic form as a whole (p. 60)

In order for speakers of the second languages (L2) to communicate effectively, they need to possess the essential language skill of pragmatics. The recognition of pragmatic competence, which is defined as "the ability to communicate your intended message with all of its nuances in any socio-cultural context and to interpret the message of your interlocutor as it was intended," (Fraser, 2010, p. 15), came about as a result of the current emphasis in the field of second language (L2) education on the development of communicative skills. Additionally, research into the pragmatic competence of L2 learners has shown that even advanced learners may not be able to comprehend or convey the intended intentions and politeness values and that linguistic development does not necessarily guarantee a corresponding level of pragmatic development (Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei, 1998 as cited as in Taghizadeh, 2017).

Primary, and occasionally the only measure of second-language proficiency has historically been the capacity to generate grammatically correct structures in L2. Nakale (2017) argued that students enrol in tertiary institutions from high schools where the emphasis on second language teaching is on mastering the grammatical aspects of language. Nakale further claims that "in schools, the most important thing is for learners to master the correct basic rules of using the language on which they are assessed for progress" (Nakale, 2017). The limitation of this approach is that the context when using a language can vary significantly from moment to moment and students may not be aware of how to deal with different situation of different context or discourses.

Terzi (2014) opines that, due to the lack of sufficient access to language teaching and learning resources, it is difficult for teachers – let alone for students – to choose between certain speech acts and to make hands-on decisions about what is appropriate and what is not. This claim can be generalized to Namibia as it is the case where teaching and learning resources are also limited. One of the focuses of language teacher education programs should therefore be on ways to increase the pragmatic competencies of teacher candidates.

Since its inception, the idea of pragmatic competence has been interpreted in a variety of ways by theorists. In the models of communicative competence, the concepts of pragmatic competence (the capacity to use language appropriately in a context) and communicative competence (the knowledge of when and how to use language appropriately) have been presented separately. However, there is disagreement among scholars as to whether the two concepts are simply the same or should be treated separately (Taghizadeh, 2017).

As students live in the target language setting, they have to be able to use the language not only linguistically appropriate, but also be able to apologize, request, refuse and make complaints. Leech (1983) in his 'Principles of Pragmatics' argued that we cannot really understand the nature of language itself unless we understand pragmatics which is about how language is used in communication. When it comes to teaching and learning a language, pragmatic competence is crucial because it contributes to how effective a learner can be in managing conversations that go beyond the simple transfer of information. To maximally acquire the target language, second language learners are demanded to master the knowledge of pragmatics on the grounds that helps them to capture a comprehensive understanding of the classroom communication patterns which deal with how language is used according to its context (Margana, 2011).

Finally, language-related academics like Hymes (1972), Chomsky (1965), Canale and Swain 1980 (1983) have taken a keen interest in communicative and pragmatic competencies. The development of the field's present literature has been greatly influenced by many scholars as they attempted to provide their perspectives on these two fields of language acquisition which are paramount in effective language use.

1.2 Statement of the problem

The language policy's implementation in Namibia presented a number of challenges for instructors in the classroom. Mostert et al. (2012) noted that in Namibia, teachers are expected to operate in the official language, even though they had limited exposure to English in their daily lives, cited in (Ngololo & Nekongo-Nielsen, 2017). Traditionally, teachers mainly teach language forms and grammatical rules, but neglect the function of language and contextual language use, although it is highly encouraged through constructivism approach. Successful communication does not only include the knowledge of structure, vocabulary and writing rules, it involves the writer/speaker communicating their ideas effectively in different contextual situations. Therefore, many learners in Namibia leave secondary school without having mastered the required competencies in the English language. When learners proceed to tertiary education, they transfer this incompetence to these institutions.

Many students in their first year of tertiary education lack the necessary communication skills necessary to meet the academic demands of higher education (Hamdany, 2019). Sorour (2015) argued that the tendency in English Second Language (ESL) instruction to focus more on grammaticality than on pragmatic appropriateness results in a gap between the learners' grammatical competencies and their pragmatic competence and awareness. This often renders ESL learners' inability to distinguish between what is and what is not appropriate in the target language. When a second language (L2) learner does not understand the sociocultural norms associated with the L2, mistakes and misunderstandings can be subsequent. University students in English classes and in everyday academic interaction in Namibia tertiary institutions

tend to be more challenged by using ESL appropriately to communicate and express their intentions to lectures and to other students. This leads to communication breakdown as they fail to achieve their interactional goals and break their interactional relationships with their teacher/lectures. Having an awareness of pragmatic will help shape their speech act in order to communicate appropriately by being always polite. It is therefore, very necessary for students in academic discourse to know what constitute politeness behaviours by using politeness strategies to make requests, apologies and complaints with their lecturers and other students of different languages cultural backgrounds.

According to Alharbi (2018), the use of language can determine the success of the teaching and learning processes. Misunderstandings or misinterpretations may occur during communication (especially in instructional settings). Misinterpretations and misunderstanding are sometimes the reason for the lack of communicative competency and indicate pragmatic failures. Learners not only fail because they do not understand the meaning of words; they also fail because of wrong interpretations and the difficulty in applying appropriate registers when writing or speaking which tends to be catastrophic.

Borer (2018) argued that “by focusing on the pragmatics level of linguistics in teaching and learning, the L2 learner can gain a broader sense of target language (TL) form-function-context mappings, which include cultural norms and social rules of discourse.” Politeness as a theory of pragmatics is influenced by cultural, social, historical, and geographic factors. As a result, it is critical to practice politeness because of the country with diverse ethnic groups, each with their own culture and norms on how they interact with one another. In addition, when communicating with others, it is important to be aware of differences in social power or distance. Encouraging students about the importance of having a politeness strategies in communication will develop their awareness not only in communicative competence, but also in cultural

awareness. This will help them develop character values, especially for university students who are easily influenced by their surroundings, whether in the real or virtual world.

Apart from studies that looked at the communicative competencies of university students, the area of pragmatic competence has not received sufficient attention from scholars in Namibia despite its significance in helping learners become competent speakers of ESL. There are no or only few studies conducted in Namibia that investigated pragmatic awareness in ESL. The current study therefore aimed to explore how pragmatically competent were the second-year students from the Department of Communication at NUST. The study also aimed at recommending strategies that could be used in EAP and ESP classrooms to improve students' pragmatic competence in ESL.

1.3 Objectives of the study

The main objective of this study was to evaluate the pragmatic competencies of NUST students in their academic communicative situations.

The study was guided by the following specific objectives:

- to determine the level of the NUST student's pragmatic competence in the communicative strategies at the discourse level,
- to assess the link between utterances/speech acts and politeness in classroom discussions at NUST,
- to evaluate the connection between syntactic structures and politeness levels in requests complaints and apologies of students at NUST.

1.4 Significance of the study

Although acquiring high level of accuracy and fluency is deemed to augment one's competency in Second Language (L2) communication, pragmatic competence should not be overlooked as it serves as an important component for effective and proficient communication. The significance of this study is to introduce the value of pragmatics in communication and to determine the gap in pragmatic competence among English language students at Namibia University of Science and Technology. This study is expected to contribute to the emerging body of knowledge and literature in pragmatic competence in Namibia. It provides an analysis of the level of students' pragmatic competencies in ESL learning, thereby filling the gap in pragmatic studies amongst university students in Namibia.

If students become pragmatically competent, they would have enough time to acquaint themselves with communication knowledge and after completing their studies they will go out in the field and pass it on to their learners in process of teaching and in other fields, where these competencies are of paramount. Pragmatic competence will also help students and learners not to be only linguistically competent but to choose the appropriate language to use in different academic situations, to be polite when producing utterances such as in making requests, apologies, complaints or even asking for permissions, thus improving their communicative competencies.

Situmeang (2015) indicated that by studying the politeness principles people can be careful to determine the choice of words, phrases, clauses and sentences in expressing the ideas or meaning in a given context because being polite is an important aspect in our everyday interactions which connects people with others. It is significant for English students and lecturers to use appropriate word choice and to apply politeness principles, especially in communicating in academic discourse. Finally, the findings of this study are foreseen to be of great value to teachers/lectures who teach ESL courses and to syllabus designers

1.5 Limitation of the study

This study was severely constrained by the paucity of research on the pragmatic competence on students' communicative competencies in the Namibian undergraduate students' context. To lessen this restriction, the researcher used literature from different researchers from around the world which focus mainly on the pragmatic competence in second language studies. The results from this study cannot be generalised to the Namibian context as the sample is taken from students doing a course which is offered at NUST and, so these students might have a better level of pragmatic competence, therefore the study recommend extensive studies on pragmatics across Namibia institutions of higher learning.

1.6 Delimitations of the study

The study is confined to the 2022 cohort of second year students at NUST, Windhoek main campus only. It is designed to primarily focus only on pragmatic awareness and its influence on communicative competencies of students. The sample size of the study was a specific group of students from the Faculty of Commerce and Human Science majoring (bachelor of English only). Its focus is on pragmatic competence of the students rather than their linguistic competence. The researcher has only chosen a theoretical framework of politeness for this study and data will only be analysed from the perspective of tenet Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory.

1.7 Definition of technical terms

Communicative competence

Hymes (1972) introduced Communicative competence after Chomsky's 'linguistic competence' which refers to the native speaker's implicit knowledge of the grammatical rules governing her or his language.

According to Hymes effective communication does not only require the speaker to know only grammatical rules, but they also had to learn what was communicatively appropriate in a given context.

Discourse

A discourse as defined by Crystal (2008), is “a behavioural unit which has a pre-theoretical status in linguistics: it is a set of utterances which constitute any recognizable speech event (no reference being made to its linguistic structuring, if any), e.g., a conversation, a joke, a sermon, an interview”(p.148)

Discourse Completion Task (DCT)

It is a method for gathering data that involves giving participants a series of conditions and asking them to write down exactly what they would say in those circumstances.

Pragmatics competence

Pragmatic competence is understood as the knowledge of the linguistic resources available in a given language for realizing particular illocutions, knowledge of the sequential aspects of speech acts, and finally, knowledge of the appropriate contextual use of the particular language's linguistic resources (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993).

Politeness

According to Brown (2017), politeness in its layman's terms refers to socially correct or appropriate speech and behaviour. Its core sense is perhaps a matter of attention to interactional sensibilities, of speech and behaviour that to the feelings and expectations of those one is interacting with so that social interaction proceeds smoothly. Politeness is the oil that keeps the interactional hinges from creaking and prevents offence by pre - emptively anticipating the possibilities for offence and offsetting them.

Speech acts

Speech acts refers to a theory which analyses the role of utterances in relation to the behaviour of speaker and hearer in interpersonal communication. It is not an 'act of speech' (in the sense of parole), but a communicative activity (a locutionary act), defined with reference to the intentions of speakers while speaking (the illocutionary force of their utterances) and the effects they achieve on listeners (the perlocutionary effect of their utterances) (Crystal, 2008).

1.8 Chapter summary

Chapter one provided the background of the study. The chapter further discussed the current situation of English pragmatic and communicative competencies among Namibian learners and students. It looked at the issues that contribute to the low level of English Language competence in Namibia. Finally, the chapter highlights the research objectives, statement of the problem, significance of the study and delimitation of the study. It concluded with defining technical terms that are significant to this study.

CHAPTER TWO

Literature review

This chapter presents a critical review of previous studies related to pragmatic and communicative competence in academic interactions that the previous researchers or scholars have dealt with in relation to this study. The literature review, specifically is based on the objectives of this study. This helped the researcher to have a better insight into the problem of the present study. It further provides the theoretical framework of politeness and speech acts which falls under pragmatic competence.

2.1 Pragmatics

Pragmatic is language use in context. Language cannot exist outside of its sociocultural context. Language situations rely heavily on the context involved with each utterance whether it is written or spoken. Pragmatic as a field of enquiry was initiated in the 1930s by Morris, Carnap, and Peirce. Morris (1938) uses the notion 'pragmatic' in a broad context to state that 'pragmatic' is defined in different ways from different broad views. Pragmatic, in its broadest definition, is the area of linguistic study that investigates relationships between language, its users, and its contexts of use (Burke, 2014). Another definition by Umezinwa, (2016) explains that pragmatic studies how the transmission of meaning depends not only on structural and linguistics knowledge of the speaker and listener, but also in the context of the utterance, any pre-existing knowledge about those involved, the inferred intent of the speaker, and other factors.

According Yule (1996) pragmatic focuses on studying the speaker (or writer)'s intended meaning in communication. This implies that pragmatic investigates utterances as they are expressed by the speaker and understood by the listener and does not just take into account the linguistic meaning of the words.

Yule further explored that to get the writer/speaker's intended meaning, the listener has to guess or make assumptions on what is said and interpreted by the listener (or reader). Bublitz and Norrick (2011) Claimed that "pragmatics is understood as the systematic investigation of what and how people mean when they use language as a vehicle of action in a particular context and with a particular goal in mind" (p. 3).

Pragmatics is defined from the modern perspective to be:

In modern linguistics, it has come to be applied to the study of language from the point of view of the users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction, and the effects their use of language have on the other participants in an act of communication (Crystal, 2008, p. 379).

Fetzer (2011) argued that pragmatics is fundamentally concerned with communicative action and its felicity in context, investigating action with respect to the questions of what action is, what may count as action, what action is composed of what conditions need to be satisfied for action to be felicitous, and how action is related to context.

Huang (2017) provided a definition of pragmatics by looking at two schools of thoughts: the Anglo-American where he sees pragmatics as "the systematic study of meaning by virtue of, or dependent on the use of language. The central topics of inquiry include implicature, presupposition, speech acts, deixis, reference, and context, and the division of labour between, and the interaction of, pragmatics and semantics". He then identified two prominent competing theories in this component camp which are classical and neo- Gricean pragmatic theory and relevance theory. The second school of thought is the European Continental traditions where he defined 'Pragmatics as a general functional (i.e., cognitive,

social, and cultural) perspective on linguistic phenomena in relation to their usage in forms of behaviour. From this perspective, pragmatics is viewed as presenting a functional relation on every aspect of linguistic behaviour.

2.2 Pragmatic competence

Having a strong grasp of pragmatic is essential for using any language effectively. Pragmatic competence is one component of communicative competence. According to Sauvignon (1991), the communicative skill necessary for participation comprises not just grammatical competence but also pragmatic competence. Chomsky (1981) defined pragmatic competence as the ability to place language in the institutional settings of its use, relating intentions and purposes to the linguistic means at hand (cited in Benkacher & Bouteraa, 2021). In other words, pragmatic competence is concerned with the proper decisions that speakers make among a wide range of possible grammatical utterances considering specific assumptions, linguistic traditions, and even behavioural norms held by members of a given speech community.

Siu (2008) examined the pragmatic competence of Cantonese adult learners of English possessing different levels of proficiency when performing the speech act of requesting for a formal purpose in writing. Pragmatic judgment – one of the two aspects of pragmatic competence was examined by studying the most proficient group, whereas pragmatic performance – the other aspect of pragmatic competence – was examined by studying the two weaker groups (i.e., university students at two language proficient levels). Both pragmatic judgment and pragmatic performance were examined by investigating the same four dependent variables (i.e., politeness, directness, formality, and amount of information). Some major findings indicate that, as the English proficiency of L2 learners improves from Grade E to Grade A/B, their pragmatic performance shows improvement.

Borer (2018) disputed two parts of pragmatic: the linguistic or language portion and the context. The linguistic aspect during a discourse event is the actual utterances that occur including the words and their semantic meanings along with grammar or syntax, whereas the context is the related environment, including any consequential factors at play during the discourse event, such as the people, place, culture, and time.

The key element of pragmatic competence is the context of utterance (interlocutor background knowledge, knowledge in other aspects of the spoken or a written document and the background experiences of interlocutor) (Rasheed & Khalil, 2020). Rasheed and Khalil (2020) further explained that the role performed, mentally, socially or culturally, by meaning in influencing decision-makers in the composition and creation of text, is performed by readers.

Phaisarnsitthikarn (2020) utilised a mixed-methods study to examine the effect of studying abroad on the development of pragmatic competence by Thai learners of English. Drawing on Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory as a theoretical framework, the study focuses on the production of speech acts of request. Quantitative methods were employed to analyse six aspects of requests: request perspectives, request strategies, internal modifications, request structures, alerters, and supportive moves. Follow-up questionnaires included in the EDCT, and semi-structured interviews provided insights into the participants' perceptions regarding their request production and L2 development. The results revealed linguistic and cultural differences between the learners' L1 and L2 communities. Interview data showed that studying abroad learners generally held a very positive view of the impact of study abroad on their pragmatic development, citing confidence gains resulting from the greater number of real-world interactions as a catalyst for this development. These findings

of study abroad can also be a case in L2 learners in a native country when they meet from different communities and cultural backgrounds.

Studies conducted by Bardovi-Harlig (1999, 2001), have indicated that language learners with high levels of grammatical competence do not necessarily exhibit high levels of pragmatic competence. The findings suggest that performance on measures of grammatical ability would not significantly predict performance on communicative tasks.

2.3.1 Politeness

Politeness is an important facet of pragmatic awareness. Language as a means of expressing politeness have continuously been in the focus of linguists and educators, who have been trying to search for universal ideas in order to contribute to developing communication at various levels and in many areas (Ivashchyshyn & Kashchyshyn, 2020). Rashid et al. (2016) are of the view that politeness plays a crucial role in all cultures and societies for maintaining relationships and for face saving; although how it functions and is realised varies from one culture to another.

Politeness in sociolinguistic and pragmatics is defined as:

A term which characterises linguistic features mediating norms of social behaviour, in relation to such notions as courtesy, rapport, deference and distance. Such features include the use of special discourse markers (please), appropriate tones of voice and acceptable forms of address (e.g., the choice of intimate v. distant pronouns, or of first v. last names) (Crystal, 2008, p. 373).

Lakoff (1973, 1975) is one of the first scholar to pay a special focus on linguistic politeness in the pragmatic sense where he described politeness as “a means of reducing friction in personal communication” (1975, p. 64). According to Lakoff, “the pillars of our linguistic as well as non-linguistic interactions with each

other are to (1) make yourself clear (2) be polite" (as cited in Schauer, 2009, p. 10). Understanding how context, including the social distance between the speaker and hearer, impacts the appropriateness of various language expressions and forms is the first of Lakoff's rules. The second rule relates to giving options in communication to demonstrate respect for the listener. This can be done by using hedges and tag questions to lessen the force or imposition of an utterance. The third rule is to use phrasal like "I mean" and "you know" to establish a sense of solidarity between the speaker and listener. These provide a practical function in that they can be applied to make a statement more acceptable inside a specific situation that necessitates a display of closeness or solidarity.

One example of social distance and power awareness is the display of respect or deference in student-lecturer relationships, which is based on the idea that a lecturer naturally has some authority and is thus socially distant from a student. On the other hand, the student sets the lecturer in a position that necessitates some kind of power.

Fraser (1990) outlines four major perspectives on what constitutes politeness: the social-norm view; the conversational-maxim view (Grice, 1975; Lakoff, 1973; Leech, 1983); the face-saving view (Brown & Levinson, 1987); and the conversational-contract view (Fraser, 1975) (cited in Ciftci, 2015). It was Brown and Levinson (1978) who greatly developed the politeness theory, but the commencement was Grice's Cooperation Principle model which requires that to be polite participants in a conversation should not lose face. In Cooperative Principle (CP), Grice (1975) offers new insights into pragmatics. The theory is based on the realization that communication is a cooperative effort between the speaker and the hearer or recipient. The speaker must choose his words so that the hearer can understand the intent, and the latter must try to figure out what the former meant. Grice's theory thus emphasizes the social and

contextual aspects of discourse (Omar, Ilyas, & Kassem, 2018). Grice's Cooperative principle is based on four categories: quantity, quality, relation, and manner.

Leech (1983) also asserts that politeness can be investigated in terms of the pragmatic theory and Grice's Cooperative Principle. The basic assumption of Leech's theory is that participants in an interaction tend to maintain an atmosphere of relative harmony by employing politeness maxims. In a more sensible manner, Leech explains that a successful interaction requires from speakers to maximize politeness forms and minimize impoliteness forms. Modesty and agreement are examples of polite forms while orders or commands are examples of impolite forms (Bublitz & Norrick, 2011). According to Leech (1983), it could be argued that the (Politeness Principle) has a higher regulatory role than (the Cooperative Principle): to maintain the social equilibrium and the friendly relations which enables us to assume that our interlocutors are being cooperative in the first place.

Leech postulates seven maxims, all of which are related to the notion of cost and benefit: tact, generosity, approbation, modesty, agreement, sympathy, and consideration.

1. Tact concerns minimizing cost and maximizing benefit to the hearer. Two sub maxims are observed as we try to be tactful in communication: we try to minimize cost to the others, and we try to maximize benefit to others.
2. Generosity tells people to minimize their own benefit, while maximizing that of the hearer. In this maxim, we try to be generous in a communication in a way that we try to minimize the benefit to self and maximize the cost to self.
3. Approbation involves minimizing dispraise and maximizing praise of the hearer. In thus maxim, we try to be approbation in communicating in a way that we try to minimize dispraise of others and we try to maximize praise of others.

4. Modesty concerns minimizing self-praise and maximizing self-dispraise.
5. Agreement is about minimizing disagreement between self and other. We all try to be agreeable to one another in a dialogue.
6. Sympathy warns to minimize antipathy and maximize sympathy between self and other.
7. Finally, consideration concerns minimizing the hearer's discomfort/displeasure and maximizing the hearer's comfort/pleasure.

Each maxim has a sub-maxim, not all the maxims are equally significant, and speakers can follow more than one politeness maxim at once, according to Leech (1983). He also acknowledges that the significance of the maxims may differ from culture to culture.

Leech (1983) claims that the semantic politeness scale registers degrees of politeness in terms of the lexicogrammatical form and semantic interpretation of the utterance and further illustrate that the more a request offers choice to the hearer, the more polite it is. On the other hand, pragmatic politeness is less formal which refers to 'politeness relative to norms in each society, group, or situation, it is sensitive to context, and is a bi-directional scale. Hence it is possible that a form considered more polite, is judged less polite relative to the norms for the situation. Pragmatic politeness is a scale that registers 'over politeness,' 'under politeness,' as well as 'politeness appropriate to the situation' (as cited in Qari, 2017)

In his Framework, Leech (1983) put forward another prominent aspect of distinction between two distinct types of politeness: semantic (originally termed as absolute politeness) and pragmatic (originally termed relative politeness). Absolute politeness describes various degrees at which politeness can be expressed. This can involve minimizing the impoliteness of what are seen as impolite illocutions, such as requests, or maximizing the politeness of what are seen as polite illocutions, such as compliments. Relative politeness,

on the other hand relates to the judgment of how politeness is appropriately expressed within a particular community or culture and within a particular context.

Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) rely their explanation of politeness theory on Goffman's notion of 'face'. Face is defined as "the public self-image that every individual member wants to claim for himself" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 311). They identified two components of face, 'negative face' and 'positive face.' Positive face is the desire to show involvement with others while on the other hand, negative face is the desire not to offend others (Crystal, 2008). In any interaction, face must be constantly addressed as it can be lost, maintained, or enhanced.

Furthermore, Brown and Levinson (1987) made a distinction of threatening acts of positive and negative politeness. They regard face-threatening acts (FTAs) as those acts which run contrary to the addressee's and/or the speaker's positive and/or negative 'face'. According to them, requests, orders, threats, suggestions and advice are examples of acts which represent a threat to 'negative face' since the speaker will be putting some pressure on the addressee to do or refrain from doing a specific act. They further stated that, expressing thanks and accepting offers could be regarded to threaten the speaker's 'negative face'. On the other hand, they asserts that, apologies and accepting compliments are seen as FTAs to the speaker's 'positive face' since in the first case, the speaker will be indicating that s/he regrets doing a prior FTA and thus s/he will be damaging his/her own face; in the second case the speaker might feel that s/he has to reciprocate the compliment in one way or another.

In addition, Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 102) propose three board strategies of positive politeness: claim common ground, convey that the speaker and the hearer are co-operators, and fulfil the hearer's wants for some X. In claiming common ground, they state that both of the speaker and the hearer share the

same specific wants, goals, or values. Thus, the speaker may perform the claim by stating that he or she also feels interested in the hearer's wants. The second main strategy of positive politeness is conveying that the speaker and the hearer are co-operators. It implies that they are involved in the same interest, so they share the same goals. As a result, this strategy can improve the hearer's positive face. The last strategy on positive politeness is complying with the hearer's wants for some X. Satisfying the hearer's positive face is the form of this strategy. It can be performed by fulfilling the hearer's wants directly such as by showing encouragement or giving items.

Brown and Levinson (1987) define negative politeness as 'redressive action' which is oriented to hearer's negative face. This strategy aims to reduce the interference with the hearer's freedom of action. The speaker can perform this strategy by being indirect, using hedges, conveying pessimism in the utterance to express doubt, reducing the imposition, or giving respect to the hearer (Brown & Levinson, 1987). When the speaker is socially distant or feels awkward towards the hearer, he or she will usually employ this strategy.

Brown and Levinson (1987) focused on three social factors that speakers should consider when interacting with each other. They are: 1) power, 2) social distance, and 3) the degree of imposition. Power refers to the social status of both speaker and hearer. Social distance is defined as the factor that indicates the degree to which interlocutors are familiar with each other. The degree of imposition indicates the rank that an addresser enjoys and his ability to impose his ideas and desires on others (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Ivashchyshyn and Kashchyshyn (2020), argued that most researchers agree that the processes of verbalization of politeness help in understanding the communicants and play a leading role in achieving

successful results of communication. Therefore, verbalization of politeness directly belongs to the dominant components of communicative acts. The concept of politeness is crucial in interpreting why people choose to say ideas in a particular way in spoken or written discourse, and why they flout a maxim and express an illocutionary act indirectly rather than directly. It can be said that academic discourse maintains a certain standard of decency and that results in the use of less face-threatening acts by phrasing statements in a more polite way (David, 2009).

Overall, any statement made during a social engagement has the potential to endanger the addressee's ability to maintain their positive or negative faces. To avoid face-threatening activities, participants instead use politeness techniques. Speech act theory and politeness complement each other.

2.3.2 Speech Acts

The desire to be polite also influences what kind of politeness strategy one decides to use, and these strategies are referred to as speech acts. Thus, one may choose an indirect speech act instead of a direct one in order to be more polite (Leech, 1983). Leech called this the metalinguistic use of politeness in speech acts. Whether the meaning a certain speech act conveys is polite or impolite is very much dependent on the contextual circumstances in which they are uttered (Demeter, 2006). It is for this reason that politeness should be studied alongside speech act as the main theories of pragmatics.

Nakale (2018) put forward what she claims to be 'a powerful statement' presented by Yule (1996) which states that "when people try to express themselves, they do not simply produce utterances that contain grammatical structures and words, however, actions are performed through those utterances"(as cited in Nakale, 2008). Martínez-Flor and Beltrán-Palanques (2014) claim that performing speech acts appropriately involves having a good command of pragmatic expertise to succeed in communication. A

speech act can be defined as a linguistic action, or an utterance that serves a function in communication. Mühlhäusler and Harré argued that “It (speech act) can exist only if there is a match between manifested intention and a display of uptake, either in non-verbal reaction to what has been said or more often in what another speaker says next. Speech acts then are created by the joint action of the participants in a conversation” (1990, as cited in Vitale, 2009).

The concept of speech acts was developed from the work of Austin (1962), who described a performative aspect of language, emphasizing that speech can represent not only the act of communicating meaning but also the act of performing an action (Phaisarnsitthikarn, 2020). Austin specifies three ways an utterance can do something.

1. *Locution* - using a sentence to *mean* something in a certain context. The physical uttering of a statement
2. *Illocution* - using a sentence to *alter* (in a kind of legal way) the state of affairs. The contextual function of the act.
3. *Perlocution* - using a sentence to *affect* the audience. The impact of the first speaker’s utterance on the next speaker.

Ambroise, (2010) gave a clear example of a promise. The locution is the fact that I said I promised to go early to bed. The illocution is the fact that I promised to go early to bed. The perlocution is the fact that, by promising, I may have reassured my parents. These are three modalities of the act of saying but the most important one is the generalized illocutionary aspect implying that any utterance is conventionally determined.

Austin focused mainly on illocutionary act which is mainly indicated by both the lexical and the modal conventions. The lexical part relates to the simply locutionary part operating on the level of the lexis, while the modal aspect operates on the level of the mood of the sentence such as offers, apologies, requests, complaints, invitations, etc. and classified them into five categories:

- 1 **verdictives** (estimating, appraising),
- 2 **exercitives** (ordering, advising, warning),
- 3 **commissives** (promising, declaring),
- 4 **behatives** (apologizing, congratulating), and
- 5 **expositive** (I reply, I argue, I concede) (Qari, 2017).

Bach, (2003) argued that if each type of illocutionary act is distinguishable by the type of attitude expressed, there is no need to invoke the notion of convention to explain how a particular act can succeed. An illocutionary act succeeds if the hearer recognizes the attitude being expressed, such as a belief in the case of a statement and a desire in the case of a request.

Three social considerations that speakers should keep in mind while engaging with one another are used to narrow down the options among the solutions proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987). The first factor is the speaker's relative "power" over the listener (P), which is related to both parties' social standing as indicated in. (Al-Dulaimi, p. 264).

Al-Dulaimi further explained that social distance (D) is the second component; it refers to how near the participants are to one another and affects which politeness technique is most effective while interacting. Last but not least, the rank of imposition or degree of imposition (R), which is "the rank that an addresser enjoys and his ability to impose his ideas and desires on others.

Furthermore Ambrose (2010) presumes that the account of utterances as speech acts also implies that speech has conditions of use determined by the felicity conditions. A felicity condition is circumstances not fulfilled when the content of a sentence is true but when the circumstances are adequate for using it. Each speech act such as promises, declaration statements, etc., has particular felicity conditions which are conventionally and contextually determined. Thus, Austin has shown that every utterance has presuppositions, implications and commitments.

Searle developed a speech act theory following Austin's work, which is based on the premise that language is a form of rule-governed behaviour. He hypothesized that speech acts are characteristically performed by uttering expressions in accordance with certain constitutive rules. He distinguished between regulative rules (which regulate existing forms of behaviour) and constitutive rules (which not only merely regulate but also create or define new forms of behaviour) (1969, cited in Bataineh & Bataineh, 2006).

Just like Austin (1962), Searle (1969) also had his own categories of speech acts:

1. **Representatives:** These are assertions which represent the state of affairs, or as Mey (1993) claims, they represent reality. Speakers' purpose in performing representatives is to commit themselves to the belief that the propositional content of the utterance is true.
2. **Commissives:** These acts commit the speaker, at varying degrees, to some particular future course of action. Remarkably similar to Austin's class of the same name, these acts place obligations on the speaker. They may be in the form of promises, offers, threats and vows.
3. **Directives:** These speech acts are intended to get the listener to conduct an action. These include commands, requests, invitations, dares and challenges.

4. **Expressives:** These are speech acts which indicate the speaker's psychological state of mind or attitude to some prior action or situation. They are seen in greetings, apologies, congratulations, condolences, and expressions of giving thanks.
5. **Declaratives or Performatives:** These utterances are those which bring about the state of affairs that they name. They take the form of blessings, christenings, weddings, firing and so on. Declaratives are typically broadcast within a social group and rely for their success on a speaker being sanctioned by the community, institution, committee or even a single person in the group to perform such acts under stipulated specialised conditions. Provided the stipulated conditions are met the act is deemed to have been successful.

Through these categories the researcher can better understand language users' discourse meaning and communicative intentions in social interaction (Yuan, 2012). Borer (2018) defined speech acts as utterances or a string of utterances (the uttering of a string of morphemes, words, or sentences) that consist of a propositional meaning or locutionary act, an illocutionary force, and a perlocutionary force.

2.3.3 The speech acts of 'REQUESTS'

Requests are the most common studied types of speech act. Requests are fascinating since they are speech patterns that speakers of the target language, students in particular cannot avoid using. Requests are communicative acts in which one person asks another to take some sort of action (e.g., give information, make an appointment, or share an object, etc.) (Qari, 2017). Looking at Searle's categories of speech acts, directives are those speech acts whose function is to get the hearer to do something. As attempts on the part of a speaker to get the hearer to perform or stop performing some kind of action, requests are therefore labelled as directives.

By making a request, the speaker may threaten the hearer's negative face by intending to impede the hearer's 'freedom of action,' and runs the risk of losing face him/herself, as the requestee may choose to

refuse to comply with his/her wishes (Brown & Levinson, 1987: 65). For a successful performance of a request, Searle (1979) proposes a few conditions that need to be met:

- 1- Preparatory condition: H is able to perform the act;
- 2- Sincerity condition: S wants H to do the act;
- 3- Propositional content condition: S predicates a future act of H;
- 4- Essential condition: counts as an attempt by S to get H to do the act. (as cited in Qari, 2017).

Directly expressing the illocutionary force of requests could be regarded as unfriendly, which makes it less likely that the hearer will comply with the request. The employment of politeness methods is essential when making requests since they might be seen as restrictions on the hearer's freedom of action. Speakers utilize these techniques to lessen the negative effects of their requests. There are various approaches to making the request, and the degree of directness used will influence how graciously the request is delivered.

Blum-Kulka and Olshtain specified three levels of directness that could be seen as universal:

1. Explicit level, the most direct form of request, which includes imperatives.
2. Conventionally indirect level, which includes contextualized predictions that include could and would in the request form.
3. Nonconventional indirect level in which the request will be made more as a hint.

2.3.4 The speech acts of 'APOLOGIES'

There are a variety of reasons why a speaker could feel the need to apologize to their listeners. An apology is typically a post-event act, which means it happens after the social norm has been broken. An apology can be used to express regret, describe what happened, make amends for the crime, and guarantee that it won't happen again. Goffman views apologies as "remedial interchanges," in other words, remedial

work which aims at re-establishing social harmony after a real or virtual offence has been performed. He classifies apologies into two categories: Category one is that of those which redress virtual offences, generally remedied by offering an apologetic formula, and the other is those which redress real damage on the addressee, apart from requiring an apologetic formula they may also include an offer of material compensation (1971, as cited in Thijittang, 2010).

Borer (2018) argued that an apology is a face-threatening act (FTA) for both the speaker and the hearer, making it both a good and a negative face-saving tactic. Negative face is the desire to be autonomous and/or not be forced, whereas positive face is the desire to belong to a community. An apology is often given in attempt to preserve face when a speaker makes a social faux pas that damages their reputation. An effective apology restores the speaker's good reputation and wins back the listener's favour. According to Cohen et al. (1986) the semantic formulae or strategies for offering an apology are predictable and common across languages and cultures. An apology routine follows a certain pattern and depending on contextual factors can be shorter or longer in length. The speech act set for apologies are divided into the following speech events as according to Leech (2014).

(a) **head act**: the apology itself (IFID), e.g.: (I'm) (so) sorry. . .

Another component of speech act realizations, in CCSARP, is the occurrence of modifiers which qualify the meaning of the speech event especially by intensifying or softening its force in some degree.

An adverb like very or terribly can obviously function as a modifier intensifying the apology, as in I'm very sorry; I'm terribly sorry. This is an example of positive politeness. But in speech events of negative politeness, such as requests, the modifier is more likely to be a hedge or downgrader: Could I just have a little slice?

These intensifiers, downgraders, and the like are known as internal modifiers because they are syntactically incorporated into the main components of the apology. 2 There are also external modifiers: CCSARP applies this term, for example, to exclamatory elements such as Oh dear! (preceding apologies) or (in requests) alerters such as Excuse me or vocatives such as Barry, love. These usually stand apart from the head act, either preceding or following it, being syntactically describable as isolates. However, they can still contribute to the politeness of the speech event, by adding attitudinal or emotive meaning.

In addition, an apology may be accompanied by satellite speech events:

(b) **a confession, or admission of responsibility** for the fault, such as (I'm sorry,) I lied.

(c) **an explanation** of why or how the fault occurred: (Well I'm sorry it's been such a mess.) It is just, this, this whole magazine this year, I mean we've had to rely on so many other folks, you know. (Goffman 1971: 109–115 refers to such explanations or excuses as “accounts”.)

(d) **an offer of repair** (or making amends): making sure the fault is to be corrected or a remedy applied, e.g., (after spilling something) (Rachel, I'm sorry I'm leaving this here.) I will tidy it up.

(e) **promise of forbearance** (making amends in the longer term by undertaking to do better on future occasions): (Right, right, so I'm very sorry.) I won't do it again next year.

There are extra apologetic techniques that can be utilized to make the apology sequence more intense in English and other languages. These intensifiers have characteristics such as self-deficiency expression (I'm so forgetful), explicit self-blame (I'm such a dummy!), the use of adverbs (I'm really sorry and I'm very sorry), repetition of multiple intensifiers (I'm so very, very sorry), explicit concern for the listener (Are you okay?), and the use of multiple intensifying techniques (I'm so sorry! Are you okay? Really, I'm sorry. The last possible tactic is that the person apologizing denies any wrongdoing. So, it is imperative to make the

right linguistic decisions when making an apology in the L2 requires and an understanding of apologetic routines and their relationship to potential contextual elements.

2.3.5 The speech acts of 'COMPLAINTS'

Complaint is one of the speaking behaviours that could lead to a breakdown in communication. When a complainer offers unfavourable opinions on an event that the addressee caused in the past, it threatens their positive face. A complaint is the illocutionary act which included in expressive classification (Searle, 1979; Trosborg, 1995) cited in (Astia, 2020). The four sections of the complaint categories are outlined by Trosborg (1995).

The four sections are: (1) no explicit reproach; (2) expression of irritation or disapprobation; (3) allegation; and (4) blame. Trosborg then divided the four complaint types into eight smaller groups known as "strategies." The first category is no explicit reproach, which refers to complaints that do not explicitly explain what is offensive and do not do so. It has a plan 1 hints. Expressions of irritation or disapproval fall into the second group. The complainers can express their annoyance, displeasure, distaste, or many other emotions regarding a certain scenario that they feel to be detrimental to them (Trosborg, 1995). It has a 1. plan, 2. anger and tactic, 3. repercussions. The third type of accusation is that the complainers have established the complainees as the complainable party.

As complaining is commonly face-threatening, complainers could use politeness strategies if they intend to save complainees' face or at least to mitigate the severity of their complaints (Wijayanto, Laila, Prasetyarini, & Susiati, 2013). Monzoni (2008) distinguishes two types of complaints, namely direct and indirect complaints. Direct complaints are those in which the complainant addresses the individual she believes to be (at least partially) accountable for the undesirable behaviour directly. Contrarily, indirect complaints are ones in which the complainant airs their dissatisfaction to a recipient whom they do not hold accountable for the undesirable behaviour.

Traverso, (2008) additionally distinguished two types of complaints: “complaints about the recipient”, comparable to Monzoni’s direct complaints, and “third-party complaints”, which are defined according to their core features. The first core feature is that in a third-party complaint, the speaker expresses feelings of discontent about what she considers to be a “complainable matter”. This complainable subject relates to a third party, typically a person other than the addressee(s), but it may also be a fact, an object, or a situation.

2.4 Syntax level and politeness

Politeness purposes may be consummated phonologically, lexically and/or syntactically in language use. According to Qizi (2020), the production of an interesting and understandable conversation requires strict structure, in other politer way, general principle of language use referred to as cooperative principle. The cooperative principle (CP) allows one participant in a conversation to communicate on the assumption that the other participant is being cooperative. In this, the CP has the function of regulating what we say so that it contributes to some assumed illocutionary or discoursal goods (Qizi, 2020).

Yule (1996) defined syntax as “the study of the relationships between linguistic forms, how they are arranged in sequence, and which sequences are well-formed, which only takes place without considering any world of reference or any user of the forms”(p.5). Several syntactic strategies are discussed by Brown and Levinson (1978) which allow participants to achieve positive and negative politeness in conversations. These, according to Subbarao, et al., (1991) include the use of inclusive pronouns, passives, exaggerated statements, questions, repetition, ellipsis, etc. At syntactical level, pragmatic analysis can be verbalized structure of a sentence which is delivering as message by addresser to addressee.

Qizi (2020), presented what he calls “elements of politeness at syntactic level”. These include the use of subjunctive mood instead of imperative mood, interrogative sentence instead of affirmative one, passive voice instead of active, impersonal structure instead of personal structure, affirmatives instead of negatives and all of them serve to be politer ways of delivering a message. *The subjunctive mood* is the verb form used to express a wish, a suggestion, a command, or a condition that is contrary to fact. This element is used to avoid directness which is impolite than indirectness. Also, according to (Leech, 1983), one may choose an indirect speech act instead of a direct one in order to be more polite. Instead of saying: Open the door!

It would be better if you open the door.

Another example, instead of “Help me!”

I would be thankful, if you help me (Qizi, 2020)

Another element postulated by Qizi (2020) is the use of *interrogative sentence for affirmative one*. According to the principle of politeness, interrogative sentences are considered as politer than affirmatives. Affirms such as commands, can be made sound politer by using either a low rising tone or words, phrases and structures like "please; I'm afraid; I think; perhaps; don't you think; I (don't) want you to...; I (don't) expect you to...; would you like; would you, please; ..., will you; ..., could you; what if...; let's/let's not." *Affirmatives instead of negatives* - Affirmatives refers to any positive statements and negative sentences that are formed with can't and won't make the speaker sound particularly negative and unhelpful and can often be rephrased with be able to, or a similar expression:

I am unhappy with this agreement.

I am not entirely happy with this agreement.

Impersonal structure instead of personal structure - The verbs think, believe, demand, advice, say, report, know, expect, consider, and understand etc. are used in the following passive patterns in personal and impersonal constructions.

Passive voice instead of active -This active voice sentence is brutally direct and if your aim is to avoid confrontation then you might consider using the passive voice to lessen the emotional impact of the sentence. Syntactic strategies include question forms, conditional clauses, modals, the subjunctive mood, epistemic hedges—such as ‘I think’, ‘we assume’ (Xiang, et al., 2020).

Lexical pragmatics is a branch of linguistics that investigates the processes by which linguistically specified (‘literal’) word meanings are modified in use (Wilson, 2003). He also identified lexic-pragmatic processes such narrowing, approximation and metaphorical extension and view these as outcomes of a single pragmatic process which fine-tunes the interpretation of virtually every word.

Blutner and Solstad (2014) Pointed out that situated meanings of many words and simple phrases are combinations of their lexical meanings proper and some superimposed conversational implicatures. They further stated that the basic approach of lexical pragmatics combines the idea of (lexical) under specification with a theory of pragmatic strengthening. Syntax is defined by (Crystal, 2008) as the study of the rules governing the way words are combined to form sentences in a language. In this use, syntax is opposed to morphology, the study of word structure.

2.5 Communicative competence

Communicating effectively in a language requires the speaker’s good understanding of linguistic, sociolinguistic and socio-cultural aspects of that language. This understanding will enable him to use them right language in the right context for the right purpose and then he can be referred to as communicatively competent (Saleh, 2013). According to Junaidi, (2017), linguistic elements in language use are created by

language users and represent their linguistic and communication proficiency. The first one depends on how well-versed the speakers are in language grammars such syntax, phonology, morphology, and semantics. However, not possessing these skills does not preclude the speakers from using the language correctly. According to the latter, speakers must understand how to use language, when to use a specific feature, and with whom they are expected to use a given feature. In particular, they need to be communicatively competent in order to utilize the language properly.

A number of research papers have investigated the question of communicative competence and how it should be defined. The notion of 'communicative competence' was introduced by Dell Hymes (1972). Hymes' (1972) introduction of communicative competence widely acknowledged that teaching and learning languages involves far more than targeting grammatical or lexical systems. He defined communicative competence not only as an inherent grammatical competence, but also as the ability to use grammatical competence in a variety of communicative situations (as cited in Taghizadeh, 2017). Hymes introduced communicative competence after Chomsky's 'linguistic competence' which refers to the native speaker's implicit knowledge of the grammatical rules governing her or his language. Hymes argued that effective communication does not only require the speaker to know grammatical rules only, but they also had to learn what was communicatively appropriate in a given context.

According to Lebedev et al. (2021), communicative pragmatics is defined as "the ability to correlate communicative intentions with linguistic means at the receptive and reproductive levels in order to have an impact and be effective in everyday communication." In EFL contexts, the goals of a language teaching should be designed to meet the needs of the language learners to help them develop and improve their communicative competencies both spoken and written (Hamdany, 2019).

Chomsky, Hymes and Canale and Swain contributed to the development of the term communicative competence. It is also pivotal to mention other authors who have made a significant contribution to the development of communicative competence such as: Campbell and Wales (1970); Sauvignon (1972, 1983); Widdowson and Munby (1978); Canale and Swain (1980); Bachman (1990).

Canale and Swain (1980) their concept of 'communicative competence' refers to "the relationship and interaction between grammatical competence, or knowledge of the rules of grammar, and sociolinguistic competence, or knowledge of rules of language use" (as cited in Saleh, 2013). Canale and Swain's model of 'communicative competence' embodies four domains of knowledge and skills. They are 'grammatical competence', 'sociolinguistic competence', 'strategic competence' and 'discourse competence' (which was later added by Canale, 1983).

Grammatical competence - Entails command over the language code's solely linguistic components. This involves lexical, syntactic, phonological, and semantic understanding. This competency focuses specifically on the knowledge and abilities needed to comprehend and effectively communicate the literal meaning of utterances.

Sociolinguistic competence - This component comprises both sociocultural use guidelines and discourse conventions. Concerning sociocultural rules of use, this competence is related to the idea of how well utterances are produced and understood in various sociolinguistic contexts depending on contextual factors like the status of participants, the objectives of the interaction, and the norms or conventions of interaction. This competency focuses on the degree to which specific linguistic functions and ideas such as complaining, requesting and apologising, are thought to be appropriate in a particular circumstance.

Strategic competence - This competency consists of an understanding of the verbal and nonverbal communication techniques that may be used for two main purposes:

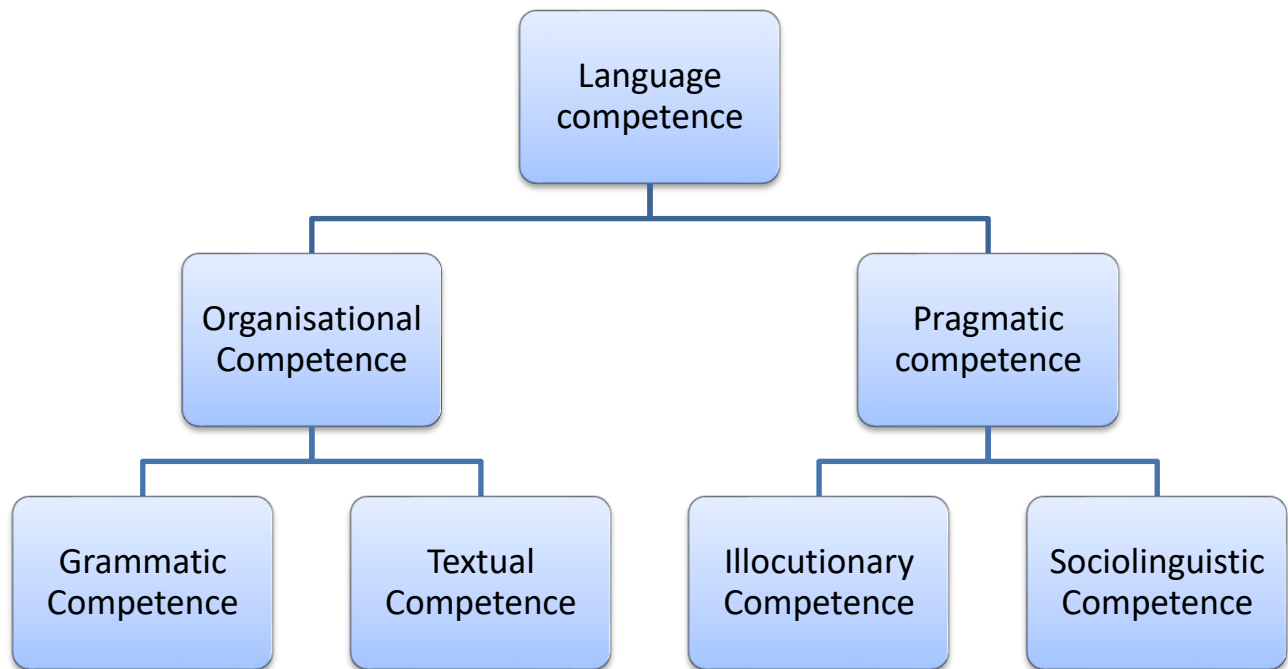
- To make up for communication errors.
- To make communication more efficient.

It basically refers to the kind of knowledge a speaker requires to keep up a conversation with a listener.

Discourse competence -This level of proficiency focuses on the mastery of combining grammatical forms and meanings to produce a coherent spoken or written text across genres. The terms cohesion and coherence, which are crucial for tying together ideas in a discourse and defining the relationship between the various meanings in a text, respectively, must be kept in mind in order to reach this competence.

Bachman (1990) proposed a concept of communicative competence ability (CLA) which he refers it to be similar to communicative competence by (Hymes 1972, 1973; Munby 1978; Canale and Swain 1980; Sauvignon 1983; Canale, 1983) that he described as consisting of both knowledge, or competence, and the capacity for implementing, or executing that competence in appropriate, contextualized communicative language use (Bachman, 1990). He proposed the following three elements for a CLA framework: language competence, strategic competence, and psychophysiological mechanisms (Bachman, 1990).

In his framework, Bachman (1990) classified 'language competence' into 'organizational competence' and 'pragmatic competence'. Organizational competence comprises of grammatical and textual competences in which they are defined as abilities involved in controlling the formal structure of language for producing or recognising grammatically correct sentences, comprehending their propositional content, and ordering them to form texts (Bachman, 1990).



Bachman's Model of Language Competence (1990)

As it can be seen, pragmatic competencies is further divided into illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence, whereby illocutionary competence enables us to use language to express a wide range of functions, and to interpret the illocutionary force of utterances or discourse whereas 'sociolinguistic competence' is the sensitivity to, or control of the conventions of language use that are determined by the features of the specific language use context; it enables us to perform language functions in ways that are appropriate to that context (Bachman, 1990).

The framework or model proposed by Littlewood (2011) is the final and most recent one to be examined here. He further extends the Canale and Swains (1980) and Canale (1983) model by including a fifth component. According to Littlewood's framework, effective communication includes the following elements: Linguistic competence; discourse competence; pragmatic competence; sociolinguistic competence and sociocultural competence.

Littlewood (2011)'s definition of linguistic competence is not different from Canale and Swain's as it also involves an understanding of the vocabulary, grammar, semantics, and phonology, which have traditionally considered the main areas of study for second languages. Discourse competency permits speakers to engage in continuous discourse, for example, by connecting ideas in lengthier written texts, maintaining longer spoken turns, participating in interaction, beginning discussions, and closing them. Pragmatic competence on the other hand is the ability to communicate and interpret meanings in real-world contexts, even those where knowledge gaps provide challenges, in second language speakers while sociolinguistic competence is the ability to use language effectively in social contexts, such as through expressing the appropriate levels of formality, directness, and other characteristics. Finally, sociocultural competence is being aware of cultural knowledge and presumptions that influence meaning-exchange and may result in misunderstandings in cross-cultural communication.

Furthermore, Celce-Murcia et.al, (1995) in their model made an expansion on discourse competence. Discourse competence is concerned with the choice, sequencing, and organization of words, structures, sentences, and utterances in order to create a coherent spoken or written text. The following are the sub-areas that go into discourse competence:

Cohesion is the area of discourse competence connected to linguistic competence. It deals with text-generating elements like pronouns, demonstratives, and articles that indicate textual co-reference in both written and spoken conversation.

Deixis, is a component of discourse competency, connects situational context with the conversation by helping people understand deictic personal pronouns (I, you), spatial references (here, there), temporal references (now, then), and specific textual references (the following example, the chart above).

Coherence involves the use of linguistic cues, such as the usage of cohesive devices that help discourse stay cohesive. It also involves sequencing or arranging propositional structures that consider social relationships, shared knowledge, and genre, as well as lexical or semantic repetition.

Generic structure is an object of concern in discourse analysis in various types of spoken and written texts as every language has its formal schemata. This also applies to a wide range of genres, both spoken

conversational structure is the element of communicative competence which refers to how to initiate a discussion, shift topics, interrupt, and other aspects of the turn-taking system in oral conversation and written, with distinct frameworks (Celce-Murcia, 1995).

Although there are some minor terminological changes, all communicative models refer to the same broad ideas, and over time, researchers have worked to improve and develop the models put forth by earlier scholars. These communicative competency models all have discourse or textual component, which is another thing they have in common. This textual or discourse component suggests that a CLT teacher should be able to create and comprehend cohesive and coherent texts both orally and in writing and should support his students in acquiring these skills as well. Discourse is an integral part of this study and therefore singled out together with sociolinguistic or sociocultural competences as they are crucial for students to acquire pragmatic competence.

Richards, Platt & Weber (1985) cited in (Taghizadeh, 2017) put forward the characteristics of communicative competence as follows:

Communicative competence includes: (a) Knowledge of the grammar and vocabulary of the language; (b) knowledge of rules of speaking knowing how to begin and end conversations, knowing what topics can be talked about in different types of speech events, knowing which address forms he should use with different persons one speaks to and in different situations; (c) Knowing how to use and respond to

different types of speech acts such as requests, apologies, thanks and invitations. (d) Knowing how to use language appropriately.

Blutner and Solstad (2014) Pointed out that situated meanings of many words and simple phrases are combinations of their lexical meanings proper and some superimposed conversational implicatures. They further stated that the basic approach of lexical pragmatics combines the idea of (lexical) under specification with a theory of pragmatic strengthening.

Alakrash and Bustan (2020) opine that one of the most essential utility of languages in interaction is the 'politeness strategies' use, which is likely to differ from one language to another besides from one culture to another. Students, in their academic interactions produce utterances that are not clear. A study by Muhammad and Nair (2017) affirms that majority of the ESL learners' face significant challenges in the areas of mechanical, grammatical, and sentence formations. Pragmatic instruction played a vital role in rising students' communicative competence in diverse contexts (Hussein, Albakri, & Seng, 2020). Effective communication can only take place when the message conveyed by the speaker is interpreted appropriately and understood by the hearer.

Lack of pragmatic competence in academic discourse, such as an inability to gain the floor or use appropriate functional language, may limit participation in discussions, which are an important part of the classroom experience in many English-medium educational institutions (Caprario, 2020). In his study Mahmud (2018), clarified that to communicate, people will not only pay attention to the content of information, but also the way of transferring it. This means that speakers should seek to create a comfortable communication by applying politeness strategies. Though it has been determined that the speakers of English as a foreign language employ an academic and formal register of English even while

speaking English when they are expected to use a colloquial register, yet it is still required and important to understand the linguistic choices made by undergraduate students while writing essays in English (Raheela & Mehvish, 2019).

According to Serratrice (2005), one of the necessary requirements to become a competent speaker of a language is the ability to control the relationship between the structural properties of sentences and the linguistic and extra-linguistic contexts in which they are used. Communication in academic setting requires student choosing not only well-structured sentences but also an excellent choice of words in different contextual situations.

Stilwell Peccei 1999; Yule 1996 made a similarity between pragmatic and discourse analysis:

Both pragmatics and discourse analysis study the meaning of words in context, analysing the parts of meaning that can be explained by knowledge of the physical and social world, and the socio-psychological factors influencing communication, as well as the knowledge of the time and place in which the words are uttered or written. (Stilwell Peccei 1999 & Yule 1996, as cited in Cutting, 2005).

Cutting (2005) made a further clarification that “both discourse analysis calls the quality of being ‘meaningful and unified’ coherence; pragmatics calls it relevance” (P. 2).

2.5.1 Discourse in pragmatics and communicative competence

At its most basic level, academic discourse refers to written and spoken language and communication in an academic context (Duff, 2010, as cited in Hagen, 2015). Academic discourse is a specialized type of discourse done in the academy a kind of language with its own lexicon, rules, sets of conventions, and modes of inquiry. Read et al. (2003) postulate that academic culture is comprised of, and influenced by, socially prevalent and culturally distinct discourses of knowledge, communication and practice in higher education. These dominant discourses constrain students’ perceptions of academia and what it means to

be a university student. These further limits how college students can think, speak, and write. In addition, students may have a sense of alienation and isolation in higher education due to their lack of familiarity with academic culture and its underlying power dynamics.

Students are "subordinate" in the academic hierarchy because of the status and knowledge gaps between lecturers and them, which creates a sense of "distance" between them. (Read et al., 2003). They further explained that, while the dominant academic culture may not agree with how students themselves view what it means to be a student, they embrace "the pragmatic practice of 'adapting' to this culture in order to achieve," thus engaging in the game of academia to further their own interests.

A grasp of how language operates in context is essential to comprehending the relationship between what is said and what is being understood in spoken discourse. The second feature that pragmatics and discourse analysis have in common is that they both look at discourse, or the use of language, and text, or pieces of spoken or written discourse, concentrating on how stretches of language become meaningful and unified for their users (Cook, 1989) (cited in Cutting, 2005). Cutting further asserts that discourse analysis calls the quality of being 'meaningful and unified' coherence; pragmatics calls it relevance. Politeness is very important for understanding why people choose to say things in a particular way in spoken discourse, and this involves choosing the appropriate politeness strategies as politeness varies from cultures to cultures.

Yule (1996) claims that within the study of discourse, the pragmatic perspective is more specialized. Yule (1996) explained that discourse tends to focus specifically on aspects of what is unsaid or unwritten (yet communicated) within the discourse being analysed. For pragmatics of discourse, one must go beyond the primarily social concerns of interaction and conversation analysis, look behind the forms and

structures present in the text, and pay much more attention to psychological concepts such as background knowledge, beliefs, and expectations. The pragmatics of discourse, explores what the speaker or writer has in mind. Blommaert (2011) agrees with Yule in his explanation that “different speech acts (asking, ordering, etc.) produced different illocutionary meanings, meanings that derived from the structure of the act itself, not from its linguistic form. To understand this process, however, we need to consider the total speech act in the total speech situation.”

2.6 Critical reviews of series of empirical studies related to this study

Even though there is a sizable body of research on many facets of L2 pragmatic competence, there are still very few studies examining the connection between L2 pragmatic and communicative competence. In Namibia to be specific, there are few studies done focusing on pragmatic competence compared to studies that focused on communicative competence. Being a culturally diverse nation, there are high chances of communication break down when it comes to academic interactions given that students hail from different cultural backgrounds. Most lectures at Namibian institutions are foreigners who are not accustomed to the natives and their cultures, so interaction of lectures and students also needs be carefully observed to avoid communication breakdowns.

Nakale (2017) conducted research analysing the pragmatic competence of students at the University of Namibia, where she looked at level of pragmatic competences through the tools of speech act refusal, speech act of compliment response, speech act of apologies whereby three sets of instruments, namely Written Discourse Completion Task, questionnaire and ELP test were used to assess the three speech acts. The study concluded that Speech act behaviour is influenced by a speaker’s first language and culture. Students transfer their first language socio-pragmatic and pragma-linguistic knowledge when they perform speech acts in a second language. Students with different linguistic proficiency transfer differently at the pragmatic level. The result of this study signifies that L1 play a significant role in students’

academic competence and different student who speak different languages may not have the same pragmatic competence due to this L1 transfer. Culture and society are some factors that do have a role to play in students' pragmatic competence. This assessment corresponds with Hamdani (2019) who also considered factors to affect pragmatic competence to be availability of input, influence of instruction, level of proficiency, length of exposure, and transfer.

Numerous academics have compared the ways in which native and non-native speakers convey disagreement. Qari (2017) conducted a study in which he explored similarities and differences in the realization patterns of requests and apologies between Saudi and British participants (cross-cultural variation), as well as between native and non-native speakers, in employing requests and apologies. Qari explored the pragmatic rules that govern Saudis' employment of requests and apologies relative to different social constraints (intralingual variation) (interlanguage variation). As with most studies on pragmatics, he used a discourse completion test in order to prompt the participants' intended speech act. However, his study differs in a way that it compared two groups whereby some are native speakers, and some are not native speakers. The Cross-Cultural Speech Act Research Project (CCSARP) request and apology coding systems were used in the analysis of the data, which was based on Brown and Levinson's politeness theory. Results revealed that the mean scores of the groups' strategy use in particular situations varied significantly from one another. Saudi men and women generally preferred to utilize direct techniques in their requests, whereas EFL and British groups were systematically more indirect, according to cross-cultural comparisons. However, the Saudis also employed the most modifiers, including prayers and religious softeners. On deeper examination, it appears that the Saudis' use of directness does not correlate to impoliteness, contrary to what Brown and Levinson claimed (1987). Instead, it may be the case that the Saudis tend to communicate polite forms by utilizing direct verbal means, attenuated by syntactic and linguistic strategies, whereas the British tend to do the opposite.

In another similar study (Srisuruk, 2011) examined the language use and specifically the level of politeness of Thai speakers of English related to their daily life and workplace: requests, complaints, and disagreements. Overall findings revealed that bald on record, positive politeness, and negative politeness are the most widely used strategies across all groups. Their study's participants' politeness selections partially reflected their professional identities. Due to these, his assertion was that the participants possess pragmatic competence in the setting of the "small culture" of the workplace through examination of the usage of negative and positive politeness for various scenarios and status levels. He further stated that sociological factors, such as power and social distance, have an impact on the speaker's use of language and politeness.

Yuan, (2012) investigated Chinese college students' English perception of pragmatics, their pragmatic competence in selected speech acts, strategies they employed in acquiring pragmatic knowledge as well as their general approach of learning English as a Foreign Language. The findings were that they displayed limited pragmatic knowledge despite they are advanced grammatically. His respondents believed that pragmatic knowledge and linguistic knowledge are equally important in acquiring communicative competence for interaction in different contexts. According to the study, there are many intercultural communication scenarios where pragmatic failures occur due to a lack of pragmatics, poor language materials, and a limited supply of language learning strategies.

Sánchez (2016) examined the pragmatic competence of Spanish advanced learners of English through the performance of requests and apologies. The study was interested in the communicative effect of the utterance whereby a group of British informants was required to evaluate their acceptability and/or offensiveness to ensure natural native speaker reactions to the utterances produced. The study concluded that pragmatic failure, which is unsuccessful communication caused by deficiencies in the students' pragmatic competence, which are not only related to cultural differences but also to personal traits.

A much more related study related to the present study is by Vitale (2009), which examined pragmatic and communicative competence in classroom instructions. Its main aim is to explore the aspects of experience and instruction and their degree of influence as they relate to the development of pragmatic competence. Pronominal address forms and verbal forms—two key facets of politeness—were scrutinized to gauge the learners' level of pragmatic proficiency. According to the study's findings, learners who have had more exposure to the language, experience, or explicit classroom instruction may not necessarily be more pragmatically competent than those who have not, which demonstrate that grammatical and pragmatic skills might develop differently and at varying rates.

2.7. Research gap

The field of pragmatic study in Namibia has not received much attention. Few studies that are carried out focused on pragmatic analysis of students' performance (Krishnamurthy, Ithindi, Brewis, & Eiseb, 2009); a critical analysis of students' pragmatic competence (Nakale, 2017) and an interlanguage pragmatics investigation of lecturer and student interactions (Mutandi, 2022). These studies mainly focused on conversational maxims, speech act theory, and interlanguage pragmatic with some special attention on formulation of speech acts of refusal, request and apologies. Moreover, these studies revealed that grammatical competence, educational background, effective input environment and awareness in using and learning the English language contributes to pragmatic failure. Cultural background and the transfer of their native languages to the target language (ESL) also contribute to the lack of pragmatic competence. Literature indicates the need to carry out studies focusing on speech acts such as requests which indicate a gap in exploring and assessing pragmatic competence.

The current study focused on pragmatic and its role in attaining communicative competence, putting forth politeness as its main theory. Politeness theory is an overlooked aspect of pragmatic in Namibian context. Thus, this study was done considering the gap in assessing students' politeness level in speech acts of requests, apologies and complaints.

2.8. Theoretical framework

This study mainly put forth politeness as its main theory. Politeness was the main concepts in pragmatics that is used to analyse the results of this study. There are several tenets of politeness theory in pragmatics, but this study employed Brown and Levinson's politeness theory and speech act since there cannot be politeness without speech acts. Leech's theory of politeness places politeness in a framework of interpersonal oratory. The departure spot is his wider distinction between semantics as the field of grammar, the linguistic method, the rules- & pragmatics as the field of oratory, namely the execution of the rules. The idea of the speech acts was first introduced by the British philosopher John Langshaw Austin in (1911-1960). According to Vitale (2009), the evidence of a speech act's role in pragmatic competence can be reflected in its communicative nature. This is because the sociocultural context of an utterance determines the actual grammatical, semantic, and pragmatic entities of the speech act.

Brown and Levinson's (1987) rely their theory on Goffman's notion of face in explaining their theory. Goffman claimed that the concept of 'face' (one's social image) serves as the foundation for structuring and regulating the behaviours of participants in every social interaction.

Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory aims to explain how the face management process and the variables that influence it motivate how speakers in any culture would phrase their remarks. As a result, the concept of face is used in their model to create a relationship between language use and politeness application throughout the process of managing the other's self-image. (Holtgraves , 1990, p. 719)

Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory holds that most speech acts, such as requests, offers, disagreement, and compliments, naturally threaten either the hearer's or the speaker's face-wants, and that politeness is involved in redressing such face-threatening acts (FTA). Based on these assumptions Sadeghoghli and Niroomand (2016) posit that three distinct ways for executing speech acts are identified: positive politeness, negative politeness, and off-record politeness. Positive politeness seeks to complement or enhance the addressee's positive face, whereas negative politeness aims to soften the addressee's infringement on freedom of action or freedom from imposition. The third method, off-the-record politeness, involves breaking one of Gricean (1975) maxims on the assumption that the addressee may deduce the intended meaning. Based on these theoretical fundamentals, B and L's view on politeness has; thus, been termed 'the face-saving view' by linguists, such as Fraser (1990).

B and L also claimed that when confronted with a face-threatening act, interlocutors frequently try to save face (FTA). FTAs are actions that "run contrary to the addressee's and/or the speaker's face wants" (1987, p. 70). To save face, B and L recommended five strategies to be used by interlocutors, which they defined on a scale of 1 to 5, as follows: (1 being the least polite, and 5 being the most polite).

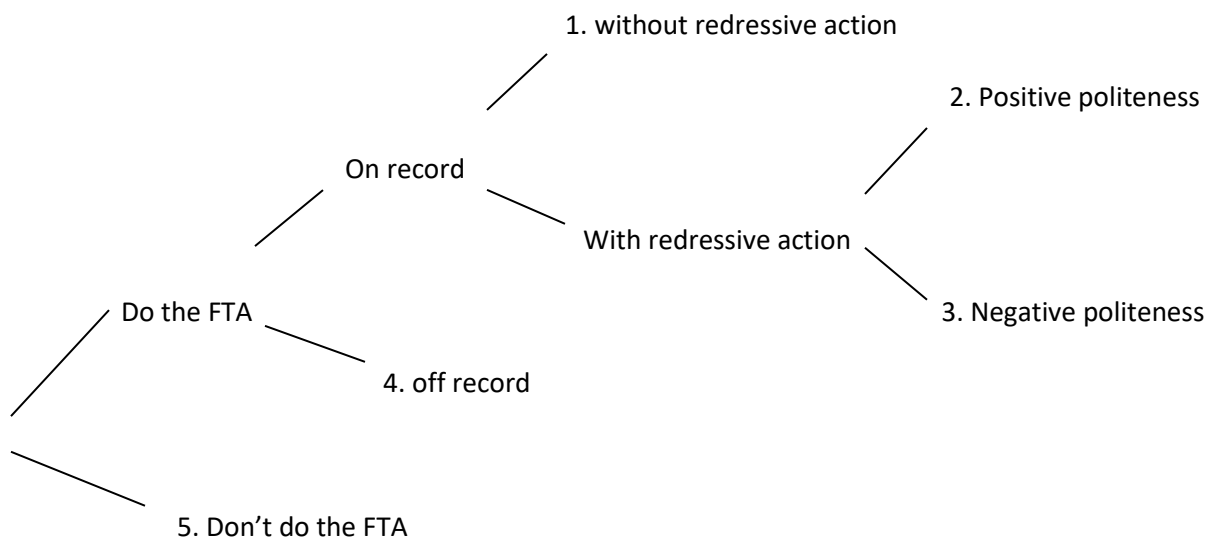


Figure: possible strategies for doing FTA (Brown & Levinson, 1987)

According to B and L, S (speaker) assesses the weightiness of the FTA based on three social factors: (P)ower, (D)istance, and (R)anking. Brown and Levinson's (1987) model of politeness has proved very popular, complaints, apologies and requests, which are the focus of this paper, offer an excellent site for the exploration of the power politeness model.

2.9. Chapter summary

This chapter reviewed the areas of pragmatics research that lay the foundation for creating pragmatics competence and communicative competence. Basic theoretical components within the study of pragmatic which are politeness maxims; speech acts; implicatures are defined and explored. It outlined the basic elements of Speech Act Theory and explained the significance speech acts. I also explained the research on the expressive speech act of apologizing, requesting, complaining and how they are connected to the politeness maxims and the routines or formulae that comprise the use of apologies in English. In addition, the topic of communicative competence was discussed and how pragmatic competence contributes to successful and appropriate communication. Finally, the role of discourse and

CHAPTER THREE

Research Methods and Procedures

This chapter lays down the synopsis of research methods and procedures that were employed in conducting this research. First, it explains the research design, research paradigm and research approach used in this study. It further discusses the research setting, the instruments used, how they were implemented to answer the research questions of the study, research management, and relevant data analysis techniques. The sampling procedures, sampling size as well as ethical considerations of the study are also covered.

3.1. Research design

According to Pandey and Pandey, (2015), a research design is simply the framework or plan for a study that is used as a guide in collecting and analysing the data. Also, Creswell and Creswell (2018) purported that research designs are types of inquiry within qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches that provide specific direction for procedures in a research study. There are several fundamental research designs to choose from, and each design has a variety of modifications. Since this study chose to use mixed methods which involves combining or integration of qualitative and quantitative research and data in a research study, it employed explanatory sequential design which, according to Creswell and Clark (2018) is one in which the researcher first conducts quantitative research, analyses the results and then builds on the results to explain them in more detail with qualitative research. Through the explanatory research design this study first looked at the quantitative results from the questionnaire and the WCDT. The results are then explained qualitatively according to statistic gathered.

3.2. Research paradigm

The study adopted the pragmatism philosophical research approach. According to Creswell and Clark, (2018), pragmatism derives from the work of Peirce, James, Mead, and Dewey (Holmes, 1992). The pragmatic research philosophy applies when problems are trying to be solved. It is a real-world practice-oriented approach (Creswell & Poth, 2017). Clearly, the effectiveness of applications and problem-solving techniques is a worry. Researchers stress the study topic and question rather than the methodologies and employ all techniques available to comprehend the problem. Creswell and Clark, (2018) assert that, for the mixed methods researcher, pragmatism opens the door to multiple methods, different worldviews, and different assumptions, as well as different forms of data collection and analysis.

3.3. Research approach

A thorough comprehension of second language pragmatic investigation may not be possible by using a single type of investigation method; therefore, this study adopted a mixed research methodology to get the necessary data, since the aims of the study call for both qualitative and quantitative approaches.

According to Creswell and Creswell (2018) mixed methods involves combining or the integration of qualitative and quantitative research and data in a research study and that qualitative data tends to be open-ended without predetermined responses while quantitative data usually includes closed-ended responses such as found on questionnaires or psychological instruments. So, to use this method, both qualitative and quantitative methods should be understood. According to Tashakkori and Creswell, Mixed methods research is defined as “research in which the investigator collects and analyses data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods in a single study or a program of inquiry”. (2007b, p. 4, as cited in Creswell & Clark, 2018).

An argument about the need of both qualitative and quantitative methods that:

Qualitative and quantitative forms of research both have roles to play in theorising. The issue is not whether to use one form or another but rather how these might work together to foster the development of theory. Although most researchers tend to use qualitative and quantitative methods in supplementary or complementary forms, what we are advocating is a true interplay between the two. The qualitative should direct the quantitative and the quantitative feedback into the qualitative in a circular, but at the same time evolving, process with each method contributing to the theory in ways that only each can (Straus & Cobin, 1998, p. 34).

According to Creswell and Creswell (2018), the fundamental premise of this type of research is that combining qualitative and quantitative data reveals new information that cannot be revealed by either type of data alone. Dawadi et al. (2021) affirm that the quantitative technique enables a researcher to gather data from a large number of individuals, increasing the likelihood that the results can be applied to a larger population. While honouring the perspectives of its participants, the qualitative approach, on the other hand, offers a greater knowledge of the problem under investigation. In other words, while quantitative data provide the study scope, qualitative data give it depth.

Another driving motive for combining the two methods is the belief that both kinds of research have values and that in some respects they are complementary, and therefore, there will be an added value in combining them. The researchers use both data sets to answer the same research question which can produce greater certainty and wider implication in the conclusion (Maxwell, 2016; Morgan, 2014) cited in (Dawadi, Shrestha, & Giri, 2021). The combination of quantitative and qualitative methodologies is frequently recommended on the grounds that a researcher can take advantage of the respective strengths, avoid the respective shortcomings of the two approaches, and arrive at a conclusion that is more accurate.

Additionally, it is possible to triangulate qualitative and quantitative findings. Some scholars have coined the term "triangulation" to describe the usage of multiple methods. The concept of triangulation, which was first presented by Campbell (1953) and Campbell and Fiske in (1959), has had an impact on the recent history of mixed methods. According to Noble and Heale (2019), research triangulation refers to the process that helps to increase the credibility and validity of research. In more detailed explanation, triangulation can assist ensure that basic biases brought on using a single method or a single observer are addressed by combining theories, methods, or observers in a research study. To provide readers with a more complete explanation, triangulation also makes an effort to examine and describe complex human behaviour through a variety of ways. This method allows for data validation and can be applied to both quantitative and qualitative studies. Also, Creswell and Creswell (2018) argued that early ideas on the efficacy of several methods known as mixed methods were predicated on the notion that all methods had bias and flaws, and that gathering both quantitative and qualitative data balanced out the flaws of each type of data.

Thus, considering the research questions of this present study, which relate to various dimensions of speech acts of request, complaint and apologies including evaluating two phenomenon pragmatics and communicative competence with special focus to discourse, lexical and semantic level, a quantitative and qualitative methods is appropriate. The fact that this research requires both a thorough narrative analysis and the numerical data analyses made the use of both quantitative and qualitative research methods necessary. Although both quantitative and qualitative methods were used in the study, it should be noted that the study was predominantly qualitative with the use of a quantitative data set to statistically support the descriptions of the participants' responses.

3.4. Study population

A population refers to “the entire group of people who are of interest in a particular survey” (Brown, 2001, p.71). Target population, also called universe, means all the members of a real or hypothetical set of people, events or objects to which we wish to generalize the results of our research. The current study is conducted at the Namibia University of Science and Technology, Windhoek main campus. The population of the study was the second-year students, with a special focus on students from the Department of Communication and Languages doing the bachelor’s degree in English.

3.5. Sampling and sample size

Data collection from every person in a place or community is a difficult process. Sampling entails choosing participants from the entire research population. By doing this, the subgroup serves as the large population's representative. In a research study, a sample is a group of individuals, items, or events that represents the characteristics of the larger group from which it is drawn. Testing a sample, especially in a quantitative study can allow the researcher to make inferences about the performance of the larger group, which is known as the population (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2012). The process of selecting a sample is known as sampling. The study population focused on the second-year students, with a planned size of 45 participants, only 32 participants made up the sample of this study, as some students could not complete the test due to commitments as it was done during the time students were about to write exams.

Convenience sampling, specifically, was used to select the students because they were available to participate in the study. Creswell (2008) states that “this type of sampling is logical and happens because The researcher has the permission of the principal and can gain consent from that (particular) group of students to participate in the study. This is a convenience sample because the participants are convenient to the researcher and are available for the study”(p.155). Creswell added that this type of sampling is

appropriate and “It can provide information for addressing the research question and testing hypotheses” (as Cited in Mojabi, 2014). The use of this type of respondents was justified by the fact that students enrolled in different courses and those who go on to major in English have markedly different levels of proficiency. On the other hand, first-year students would have only recently enrolled in the program, thus it is unlikely that they have completed enough coursework to be able to be considered as competent.

3.6. Research instrument

Developing adequate and reliable methods for evaluating pragmatic competence has become more important as interest in the study of pragmatics has grown. Because the data collecting tool is a vital factor in the accuracy of the data acquired, it is essential to consider how to gather the necessary data when doing pragmatic research. The data in this study was collected by a pragmatic judgment assessment that is presented in the form of a Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT), questionnaire as the post-test and is chosen for a variety of reasons. A total of 45 students were handed WDTC and questionnaires to complete and only a total of 32 WDCT and questionnaires returned since some students weren’t willing to participate due to some responsibilities they had. A WDCT was used in the study to collect data, which included both quantitative and qualitative techniques. The WDCT has two components, the first of which entails gathering request, apologies and complaint replies that are later categorized and quantitatively examined.

3.6.1. Questionnaire

One of the most popular methods for gathering data in studies of second languages is the questionnaire. Questionnaire is a written instrument which asks respondents a series of questions or assertions and requests a response, either in the form of a written response or the choice of one of several intriguing options (Brown, 2001, p. 6) in (Taghizadeh, 2017). Questionnaires can be of many different types, such as

multiple-choice, open-ended, or closed-ended tests. Every research field uses it frequently since it is simple to create, administer, and analyse (Dörnyei, 2010; O'Keeffe et al., 2011).

Despite the fact that questionnaires are typically used to gather quantitative data, they can also be used to gather qualitative data, particularly if they are open-ended. Dörnyei (2007) lists three different types of data that can be collected through questionnaire including factual data like the length of studying the TL by second language learners, behavioural data like personal history and attitudinal data like attitudes, beliefs and values cited in (Taghizadeh, 2017)

The questionnaire was created to gather data regarding the teaching strategies the respondents had encountered in their years of English studies. The questionnaire adopted for the current study consists of multiple choice close-ended questions, Likert-scale questions and open-ended questions. Likert scale is the method of summated ratings which was introduced by Likert (1932) as an alternative to Thurstone's (1928) method of attitude scaling. A set of attitude statements are offered to the respondent on a Likert scale, with responses ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree, with a neutral point in the middle. Questions were adapted from similar previous studies and modified. There are 10 Likert-type questions, answers ranging from: 1 =strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree

3.6.2. Written Discourse Completion Test

Written Discourse Completion tasks (WDCT) are written questionnaires including several brief situational descriptions, 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 context (Kasper & Dahl, 1991). To do this, individuals must picture what they or an abstract character would do and say in the circumstance. WDCT can be helpful since it can deliver significant amounts of data quickly and with little effort. No transcription is required, and it is simple to compare responses from different speakers.

Additionally, responses in a WDCT can be interpreted as subtly conveying a participant's cumulative experience in a particular situation. Although WDCT cannot provide authentic speech, it can provide insights into what subjects think they would do in a certain situation (Golato, 2003, p.92; Geluykens, 2007, p.36) cited in (Srisuruk, 2011). Moreover, the WDCT can represent learners' pragmatic ability with reference to the communicative part of language assessment, even though it cannot facilitate to capture the whole interaction of genuine speech.

Beebe and Cummings (1985), in their study of data elicitation methods, claimed that the DCT is a highly effective means of:

- (a) gathering a large amount of data quickly;
- (b) creating an initial classification of semantic formulas and strategies that will occur in natural speech;
- (c) studying the stereotypical, perceived requirements for socially appropriate (though not always polite) responses;
- (d) gaining insight into social and psychological factors that are likely to affect speech and performance;
- and
- (e) ascertaining the canonical shape of refusals, apologies, partings, etc., in the minds of the speaker of that language (as cited in Chang, 2006)

The purpose of the WDCT in this study was to ascertain whether or not the students make use of the politeness strategies when interacting with their teachers and fellow students and upon making requests, apologies and complaints. In addition, it also sought to know which strategy they tend to use the most in different situations. Using WDCT provides a more complete picture of students' pragmatic competence.

Aufa (2012) argues that the WDCT can be used to evaluate learners' speech act creation in addition to testing their pragmatic awareness.

The WDCT employed in the present study was adapted from Braun's questionnaire which only contains academic situations. The participants responded in situation which required them to respond in interaction with other students at the university, faculty members like professors and instructors, and administrative staff members like secretaries and librarians in academic contexts. They potentially interacted with both known and unknown people in academic contexts during service contacts. The scenarios chosen suited the lifestyles of university students, e.g. requesting the lecturer to postpone the submission date of an essay paper, asking a classmate for class notes, etc.

The WDCT is divided into three sections: the first comprises three request scenarios, second one is the apologies and lastly the complaints section addressed to lecturers and other students. Each of the scenarios includes area for students to express requests, apologise, or complaints to their professors and fellow classmates. The suggested responses must, respectively, represent a good/positive and a negative politeness technique.

3.7. Procedures

The researcher communicated with the Department of communication HOD and also the lectures to obtain the permission to administer the test. The two instruments, WDC test and questionnaire were distributed to the students from the department and the researcher explained the purpose of the task to students.

The analysis of the data involved calculating and comparing the response length, numbers of syntactic formula, patterns of syntactic formula combined in the apology, request and complaint responses and reason provided in the response from each task. The data were classified into groups in accordance with the different speech acts. Short expressions from each group from each different speech act were reported in frequency and in percentages but not numbers, in order to give a brief picture of pragmatic competence. The data statistics was presented according to the utterances made by students. The number in tables represents the total number of responses that fall into each category as one response could contain more than one strategy.

3.8. Ethical considerations

The researcher obtained ethical clearance from the National University of Science and Technology's Faculty Research and Publications Committee (FRPC) as the requirement of the university. The permission letter to collect data was obtained from the Namibia University of Science and Technology research committee. Saunders et al. (2009) explain that ethics mostly relates to the rights of the research participants and how these are respected in the research process, therefore the participants' anonymity and confidentiality are considered as such, and the information collected will be used for this study only.

The study's purpose and benefits were explained to all concerned parties using the research instrument (Gawaza 2021). Also, Fontana and Frey (2000) mentioned that, ethical concerns have revolved around the topics of informed consent (receiving consent by the subject after having carefully and truthfully informed him or her about the research), right to privacy (protecting the identity of the subject), and protection from harm (physical, emotional, or any other kind) (p. 662) cited in (Srisuruk, 2011). The study notified participants that their names would not appear elsewhere in the data. Before they agreed, all of this was

completed. Participants had the chance to make an informed decision throughout this process deciding whether or not to participate.

3.9. Chapter summary

This chapter discusses the research strategy and study design. Data gathering methods and the population were covered. The data collection and analysis techniques used in the study were mixed approaches, utilizing questionnaire survey and a Written Discourse Completion Task. The techniques for data analysis were also covered. The chapter also covered the commitment to properly follow research standards and ethical considerations.

CHAPTER FOUR

Findings and Discussions

4.1. Introduction

This chapter focuses on presenting and analysing data as generated from the research instruments, in order to link it to the three research objectives: 1.To determine the level of the NUST student's pragmatic competence in the communicative strategies at the discourse level, 2. To assess the link between utterances/speech acts and politeness in classroom discussions at NUST and 3.To evaluate the connection between syntactic structures and politeness levels in requests complaints and apologies of students at NUST. The data collected with the help of the questionnaire and WDCT were analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively.

The data for this study was collected during lessons as the researcher was granted permission by several lectures to use their lessons so that students fill in the questionnaires and the test. The purpose of the questionnaire was firstly to gather biographical information of the participants and also to gather information on how they rate their communication and pragmatic competencies and also to see to what extent pragmatic competence plays a pivotal role in communication. To unpack knowledge and fill the research gaps in the field of second language pragmatics, this study examined the views, perceptions and attitudes of students on pragmatic competence in enhancing their communicating skills.

The Written discourse completion test is used to gather the speech acts of the participants used in different academic situations and in order to determine their pragmatic competence in communication, their politeness level in these situations and the choice of words (their syntactical level) in requests, apologies and complaints. A total of 15 situations (5 requests; 6 apologies and 4 complaints) were

presented to the participants to develop requests, complaints and apologies as their responses. The participants were presented with real life situations that they may encounter in their affairs and interactions with their lecturers and other academic staff at the Namibia University of Science and Technology. Out of the total 32 responses, 4 were not considered for analysis as the participants provided wrong responses only responses from 28 students were analysed. Altogether, 360 responses were analysed out of possible 480 responses.

4.2. Entry questionnaire

The entry questionnaire serves as part one of the main research instrument formulated and comprised different sections where the first section was aimed to gather biographical information of the participants which include the participant's gender, age group, home language, level of education, number of years studying English, reason they study English and their perception of English learning. The questionnaire helped to obtain quantitative data.

4.2. Biographical information`

Gender Distribution

The study looked at both genders, so the first information looked at the distribution of gender in answering the questionnaire.

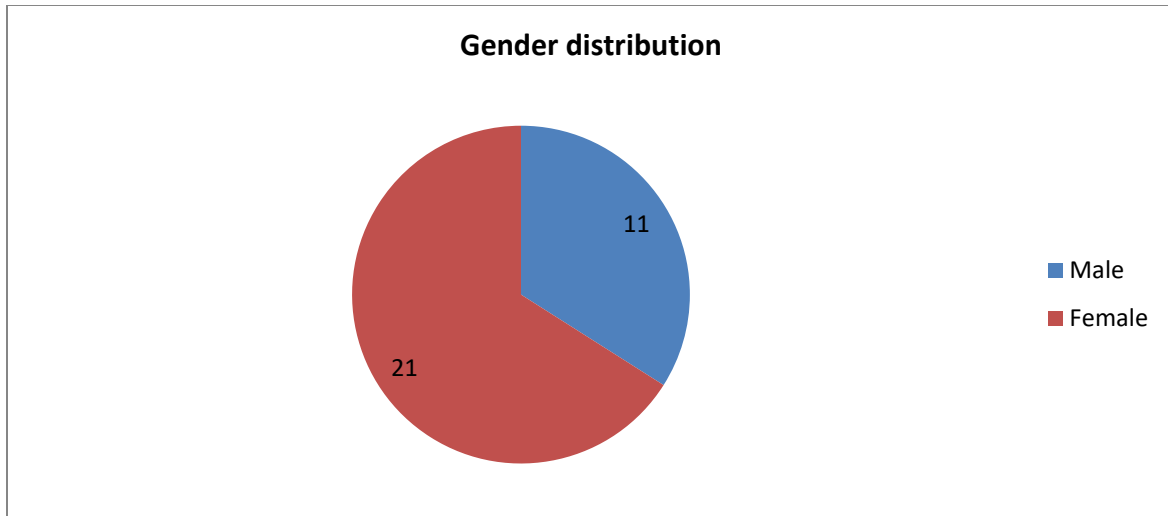


Figure 1: Gender distribution

The statistic from the chart indicates that more women took part as they made up 66% of the total population as compared to 34% of male population.

Age distribution

The following chart compared the age of the participants.

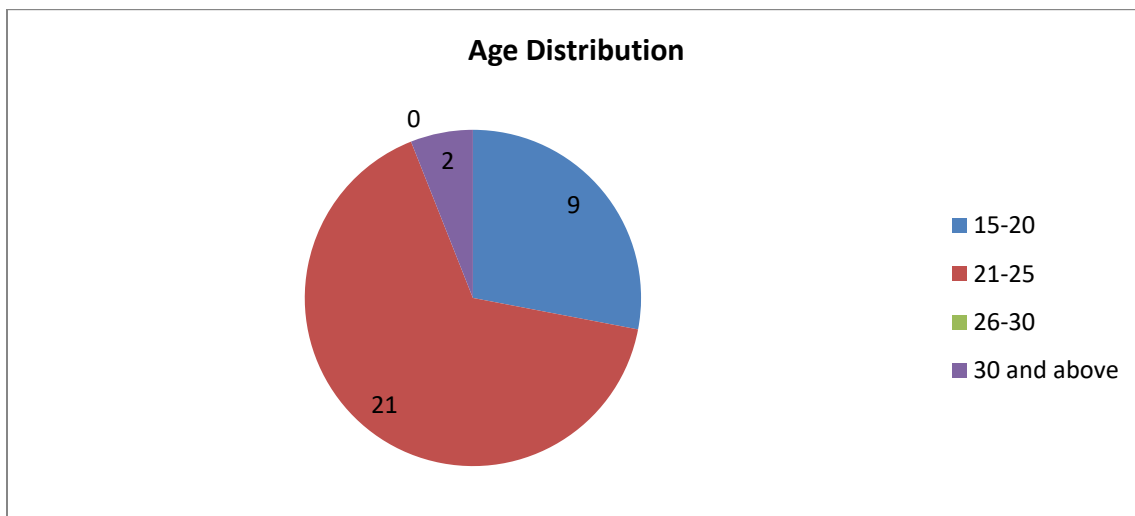


Figure 2: Age distribution

It is evidently shown that majority of the participants are aged 21-25 as they take up 66% of the total study population. This indicates 21 out of 32 of the total population of the participants. The second age group to which comprised of 28% is that age group of 15 -20 years old participants. This represents a total of 9 participants out of 32. No participant was recorded in the age range of 26-30. The least number of participants (2), was recorded in the age category of 31 and above, recording only 6% of the total population.

Language spoken

A total of 6 languages were identified for sampling. As it is shown in the table below, Oshiwambo recorded high percentages of participants with 38%, which represents a total of 12 out of 32 of the total population. Otjiherero recorded the second highest number of participants with 34% of the total population, a representation of 11 out of 32. Lozi and English recorded both 6%, and 13% for other languages like Afrikaans. The least percentage was recorded in Khoekhoegowab with only 3% which represent only one learner.

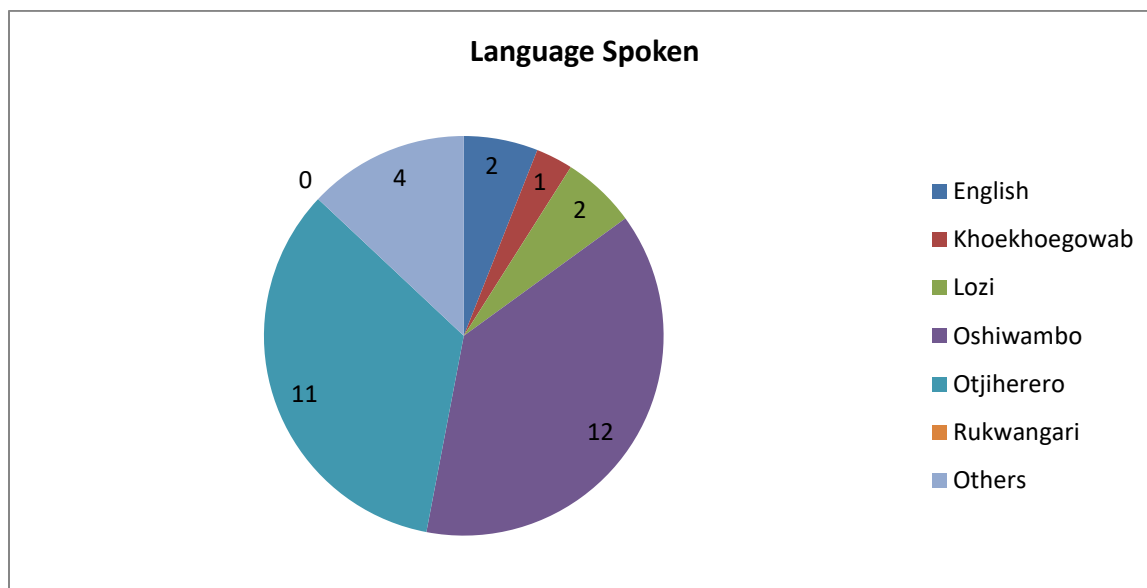
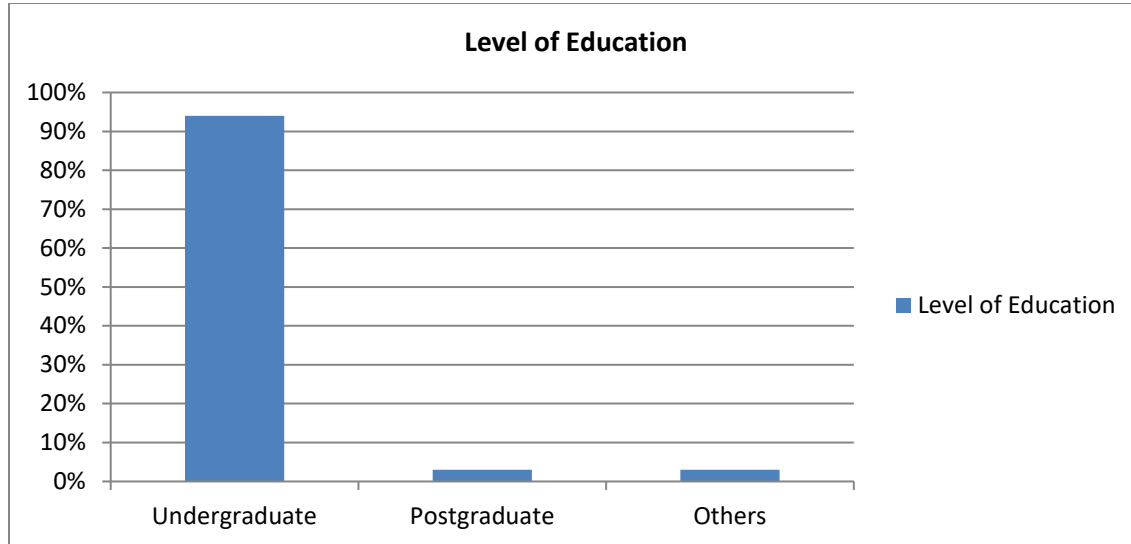


Figure 3: Language spoken

Level of education

The chart below shows the distribution of the level of education of the participants.

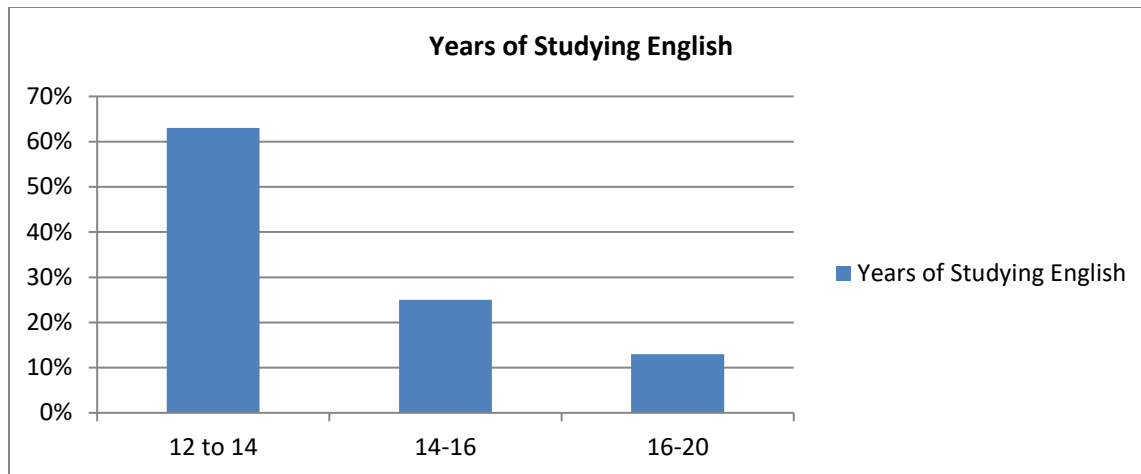


Graph 1: Student's level of education

The chart evidently shows that majority of the participants are undergraduate or have not acquired any tertiary qualification as indicated by 94% of the total population, representing 30 out of 32 participants. Postgraduates only has 3% recorded and others with 3% which represent 1 out of 32 each.

Years of studying English

The table below shows the number of years participants have gone through formal education of learning English. The result shows that highest percentage is recorded in those who studied English for 12-14 years with 63% which represents 20 out of 32 participants. This is followed by those who studied English for 14 to 16 years with only 25% and that is just 8 out of 32 participants. The years with the least percentage are 16-20 years with 13% a representation of 4 participants.



Graph 2: years of studying English

Reasons for studying English

Participants also provided the reasons why they are studying English and have to choose from given responses. About 63% of students are studying English because they feel it is important for their career, a representation of 20 out of 32 participants. The other 34% of students are studying English because it is part of their interest or they like it and this represent 11 out of 32 participants. Only 6% of participants are studying English as they feel it is compulsory in their education. This statistic is clearly shown in the table below.

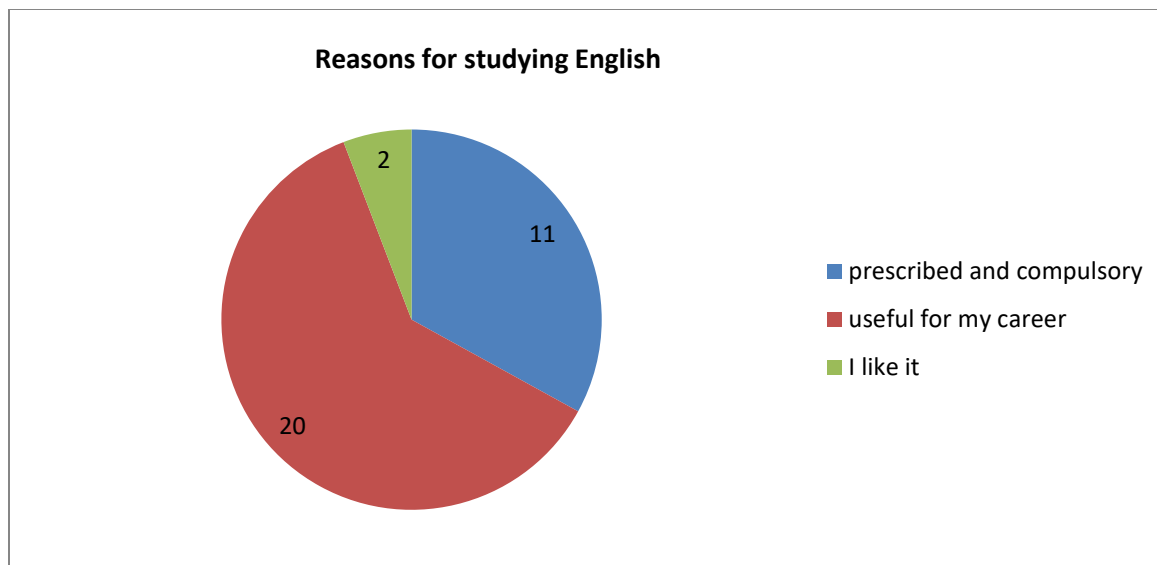


Figure 4: reasons for studying English

Interest for further study

Participants were required to respond to a yes or no question and provide their reasons on whether they are interested in furthering their studies in English. Several valid reasons were chosen which more than one student have provided. Majority of participants indicated that they have interest of furthering their studies, with 81% of the total population representing 26 out of 322 participants. Majority of these have indicated that they want *"to enhance knowledge in language"*, followed by those who indicated that they *"...enjoy it"*. Others felt *"it is useful for their studies"* and the least felt it is just their *"passion"*. Those participants who responded with a *"no"* had reasons like there is *"no need"* for them to learn English and the least feels *"it undervalues native languages"*.

4.6. Students' English perception and awareness

Participants indicated their perception and awareness of using English on a 1-5 scale, where they indicated by circling the most correct response that best describes their English perception best: **1 = Strongly**

disagree (SD), 2 = Disagree (DA), 3 = Neutral (N), 4 = Agree (A), 5 = Strongly Agree (SA). Below is the Likert with statements that students responded to.

Table 1: Students pragmatic and communicative competence perception rubric

	STATEMENTS	1	2	3	4	5
10	I think it is important that I learn to communicate with others in English effectively					
11	I believe learning English grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation mean learning English					
12	I pay attention to grammar errors when communicating in English					
13	University English courses provide much understanding on intercultural communication, conversation rules, usage and how to use English appropriately					
14	Communicative activities are a waste of time in English class					
15	I admire people who can communicate with others in English fluently and accurately					
16	I prefer speaking my native language than English to others at school					
17	I believe English lecturers should teach us how to communicate with people and how to use English appropriately in the English classes					
18	I know how to obtain cultural knowledge and appropriateness of language use in my learning					

19	Tasks used in English class provide me knowledge and skills to improve my ability to use English appropriately					
20	I prefer my English classes to be focused on communicative language teaching and practice with grammar explained when necessary					

Results from the Likert scale

The table below indicate the statistic as it was recorded from the above table.

Table 2: Students' pragmatic and communicative competence perception results

Statements	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>14</u>	<u>15</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>17</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>19</u>	<u>20</u>
Students Ranking											
1	1	1	0	0	22	0	10	0	0	0	0
2	0	2	2	1	6	1	6	1	1	0	0
3	0	8	7	7	4	5	11	7	10	3	11
4	5	10	10	7	0	15	3	7	13	15	11
5	26	11	13	17	0	12	2	17	8	14	10

4.6. Pragmatic competence in the communicative strategies

The research used qualitative analysis in order to examine the interactional utterances in speech as they serve as a feature to determine the pragmatic competence in communicative discourse of their everyday interaction with NUST staff and other students. This helped the researcher address the first objective. The purpose of the quantitative analysis of speech, using descriptive statistics, was to examine pragmatic linguistic feature, which is politeness level at syntactical level in requests, which is selected as another main feature of L2 pragmatic competence to enhance politeness in interactions.

4.6.1 Students' responses to speech acts of request

Table 3: List of response situations

Request situation	
Request 1	Request lecture notes from a friend
Request 2	Request notes from a stranger
Request 3	Request for an extension on essay paper
Request 4	Request for remark of exam paper
Request 4	Request for an explanation on a new topic you did not understand.

The following tables will in each focus on request strategies used by student, with each situation analysed individually.

Situation 1

Your friend attends classes regularly and takes good notes. You often miss class and ask your friend for the lecture notes. What will you say?

Table 4: Request Situation 1

Strategy	Statements	N	%
Imperatives	Please lend me ...	4	14%
	Help me ...	1	4%
Formulae	Do you mind ...	1	4%
Ability	Can/could you please ...	8	29%
Permission	Can/May I ...	5	18%
Suggestory	May you please ...	5	18%
	Would you ...	1	4%

The data from the first situation interestingly portray the strategy of ability as the most used strategy used by students when asking notes from a friend. In terms of social distance, a friend is equal to the speaker, that's why the ability strategy was mostly utilised. The modal verbs were used in the ability strategy; *"Can you please help me your notes...."; "Could you kindly help me with your notes so that I can update myself?"* The ability strategy accounted for 29% of the population. The strategy that was secondly used is the permission and suggestory where both accounted for 18%. The permission strategy used expression such as: *"May I please take a look at your notes?"; "... can I please have your notes?"* The suggestory strategy employed expression such as; *"Would it be okay if you could update me on the work?"* Direct requests were recorded as imperatives were evident and accounted 14 % of the population. Direct request such as; *"Please lend me your notes quickly."; "Help me with your notes".*

Here are some of the responses from the students on the presented data:

Situation 1. Your friend attends classes regularly and takes good notes. You often miss class and ask your friend for the lecture notes. What will you say?

- Uno, would you please share your lecture notes with me, if that's ok with you?

- Need to attend class but here are the notes
- Can you please update me about the lessons in the previous classes?
- Can you please help me with your notes? I have been missing class and need to catch up.
- Hey, can you please help me with some of your notes?
- I have been missing class due to certain reason. Would it be okay if you could update me on the work?
- I am sorry to be a bother, but may I please borrow some of your lecturer notes?
- Please lend me your notes quickly.
- May I please copy from your notes.
- Hey friend, do you have any notes/? If you do, please pass them along, thanks.
- Hi. May I please take a look at your notes? I've missed the last few classes.
- May I use your notes to understand the topic better? Your notes are so much better to understand.
- May you please help me copy from your notes?
- Excuse me, could you please help me the lecture notes that we did during class last week?
- I have a lot currently going on, would you be so kind as to help me with the notes you made in class?
- I hope you are doing well. May you please send me the notes you took in class earlier today?
- Hey, please send me the class notes.

Situation 2

You want another student (who is not your close friend) to lend you some lecture notes.

What are you going to say to him/her?

Table 5: Request situation 2

Strategy	Statements	N	%
Imperatives	Please...	1	4%
Willingness	Would/do you mind ...	5	18%
Ability	Can/could you ...	12	43%
Permission	Can I ...	3	11%
Suggestory	May you ...	2	7%
	Is it possible ...	1	4%

This situation featured several linguistic and formulaic request strategies. Like in the first situation, the ability strategy is also mainly used here. This situation shows higher percentages of ability strategy used than in the first situation as it accounts for 43% almost half of the students used this to request for notes from a stranger. The most modal verb used in this strategy is *can* and *could*. The willingness strategy is the second most used strategy which accounts for 18%. The permission linguistic formulae belonging to the conventional indirect strategy aggregate for 11% of the total responses. Most evident linguistic expression is *“can I please borrow your notes?”* The students considered social distance as there were only 4% of direct strategy used which are imperative. *“May you lend me your notes?”* indicates the suggestory strategy that was used which accounted for 7%. There are external modifications also used by the students due to the matter of the situation for example: *“I know we don’t really know each other, but...; “Hi. I know we’re not that close, but...”* External modifications also are use, example: *“Can you kindly lend me some of your lecture notes?”; “Would you mind lending me your notes?”* This request situation was more similar than the first one but generated a bit of different results.

Some responses from this situation are presented below.

Situation 2. You want another student (who is not your close friend) to lend you some lecture notes.

What are you going to say to him/her?

Friend: Well...then I guess I'll have to ask someone else.

- Hi my name is Hazel, I know we don't really know each other, but I do know we are in the same class. Do you mind sharing your notes with me please?
- Please share the lecture note. I'll assist you in the future as well.
- Can you please lend me your notes if you are not using them?
- Good day? Can you kindly lend me some of your lecture notes?
- Hi. I hope you're doing well. Is it possible that you send me some of the lecture notes please?
- It seems that I don't have all the required notes. Can you please assist with notes that I may not have?
- Would you mind lending me your notes?
- Could you kindly help me with your notes?
- May you please lend me your notes?
- Hi, can you please help me with notes from the class I missed?
- Hi. I know we're not that close, but can I take a look at the notes you take in class?
- Do you mind lending me your lecture notes?
- Could you please lend me your lecture notes?
- Can I please borrow your notes, just to compare them with mine? I will return them within a day.
- Good morning, hope you are well. Would it be possible if you could send me your notes?
- Hey there, could you please send me the lecture notes?
- Hi. May you please lend me your notes? I have not been attending class due to some family matters.
- Help me with the lecture notes if you have them.

Situation 3

You are a student, and you want to ask your teacher for an extension for finishing an essay paper. What are you going to tell your teacher?

This situation has a diversity of all the request strategies which is interesting in a way that it has power that the students had to consider when requesting for an extension. The data extracted from this situation show a much gap or difference from those of the first two situations. Here the students tend to use the permission strategy as compared to ability in the first two situations. The result indicate that most students were able to successfully ask for permission in a polite way. The ability requests strategy was performed too in the analysis. Ability strategy account for only 14% of the total population as indicated by linguistic formulae of ability *can you*. Examples of some expressions like: *"Can sir please help me extend the due date of my essay because..."; "can you please give me a few more minutes to finish my essay?"*. Permission accounted for 22%, which is the highest. These are shown in the examples such as: *"...my I ask that you grand me an extension to finish my essay?"*; *"May I please get an extension to finish my essay paper ma'am?"*. The students utilized the wishes requests strategy as evidenced by the use of the verb *like*. The wishes strategy accounted for 11% of the total population. This is also evidenced by the following examples from responses: *"I would like to ask if you could extend a day for me?"*; *"Dr, I would like to request for an extension to finalise my assignment."* The request strategy of imperatives is rarely use as it only account for 7% like in the example: *"Please give me an extension"*.

Table 6: request situation 3

Strategy	statements	N	%
Wishes	I would like to ...	3	11%
Suggestory	Is it possible ...	3	11%

Imperatives	Please ...	2	7%
	I thought that you can ...	1	4%
Permission	My I/could I/can I ...	6	22%
Suggestory	My you ...	3	11%
Ability	Can you ...	4	14%

The situation gathered some of the responses as they are presented below:

Situation 3. You are a student, and you want to ask your teacher for an extension for finishing an essay paper. What are you going to tell your teacher?

.....

- Sir may I ask that you grant me an extension to finish my essay?
- I am working on something really great, but I need some extra time. Please give me an extension.
- Is it possible that (sir/madam) can extend the essay date because we are occupied with a lot of work?
- Due to unforeseen circumstances, I was unable to finish with the essay could you please give me an extension?
- Good day ma'am/ sir. Can you please extend the due date for the assignment? The schedule is a bit too tight, and we want to hand in our best work.
- Unfortunately, I have overwhelming workload and the due dates are too close to each other. Can Dr kindly extend so I get more time to work on it?
- Pardon me sir/madam, is it possible to please extend the due date as it requires more time?
- Dr, I would like to request for an extension to finalise my assignment.
- Ma'am/sir may you please add for me a little bit of time to hand in my work?
- Ma'am because I couldn't print my assignment on time, could I possibly bring it by tomorrow?

- Good day sir/ madam, may I please have an extension for the essay paper?
- May I please get an extension to finish my essay paper ma'am?
- Is it possible for you to extend the time with 30 minutes because I am far from finishing my essay?
- Si/madam, may I please have an extended day so that I could finish my essay?
- Dear ma'am, may you please give us 24 hours to complete this assignment. Time caught up with us and the 24 hours extension will help us to do our best.
- I am unable to finish/submit the assignment on time due to the problem I am in.
- May I please get extra time to finish this essay paper? I am currently finding it difficult within this time limit.
- Ma'am/sir may you please extend the due date. We have been overloaded with tests. We didn't get enough time to complete the essay paper.
- Dr, can you please give me an extension for my essay? I was hospitalised.
- Can sir please help me extend the due date of my essay because I have a lot on my table?
- Mrs, I'm sorry I could not manage to finish with my essay on time. May I please submit it later tonight?

Situation 4

You have received a much lower grade on an exam than you had expected. You had put a lot of effort into the class, and you believe you had prepared very well for the exam and had performed well on the exam. You want your professor to reconsider your exam and explain why you received a low grade. What do you say to your professor?

Table 7: Request situation four

Strategy	statements	N	%
Suggestory	Is it possible/ May we/may you/do you mind ...	11	35%
Wishes	I wish to ask...	1	3%
Ability	Can/Could you please ...	6	19%
Performative	I ask for you to/I would like to ...	4	13%
Willingness	Would you ...	2	6%
Permission	Can I ...	1	3%
Imperative	Please ...	3	10%
Desires/need	I want...	2	6%

The data dealt with a different situation and different results. Students were asked to respond by asking for explanation from the professor. Responses indicate the distance between students and professor. The request strategy of suggestory received much attention from the students as it accounts 35 % of the total population, mainly with these phrases, *Is it possible/ May we/may you* as in the example: “Professor *is it possible* to remark my paper?”; “...*may you* please reconsider and recheck my paper?”. This strategy is mainly utilised because students are asked to suggest what the solution could be. The conventionally indirect (hear-based) ability strategy was also paid attention to by students with 19% the analysed responses. For Example, “*Could you please review my paper and assist me where I was wrong?*”. The direct performative has accounted for 13%. For example: “... *I’d like to kindly request that you reconsider my exam and explain why I received a low grade.*” The request strategy of imperative recorded 10% of the responses as in: “*I want a review on my exam paper, so please do revive my paper.*”. The conventionally indirect strategy of willingness was realised in 6% of the responses. For example: “*Sir, would you please reconsider my exam....*” This is identical to the strategy of desire/need with also 6%, e.g., “...*I want to know why I got them so I can improve*”. The least percentages recorded were in with 3% each. For

example: “...thus I wish to ask where I went wrong- in wishes and “Can I rewrite please?”. Some of the responses are presented below.

Situation 4. You have received a much lower grade on an exam than you had expected. You had put a lot of effort into the class, and you believe you had prepared very well for the exam and had performed well on the exam. You want your professor to reconsider your exam and explain why you received a low grade.

What do you say to your professor?

- Professor, I have taken note that my grades do not reflect my efforts, thus I wish to ask where I went wrong.
- I apologise for the inconvenience but please reconsider the marks you gave me. I worked really hard.
- Professor is it possible to remark my paper?
- I was very confident about what I wrote. Could you please review my paper and assist me where I was wrong?
- Good day sir/ma’am. I’m certain that I might have obtained a higher grade in the examination, may you please reconsider and recheck my paper?
- I believe that I deserve more than what I got and I ask for you to kindly make time to remark my exam.
- Based on your marking, I have received low grades. Is it possible for you to remark my paper?
- I believe I put in so much work and effort in this exam, but the results are not displaying my effort.
- Prof, I would like to talk to you about my grade that I scored in my exam. Can you perhaps spare me some time?
- I was thinking I do not deserve these marks however; I want to know why I got them so I can improve

- Good day sir/madam. Is it possible for you to reconsider my grade? I don't believe this to be my mark.
- Sir, would you please reconsider my exam, I came well prepared for it and I don't understand why I performed the way I did.
- I am requesting professor to relook at my exam results, because I believe to have passed.
- I thought I did well on this exam, could you please tell me what I did wrong?
- Doc, may we please go through my paper together, so you can please explain to me where I went wrong?
- Professor, my we please discuss my exam results and mark allocations. I am not satisfied with my results.
- Professor, I had prepared myself thoroughly for the exam, I am certain that I deserve to get better scores. May professor please kindly reconsider my exam?
- I want a review on my exam paper, so please do revive my paper.
- Is it fine if Doctor and I go through my answer sheet, so that maybe we analyse my mistake?

Situation 5

In the classroom, the lecturer has taught a new topic. You did not understand some part of the topic.

Therefore, you meet the lecturer. What are you going to say?

Table 8: Request situation 5

Strategy	Statement	N	%
Ability	Could you/can you...	8	32%
Willingness	Would you...	1	4%

Imperative	Please ...	3	12%
Permission	May you ...	3	12%
	Can I ...	1	4%
Suggestory	Would/do you mind ...	3	12%
Hints	There are points I find difficult to understand	2	8%

The last request situation of requests strategies Recorded 25 responses. Here again students were asked to respond by requesting the instructor to repeat a new topic which they did not understand. The conventionally indirect strategy was mostly applied as it accounts 32 percent, with modal verbs like, *Can* and *could*. This can be found in request lines like: *"Sir/madam if you are free can you please help me by explaining the new topic we did in class I couldn't understand."* and *"I did not understand some parts of this topic, could you please explain?"*. Imperatives were realised 3 times with 12 percent. For example: *"Please explain the topic again."* They are identical to suggestion formula and permission which both account for 12 %. *"Dr, I did not understand the work and I didn't want to delay class time with questions, may you please explain this to me personally? This is a permission strategy, while suggestion formula has requests like: "Ma'am/sir I really didn't get some of the things explained today in class, do you mind explaining a bit more."* Interestingly, the direct hint strategy was also realised in this situation accounting for 8%. For Example, *"Dr, with the new topic you presented today, there are some points that I find difficult to understand"*. The least recorded strategy is willingness which only accounted 4%. An example of this from the response is: *"Sir, would you please spare a few minutes of your time to explain this part of the topic to me? I did not understand it well"*. It is worthy to mention that there are some strategy that appeared in the others but did not appear here. The hind strategy only appeared here except the other situations. These are some of the responses given by students:

Situation 5. In the classroom, the lecturer has taught a new topic. You did not understand some part of the topic. Therefore, you meet the lecturer. What are you going to say?

.....

- Ma'am I did not quite understand the topic we covered in class; do you mind explaining to me again?
- Please explain the topic again.
- Sir/madam if you are free can you please help me by explaining the new topic we did in class I couldn't understand.
- There was a part I did not understand well, could you please clarify it for me?
- Good day ma'am/sir. I do not really understand unit 1. Can you please give me a summary or perhaps send some note?
- Dr, I did not understand the work and I didn't want to delay class time with questions, may you please explain this to me personally?
- Can sir/madam please provide clear notes and maybe an extra class to re-explain this topic?
- Dr, with the new topic you presented today, there are some points that I find difficult to understand.
- Ma'am/sir I really didn't get some of the things explained today in class, do you mind explaining a bit more.
- I had difficulties grasping some part of the content. I was hoping ma'am would explain them more slowly to me please.
- I struggled to comprehend this new topic. Is there anything I can do to understand it better?
- Sir, would you please spare a few minutes of your time to explain this part of the topic to me?
I did not understand it well.

4.6.2. Responses to speech acts of APOLOGIES

Table 9: List of apologies responses.

Apologies situations list	
Apology 1	Apologise to the instructor for forgetting a book
Apology 2	Apologise for offending fellow student
Apology 4	Apologise for not turning up to the meeting
Apology 5	Apologise for ripping a book cover page
Apology 6	Apologise for interrupting a teacher's writing
Apology 7	Apologise for bad memory

Situation 6

You borrowed a book from your instructor, which you promised to return the following day. However, when you came to class, you realised you forgot to bring it along.

Table 10: Apologies situation 1

Strategy	N	Frequency used bn %
Regret	21	78%
Explanation	17	63%
Responsibility	4	15%
Offer repair	18	67%
Promise of forbearance	18	67%
Denial of responsibility	1	4%

For this situation, 27 responses were considered and analysed extracting the apologies strategies from each. Unlike request strategies, a response can carry several strategies, that's why this presentation shows a bit difference from those of request. The data indicated that most of the responses put forward by students are composed of the strategy of regret. Here the students were asked to respond by offering an apology for forgetting a book. Direct apology was given by students by showing regret (*"I am sorry", sorry, I am very/so/sincerely sorry, my apologies/sincere apology and I apologise/ I sincerely apologise*) of an offense which accounted 78%. About 63% of the apologies affirmed the speaker's explanation of the offense. For example, *"Ma'am, I apologise that I did not return your book as promised because I forgot it at home, I will bring it with me tomorrow. Only around 15 % of these responses expressed responsibility while about 67% of the responses provided offer of repair ("I will make sure to bring it tomorrow", May I please return home quickly to collect it?). There is evidence of denial of responsibility in few of the responses ("I was in a rush it slipped my mind")*. Some of the responses given by students are presented below:

Situation 6. You borrowed a book from your instructor, which you promised to return the following day. However, when you came to class, you realised you forgot to bring it along.

.....

- Ma'am I apologise that I did not return your book as promised because I forgot it at home. I will bring it with me tomorrow.
- Pardon me sir, I'll return the book tomorrow.
- Ooh! I forgot to bring along the book, I will make sure that I will bring it tomorrow.
- I apologise, I forgot the book at home, hope it won't cause any inconvenience.
- My apologies sir, I was in a rush and forgot the book at home. Can I bring it tomorrow?
- My apologies for forgetting the book. I must have been distracted this morning this will not happen again as it was in of my control.

- My apologies sir, I forgot the book you lend me at home, but I promise to bring it with tomorrow.
- I know I promised to bring the book, I am sorry for disappointing you. I will make sure to bring it tomorrow.
- My apologies to you, it appears that I might have forgotten to bring along your book.
- Excuse me for my short fuse of a brain, I forgot the book but promise to bring with tomorrow.
- Good day sir/madam, I am so sorry, but I forgot to bring the book I borrowed along. When else can I get it to you?
- My sincere apologies sir, I forgot the book I was supposed to return today.
- My apology sir, I forgot you book at home. May I please bring it tomorrow?
- I'm sorry I forgot the book. May I please bring it tomorrow?
- I am so sorry I honestly rushed out of the house this morning and forgot the book; I will bring it tomorrow.
- Good afternoon, sir/miss, I accidentally left the book at home, my apologies. I will make sure to bring it tomorrow.
- My apologies for forgetting the book I borrowed, I'll have it by tomorrow
- Sir/Ma'am I am so sorry, I forgot you book at home. May I please return home quickly to collect it? I am so sorry sir/ma'am.

Situation 7

You offended a fellow student during a class discussion. After the lesson, the fellow student mentions this fact and you admitted you were wrong. What will you tell her?

Table 11: Apologies situation 2 results

Strategy	N	%
Regret	25	93%

Explanation	4	15%
Responsibility	21	78%
Offer repair	1	4%
Promise of forbearance	4	15%

This situation interestingly presented different results from the first situation because of different identities and situation itself. The data indicated that 93% of students expressed their apologies by showing regret for their offences (*sorry, I am very/sincerely/so sorry, I apologise, I would like to apologise*). Like in the first situation, only 15% of student gave an account of the event or gave explanation why they made an offense (*I'm sorry for the misunderstanding, it won't ever happen again*). More than 75% of the apologies expressed responsibility (*"It was wrong of me", "... I am the one that is wrong", "...I realized that I was the wrong one and my apology"*). Interestingly, few students provided promise of forbearance (*"I shall not repeat the same mistake", "I will do better to educate myself around this matter, so this doesn't happen again"*). Due to the matter of the situation, students must show politeness by giving a proper apology acknowledging their responsibility to a fellow student. Students made responses like:

Situation 7. You offended a fellow student during a class discussion. After the lesson, the fellow student mentions this fact and you admitted you were wrong. What will you tell her?

- I am sorry that I may have offended you unintentionally, I was wrong, and I am sorry.
- Sorry, I was wrong.
- I am really sorry I didn't know that it will offend you in such a manner.
- That was wrong of me, I realized after and I apologize for my offence.
- I'm sorry I made you feel that way. I was clearly in the wrong.
- I must have not realized that I was offending you. Now that I know, I shall not repeat the same mistake.

- I am sorry my opinions offended you I did not mean to make you feel that way.
- I acknowledge my mistake; I should not have said what I said and for that I am very sorry.
- I am sorry for my behavior.
- I am sorry. The aim is not to offend nor belittle anyone.
- Hi. I am sorry that I offended you. I will do better to educate myself around this matter, so this doesn't happen again.
- Listen, I understand where I went wrong, and I apologize. I will try to be more considerate next time.
- I am sorry for I offended you.
- I was wrong. I am sorry for offending you.
- I am sorry that I offended you. I said was wrong and I apologise.
- I humbly apologise to you for my statement that I made. It was not my intention to offend you.
- I'm sincerely sorry. It was never my intention to offend you.
- I am sorry; I didn't mean to offend you.

Situation 8

A friend arranges to meet you yesterday in order to get some notes from you to study for an exam. He waited for an hour, but you didn't come. He calls you up:

Friend: You know, I waited for you for an hour yesterday.

Table 12: Apologies situation 3 results

Strategy	N	%
regret	22	74%
Explanation	16	59%
Responsibility	5	16%

Offer of repair	9	33%
Promise of forbearance	2	7%

Here again students are asked to respond by making an apology for up to a friend. Students again showed high competence of showing politeness as the regret strategy was mostly use (*"sorry/I am so sorry/ I am sorry/my apologies/ I am truly sorry"*), this strategy accounted for more than 70% of the responses, which is the highest recorded in this situation. More than 55 % of students were able to provide explanations for their offences therefore attaining the explanation strategy (*"An emergency popped up and I completely forgot to let you know", "I got caught up and couldn't reach you in any other way because my phone was off"*). Only less than 20% of the students could acknowledge a responsibility of offense (*"I should have told you earlier," "I'm sorry I didn't alert you in time..."*). At least more than 30% of students managed to make an offer of repair for the situation (*"Can I please make it up to you?", I will bring them to you"*). Lastly, only less than 10 percent offered a promise of forbearance (*"...this will not happen again and thanks for your patience"*,). Below are some of the responses from students:

Situation 8. A friend arranges to meet you yesterday to get some notes from you to study for an exam. He waited for an hour, but you didn't come. He calls you up:

Friend: You know, I waited for you for an hour yesterday.

.....

- I'm sorry I didn't alert you in time that I was not able to make it, something came up.
- Sorry, it won't happen again.
- I am sorry for that; I had an accident on my way to you.
- I am sorry the situation was out of control, what can I do to make it up to you?
- Hi, I'm so sorry you had to wait. An emergency popped up and I completely forgot to let you know.

- My sincerest apologies, I could not make it due to unforeseen circumstances, this will not happen again and thanks for your patience.
- I am truly sorry for making you wait for that long I will personally bring the notes to you today.
- I am really sorry for making you wait for that long, something urgent came up hence I was late.
- Something urgent came up, I am sorry; I should have told you earlier.
- I am so sorry dear. I got caught up and couldn't reach you in any other way because my phone was off. Can I please make it up to you?
- I did. I understand if you got held up. Do you still want my notes?
- I'm so sorry, something came up and my phone went off.
- Sorry, I was not with my phone.
- I am so sorry. Something unexpected came up.
- I am sorry I should have communicated better. I will make it up to you.
- My apologies, I got caught up in traffic and my phone died. It was not my intention to leave you hanging. When you get time, please let me know.
- Yoh! I'm so sorry. I overslept, was so tired. Can I email them or WhatsApp them to you instead?

Situation 9

You borrowed a book from a best friend, and you ripped the cover page by accident. You are giving back the book to your friend.

Friend: Oh, what happened to the book?

Table 13: Apologies situation 4 results

Strategy	N	%
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<i>Regret</i>	<i>20</i>	<i>74%</i>
<i>Explanation</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>30%</i>
<i>Responsibility</i>	<i>19</i>	<i>70%</i>
<i>Offer repair</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>41%</i>
<i>Promise of forbearance</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>4%</i>

Looking at the data gathered in this apology situation, there is a very close relationship between the speaker and the hearer as they are friends. Almost every student gave their apologies for the situation the regret strategy still received the highest attention (*"sorry/my apologies/my bad"*), and this account for 74%. For this situation, explanation of the offence received more attention, recording 30% (*"I am sorry, I accidentally ripped the page, I was walking while putting the book back in my bag when suddenly someone bumped into me. I tried holding it but unfortunately, I held it by the page", "...my little sister ripped the cover page whilst playing around or rather being naughty."*). About 70 percent of the student accepted responsibility of the offense (*"It was my fault, I was careless", "I must have been careless..."*). There was a promise of repair from 41% of the responses (*"I'll fix it", "I promise I will replace it"*), with only 4% was provided for promise for forbearance (*"I am really sorry it won't happen again"*). Here are some responses from the students.

Situation 9. You borrowed a book from a best friend, and you ripped the cover page by accident. You are giving back the book to your friend.

Friend: Oh, what happened to the book?

- I accidentally tore the cover of your book; I am very sorry about that. I will try and repair it for you.
- It ripped, but I will repair it.
- Friend, I ripped the cover page accidentally, my bad.
- I am so sorry I accidentally ripped the book cover page.

- I'm sorry; I accidentally ripped the cover page. I'll fix it.
- I must have been careless while reading. If you give me a month, I can save up and buy a new one.
- I accidentally ripped the cover by mistake, if there is something I can do please let me know.
- I accidentally ripped the cover off I am so sorry.
- I am really I somehow misplaced it or didn't take care of it. I am sorry it got torn.
- I wanted to inform you via text but felt face-to-face would be better, I was in a rush and grabbed it and it tore. I am sorry babe.
- I accidentally ripped. I can pay for it to be repaired or for a new book if that's ok.
- I'm sorry I ripped your book; I promise I will replace it.
- Sorry, I accidentally ripped the cover page. I will fix it.
- I am sorry, I accidentally ripped the page while reading. I was walking while putting the book back in my bag when suddenly someone bumped into me. I tried holding it but unfortunately, I held it by the page. I am sorry. I am willing to pay for damages.
- I am sorry I will replace the book; you know my love for books, it was a real; mistake.
- A lot was going on, I'm sorry.
- I am sorry chomie, my little sister ripped the cover page whilst playing around or rather being naughty. Sorry chomie.
- It fell off the table, so when I picked it up the cover page ripped off, my apologies.
- Did the book not fall, I am really sorry it won't happen again.
- I am really sorry. I tore it by accident.

Situation 10

You wanted to meet your English professor in his office, but you went to the wrong office and interrupted a strange teacher's writing. What will you say to them?

Teacher: It's all right. Take it easy.

The data gathered for these responses given by students clearly pointed out that more than 70% of respondents showed regrets (*"sorry/I am so sorry/I am sorry, I apologise, my apologies*). The social distance for the speaker and hearer is quite high so that is the reason why the regrets acquired higher percentages. Only few students could manage to give explanations of their accounts with only 30% (*"Apologies for the intrusion, it seems have lost my way around the building"* and *"Excuse me, I thought this was my English professor's office, do you know where I can find him perhaps?"*). About 70% of students showed responsibility of the offense (*"I entered the wrong office", "I thought I was entering the right office", "Looks like I had the wrong one."*), with only 41% offering a repair (*"...please provide me the correct directions"*). A mere 4% was recorded for a promise of forbearance.

Situation 10. You wanted to meet your English professor in his office, but you went to the wrong office and interrupted a strange teacher's writing. What will you say to them?

.....

Teacher: *It's all right. Take it easy.*

- Excuse me ma'am I thought this was the office of Dr Peel, I apologize for the interruption.
- Sorry
- Sorry sir, I was looking for my English professor.
- I apologize for the interruption, I'm in the wrong office.
- Oh, so sorry ma'am/sir, I think I am lost. May I please know where Dr Peel's office is?

- Apologies for the intrusion, it seems have lost my way around the building. Have a blessed day ahead.
- My apologies ma'am, I was looking for my English professor.
- My apologies Doctor, I thought I had the right address.
- My apologies, it appears I confused the offices. Sorry for the interruption.
- Sorry for the interruption, I was looking for Dr A's office. Looks like I had the wrong one. Pardon me.
- I'm sorry. I entered the wrong office.
- Excuse me, I thought this was my English professor's office, do you know where I can find him perhaps?
- Sorry, I was looking for prof David's office, my apology.
- I am sorry, do you know where... 's office is?
- I am sorry, was looking for my lecturer and thought this was his office. Please excuse me.
- My apologies sis/madam, I was looking for miss... class. Can sir please provide me the correct directions?
- Excuse me Mrs. /Mr., I did not mean to intrude, wrong office.
- I am sorry sir/ma'am, I thought it was Mr. (English prof's name) office. Sorry sir/ma'am.
- Sorry for the disruption. I was looking for the English professor's office.
- Sorry, I am looking for Mr.... can you please refer me to him, because I believe this is his office.

Table 14: Apologies situation 5 results

Strategy	Statements	N	%
regret	Sorry ...	20	74%
explanation	I apologise ...	8	30%

responsibility	I am so sorry/ I am sorry ...	19	70%
Offer repair	My apologies ...	11	41%
A promise of forbearance	Excuse me ...	1	4%

Situation 11

Mary and you are classmates. Someone in the class borrowed money from you and did not give it back. You insisted that Mary was the person who borrowed money from you. Mary insisted that she did not borrow money from you. At that moment, another student came into the classroom and told you that he was the person who had borrowed the money.

Mary (angrily): Do you believe me now?

Table 15: Apologies situation 12 Results

Strategy	N	%
Regret	24	89%
Explanation	13	48%
Responsibility	8	30%

The last apology strategy offers a quite different data as compared to the rest of the situation with only three of the five under analysis strategies recorded. A series of short responses were given in this situation. The regret strategy as in most situation recorded 89% of the responses (*"I am sorry/genuinely sorry, I apologise, please forgive me, my sincere apologies"*). Offer of an explanation accounted for 48 % whereby some explained why they thought Mary was the one who borrowed the money (*"I am sincerely sorry Mary, I confused the person that borrowed the money"*, *"I am sorry for falsely accusing you. I didn't mean it. I just couldn't remember who I gave money."*). Lastly about 30% of the students did acknowledge

being responsible for the offense (*"I strongly take back what I said", "I feel so ashamed, I should have waited.*).

Situation 11. Mary and you are classmates. Someone in the class borrowed money from you and did not give it back. You insisted that Marry was the person who borrowed money from you. Mary insisted that she did not borrow money from you. At that moment, another student came into the classroom and told you that he was the person who had borrowed the money.

Mary (angrily): Do you believe me now?

- I am sorry Mary; I really did think it was you I borrowed the money to. I apologise.
- Yes
- I am sorry, I do believe in you now it was just a misconception.
- Yes, and I apologise for falsely accusing you, I was so convinced it was you.
- I'm sorry.
- Yes, I do. I did not mean to doubt you. I hope you understand my flaw.
- I feel so ashamed, I should have waited. I am genuinely sorry.
- Yes Mary, and I am so sorry for blaming you.
- I am sincerely sorry Mary, I confused the person that borrowed the money.
- I must have confused you for him, I's so sorry Mary.
- Yes, I am sorry.
- I'm sorry, I got confused.
- Please forgive me! I was mistaken.
- Yes. I am sorry that I didn't.
- I am sorry Mary, I am tripping.
- Yes, I am so sorry please accept my apology as I made an incorrect assumption.

- No, because I know you and not him. I am not imagining this, Mary. Give my money please.
- I am so sorry Mary, I honestly thought you were the one that borrowed my money. I am sorry please forgive me.
- Yes, I am sorry for the way I have reacted. My apologies once again.
- Yah, it was a mistake and I strongly take back what I said.
- I was mistaken, I am really sorry. I feel really bad right now.
- I am sorry for accusing you Marry.
- Marry my sincere apologies for accusing you.
- Yes, I do. I'm sorry for this misunderstanding.
- I am sorry for falsely accusing you. I didn't mean it. I just couldn't remember who I gave money.

4.6.2. Student's responses to complaint strategies

Table 16: List of complaint situations

Complaint situations	
Complaint 1	Complaint to a group member who is always late
Complaint 2	Professor who did not finish your recommendation letter
Complaint 3	Professor who speaks very quietly
Complaint 4	A clerk who did not make copies of your assignment

The table shows four complaint situations that were given to students to complete and complain on different situations at hand. Their responses show different strategies employed in making these complaints. The summary of their responses is listed below where *formulaic*, *lexical* and *syntactic* responses were recorded from more than one student. It further indicates the categories into which these responses fall.

Situation 12. Yesterday you placed an order at the photocopy shop for 10 bound copies of your assignment. Today you must deliver all 10 copies to your professor by 12:00 noon. When you go to the photocopy shop to pick up your booklet the clerk, who you recognize from one of your classes seems confused and unaware of your request.

You: Hi, I'm [your name]. Do you have my assignment booklet ready?

Clerk: Hmmm. Uh, I don't see anything here under your name.

Table 17: complaints results situation 1

Category	Strategy	N	Frequency of use
No explicit reproach	Hints	16	59%
Irritation/annoyance	Annoyance	5	19%
	Consequence	1	4%
Allegation	Indirect	4	15%
	Direct	-	-
Blame	Modified	5	19%
	Explicit blame	-	-
Directive acts	Request for repair	10	37%
	Threat	4	15%

The first complain situation require a response by making a complaint about unprinted booklet. The first category has about 59 % of the responses. Learners show hints of their disapproval of the situation in different ways without explicit reproach in order to observe politeness (*"I have placed my order yesterday at this photocopy shop, and I am supposed to deliver all this copies to my professor by 12:00 noon", or "I thought you guys have my booklet done".*). The second category of irritation, which include annoyance

and consequences caused by the offence shows that the most frequently use strategy is annoyance with 19%, while consequence has only 4% (*"But I ordered it yesterday, how can an order that was placed yesterday not be visible?"*, *"It is unfair because I need the booklet to submit."* Or *"OMG! You are not serious with your works. Now my life is a mess because of your inconvenience."*). The category of allegation shows that students hardly made allegations about the offender or the offence as it only account for 15% (*"You are not serious with your works"*, *"I thought you guys have my booklet done, that's why you called me?"*). Students were able to give blames to the offender, making the blame category to have 19% (*"How careless can you guys be?"*). The directive acts which include request for repair or a threat accounted for 52% together with request for repair receiving the most attention (*"How are we going to fix this, either reprint or I call your manager"*, *" please check again or otherwise just print one immediately"*, *"Can you make copies of it now?"*).

Yesterday you placed an order at the photocopy shop for 10 bound copies of your assignment. Today you must deliver all 10 copies to your professor by 12:00 noon. When you go to the photocopy shop to pick up your booklet the clerk, who you recognize from one of your classes seems confused and unaware of your request.

You: Hi, I'm [your name]. Do you have my assignment booklet ready?

Clerk: Hmmm. Uh, I don't see anything here under your name.

.....

- I had asked for copies of the booklet to be printed yesterday as I need to hand them in today at 12, please recheck and see how you can assist me to have them ready by 12 please.
- Please check again, I am sure it is there.
- I have placed my order yesterday at this photocopy shop, and I am supposed to deliver all this copies to my professor by 12:00 noon, what do you guys expect me to do now?

- Can you kindly recheck, I placed an order yesterday for 10 bond copies of it?
- But I was here yesterday, and you said you will have it ready by this morning.
- I was here yesterday and placed an order of 10 bounds of my assignment. Please check again.
- Well, that's strange, how don't you see my name if I was here yesterday? You need to improve your services.
- Can you kindly please check again because I placed an order of 10 bound copies yesterday?
- Well, I can show the receipt confirming my order so you can write a note that will be late because of your shortcomings and then print one booklet as you were supposed.
- But I placed an order here for 10 bound copies. What am I supposed to do now?

Situation 13

One of your professors speaks very quietly, and it is hard for you to understand him. You want to talk to him about this problem. You will say:

The findings from the situation are interesting as the situation allows the students to express themselves in a situation they mostly encounter at the University. The highest number of complaint realization in politeness is recorded in the category of directive acts with requesting for repair dominating threats (*"my I ask you to please raise your volume so I can hear you better?"*, *"...therefore can you kindly rise up a bit of your voice? Can you kindly make adjustments?"*, *"I think I have to address this"*). Together they account for 85% of the responses, this might be due to the fact that this strategy was more required in this situation. Less than 50% of students indicated no explicit reproach (*"Sir, I've observed that during our classes sir tends to speak very quietly in a way that I cannot hear what message you are trying to get through"*, *"Sir, I am having difficulties capturing what you are saying, do you mind speaking a little louder please?"*). The irritation category accounted for 22% together as expression of irritation and consequences are recorded (*"Whenever you speak, I hardly hear*

you and it affects my learning process”). The data explicitly shows that the accusation category where direct and indirect accusation strategies have accounted for 11%. (*“I try almost every day to hear your voice, but it is just too low*). The category of blame was also realised in quite few utterances (*“you speak too low”, “I really don’t understand you when you speak”*).

The table below indicates the data from the above description.

Table 18: Complaints situation 2 results

Category	Strategy	Responses	N	Frequency of use
No explicit reproach	Hints		13	48%
Irritation/Disapproval	Annoyance		3	11%
	Consequences		3	11%
Allegation/Accusation	Direct		3	11%
	Indirect		-	-
Blame	Modified		5	19%
	Explicit		-	-
Directive acts	Request for repair		22	81%
	Threat		1	4%

Some of the learners’ responses are presented below.

Situation 13: One of your professors speaks very quietly, and it is hard for you to understand him. You want to talk to him about this problem. You will say:

- Excuse me sir, I wish to bring to your attention that I find it difficult to hear you during lessons, my I ask you to please raise your volume so I can hear you better.
- Nothing

- Dear professor, I really don't understand you when you speak, therefore can you kindly rise a bit of your voice? Can you kindly make adjustments?
- I am finding it hard to understand you because I can barely hear you.
- Sorry for interrupting you sir/madam. Could you kindly please speak louder, it's a bit difficult to hear what you are saying.
- Professor you speak very quietly, and it is very hard to understand you, can you try speaking louder?
- Prof, I find it very difficult to hear what you are saying, maybe you could just speak up a bit.
- Sir, I am having difficulties capturing what you are saying, do you mind speaking a little louder please?
- Sorry sir, I can't hear you quite well. Can you help me here?
- Excuse me sir, but I can't hear you well. Do you mind speaking a little bit louder?
- Sir, I have a concern. Whenever you speak, I hardly hear you and it affects my learning process.
- I'm sorry sir/madam, could you please repeat yourself and speak louder?
- Doc, please speak up just a bit, it is hard to hear you.
- Sir, I've observed that during our classes sir tends to speak very quietly in a way that I cannot hear what message you are trying to get through. Would it be possible if sir could please speak up or rather use a mic during the lecture?
- Sir is it possible for you to speak a little bit louder because I can't hear you from where I sit.
- Professor you speak quite low in class sometimes that it is so hard to pick up what you say. I try almost every day to hear your voice, but it is just too low. Please try to raise your voice a little.

Situation 14: You want to study in a university abroad. You have asked a professor at your university to write a letter of recommendation for you which should be finished by today. It turned out that your professor hasn't done it. You must send it with an application form as soon as possible. What will you say to him?

Table 19: Complaints situation 3 results

Category	Strategy	Responses	N	Frequency of use
No explicit reproach	Hints		8	27%
Irritation/Disapproval	Annoyance		2	7%
	Consequences		3	11%
Allegation/Accusation	Direct		1	4%
	Indirect		-	
Blame	Modified		4	15%
	Explicit		-	
Directive acts	Request for repair		4	15%
	Threat		3	11%

The data presented in the table shows huge gap as compared to the other situation. This is due to the fact that most respondents have made requests than making complaints. No explicit reproach category accounted to 27% from the responses or from the utterances made by students such as (*"Excuse me sir, I had asked for your assistance with the letter of recommendation for my university application abroad, I did not want to rush you, however I urgently need the letter today..."*, *"Sir, this is just a quick reminder that I need to submit my letter of recommendation as soon as possible"*). About 26% was recorded in directive acts category with request for repair obtaining the highest percentages (*"please write it for me as soon as possible..."*, *"...so please, please finish it"*, *"can we sit together now so you write the letter?"*). The data

also indicated that only less than 20% of students made expressed irritation or annoyance of the situation. This might be because they kept a 'bottom-up' relationship with the professor. Responses like: *"but this is very important. If I don't get it by Friday, I won't be able to study further..."*, *"Just leave it, I'll ask another lecturer"*, *"Prof, this is so important to me, and you chose not to do it?"* Lastly Blame received only 15% and allegation with only 1% (*"I thought you could be done with my letter"*).

You want to study in a university abroad. You have asked a professor at your university to write a letter of recommendation for you which should be finished by today. It turned out that your professor hasn't done it. You must send it with an application form as soon as possible. What will you say to him?

.....

- Excuse me sir, I had asked for your assistance with the letter of recommendation for my university application abroad, I did not want to rush you, however I urgently need the letter today and want to ask you to please write it for me as soon as possible if you could please assist me with this matter I would highly appreciate it.
- Just leave it, I'll ask another lecturer.
- Is it possible that professor can please write the recommendation letter now if he/she is not busy?
- Dr, you said it will be done today, what do I do now?
- I assume that you have been busy. If professor would kindly take time to assist me, I will be very thankful. I do not mean to bother, it's just that the due date is today.
- Sir, this is just a quick reminder that I need to submit my letter of recommendation as soon as possible. Can sir please let me know when it will be done?
- Prof, this is so important to me, and you chose not to do it? I am so disappointed.

- Prof, my apologies for you but I just wanted to check in and see if you have perhaps completed my recommendation letter.
- I understand that you're busy, but I have a deadline and you made a commitment by agreeing to do it, so please, please finish it.
- Sir, I understand you are busy, but this is very important. If I don't get it by Friday, I won't be able to study further.
- Sir, I thought you could be done with my letter. I am running late, and I am afraid that I won't be able to submit my application today.
- Sir/ madam, my letter of recommendation is due soon. What must I do now?
- Dr, please can we sit together now so you write the letter? I need to submit today.

Situation 15: You are leading a group assignment discussion. One of your group members came 20 minutes late and this has already been a second time he/she came late. What would you say to him /her? This situation presented different results from the previous one as the speaker kept a 'top-down' relationship with the recipient in this situation. About 85% is accounted for the complaint category of directive acts and this obviously was due to the nature of the situation. Request of repair again dominated the threat strategy in this category ("*...however I would like to ask you that this be the last time that this happens...*", "*late coming will not be tolerated this should be your last warning*", "*Let me know if you are not serious, so I can get your replacement...*"). About 33% was made up of blames whereby modified blames were executed by the speaker ("*This is the second time you are not punctual and no notice beforehand*", "*...because we can't always be waiting for you*"). The category of irritation or disapproval managed to get above 40% of the responses. Some of the responses given were: "*Group discussions are very important, and it is important for you to attend all of them and be on time*", "*Your part is equally important, so you're dragging us behind*". The only category to receive the lowest realisation in this situation is allegation with only 4% ("*If you don't want to be part of the group, just say so...*").

Table 20: Complaints situation 4 results

Category	Strategy	Responses	N	Frequency of use
No explicit reproach	Hints		9	33%
Irritation/Disapproval	Annoyance		5	19%
	Consequences		6	22%
Allegation/Accusation	Direct		1	4%
	Indirect		-	-
Blame	Modified		12	44%
	Explicit		-	-
Directive acts	Request for repair		14	52%
	Threat		9	33%

4.7. Realisation of syntactical structures in request, apologies and Complaints

In linguistic, behaviour, politeness motives may be realized phonologically, lexically, and/or syntactically (Subbarao, Agnihotri, & Mukherjee, 1991). Also, pragmatics includes the knowledge of syntax and semantics and is context-based. Context-based, may conceive three kinds of contexts which may be seen as a pyramid: In linguistic, the narrowest, where syntax and certain semantics function; In social, where syntax and certain semantic function. Table 18 reports on the variety of syntactic forms observed in the request, apologies and complaint strategies tasks. Many utterances were formed with the use of interrogatives, while the other three syntactic structures were significantly less common. It is worth noting that the preferred syntactic choice shifted from conditionals in request strategies to interrogatives. Such shift could perhaps be an indication that the recall of syntactically simpler structures, such as interrogatives, may be easier in face-to-face interaction, hence less pragmatic awareness students may be inclined to rely on these more.

Table 21: Syntactical forms for all speech acts

Syntactic form	Frequency of use		
	Requests	Apologies	Complaints
Interrogatives	51%	20%	36%
Conditionals	21%	18%	21%
Imperatives	7%	59%	106%
statements	-	88%	24%

The analysis of their use in the different request situations in table 18. led to a number of observations.

First of all, interrogatives were the most common form in all situations, but especially overly accounting to more than 50%. Noticeably, they were replaced by conditionals with (21%) due to the fact that there was a balanced situation when it comes to power. The two hearers in this speech act were only their fellow students and their lectures. Imperatives came third with only 7%. Imperatives were rare, which was somewhat expected, as their tendency to imply a threat to H's face may prompt speakers to avoid them to avoid confrontation when making requests. Similarly, to apologies, a range of syntactic forms were displayed in complaint speech utterances to show politeness in different situations. Imperatives provided the most utterances with 106%, followed by interrogatives with a huge gap that accounted for 36% which is lower than the use in requests. Statements and conditionals were used less frequently with 24% and 21% respectively.

4.8 Discussion of findings

4.8.1. Student's level of pragmatic competence in the communicative strategies at the discourse level.

According to Ellis, (1994) pragmatic competence consists of the knowledge that speaker-hearers use in order to engage in communication, including how speech acts are successfully performed. Knowing

students' level of pragmatic competence can provide convincing evidence of language education experts to prepare effective curriculum and teaching material (Yuan, 2012). Students' pragmatic competencies were assessed using the WDCT test. The researcher was granted permission by the relevant authority at the Namibia University of Science and Technology through the Faculty of Commerce, Human Sciences and Education. Assessing pragmatic competence was done in terms of responses to speech acts of apologies, requests and complaints in different communicative situations. In request strategies, learners are found to have shown high pragmatic competence as more indirect strategies are used.

The study developed - a self-perceived pragmatic and communicative competence rubric, to find out students' perception of their own competence in different communication situations. The scale was intended to let the respondents define their own pragmatic and communicative competence. According to Shankule and Woldemariam (2015), Knowledge of communication strategies empowers individuals to communicate, express themselves, perform many different functions, and attain satisfactory outcomes. It is for this reason that this rubric was developed to determine their perception of pragmatic and communication competence, thus determine their level and understanding of pragmatic competence. Analysing the use of language in communicative situations is regarded as one core business in pragmatics (Haugh, 2009). The data indicate that most students feel that it is important that they learn to communicate with others in English effectively, while on the contrary most feel communicative activities are a waste of time in English class. An average number of students believes that University English courses provide much understanding on intercultural communication, conversation rules, usage and how to use English appropriately and above average number of them believe they should be taught how to use English to communicate appropriately. This asserts that more students feel the need to have their communicative and pragmatic awareness, and this demonstrate the gap the feel they have when it comes to pragmatic competence.

4.8.2 The link between utterances/speech acts and politeness in discussions at NUST

The findings of the study indicate that there is a huge link between speech acts and politeness as politeness is expressed through these utterances. NUST students were able to recognise the apology situation and apply proper expression of apology which demonstrated high the awareness of being polite to save the recipients' face, therefore demonstrating high pragmatic competence. Students were able to acknowledge responsibility in their apologies and many promised to ease the situation by the promise of repair and forbearance. The utterances made by students in requests also demonstrated an average politeness level.

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), a speaker making an FTA, such as a request, must determine the appropriate degree of politeness by assessing three independent social variables: relative power, social distance, and the degree of imposition.

4.8.3. The connection between syntactic structures and politeness levels in requests complaints and apologies of students at NUST

It should be noted that, while pragmatic competence includes the ability to choose appropriate language for the right context, the goal of this study was not to rank these grammatical (syntactic structure) choices in terms of effectiveness, but rather to assess their general appropriateness in the given context and identify speakers' preferences for their use. In terms of syntactic forms, it is worth noting that students frequently used interrogatives and conditionals more in their request strategies, while on the other hand, imperatives were rarely used in requests. There was no sign of declarative/statements use in request strategies. In speech acts of apologies, declaratives were more utilised by students with few interrogatives and imperatives. Conditionals were rarely used in making apologies. Imperatives showed a high use by the students in complaints with interrogatives. Conditionals and declaratives received little attention from

students. The data show that all syntactic forms were used to some extent in all speech acts, but several trends in their use have been identified.

Additionally, the participants exhibited a wide range of responses that could be aligned with most of the broad request type strategies. The indirect conventional (hearer-oriented) realized in the majority of the request strategies. Interrogatives were mostly used in apologies, where participants give an account of what happened before asking H to grant a wish (i.e. extend the due date of an assignment). Although the student's types of syntactic structures utilised were identical at each speech act strategy, they differed greatly in terms of complexity. The data revealed that, there was a tendency to use more grammatically complex forms in terms of tense and aspect (e.g. *I would like to kindly request...; can you please; could you please; I was hoping you would...*). However, the learners showed some pragmatic development in the L2, as evidenced by their increased use of syntactic downgrades.

Finally, imperatives were used far less frequently than the other syntactic forms in each speech act. A closer examination of the data revealed that they were primarily used in complaints involving equal social power, where participants were required to complain to a classmate about not committing to a specific task.

4.9. Chapter Summary

This chapter deals with the presentation of results from the instruments used; discourse completion task and questionnaire, and how they helped with attaining the objectives of this research. The presented results from the WDCT were taken from three speech acts which are: requests, apologies, and complaints. The results showed a difference in politeness in different speech acts. Linguistic devices mainly syntactical structures were also analysed as they were used in participants' responses. The questionnaire presented biographical information of participants and assessed the awareness of students of the pragmatic

competence using a given rubric. It further analysed and discussed the results presented and provides judgements on the students' pragmatic competence in communicative situations.

CHAPTER FIVE

Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1 Conclusions

This study aimed to contribute towards the existing literature on the assessment of NUST L2 students' pragmatic competence at communicative discourse in academic context. The research questions focused on evaluating the pragmatic competence of NUST second year students, the link between utterances/speech acts and politeness and assess the different pragmalinguistic devices (syntactical structures) and politeness. The study utilised three speech acts, namely, apologies, request, and complaints through Written Discourse Completion Test, to achieve the aim of discovering the students' pragmatic competence and also assess the syntactical structures found in utterances. A questionnaire was also used to collect the biographical information of the participants with a rubric which was used to get participants' awareness and perception of language use in communicative situation.

The results from the quantitative and qualitative data were analysed to address the study's research questions. The speech acts realisation strategies were classified according to Trosborg (1995). The results revealed that majority of the participants opted for indirect strategies when formulating their speech acts. Furthermore, the politeness level of students/participants was analysed based on different speech acts (request, apologies and complaints). In requests, there is inconsistency in the use of politeness strategies. Willingness, ability and suggestory are the mainly frequently chosen strategies. This mainly happened because different situations were encountered requiring different approaches. Several participants could not observe social distance and relation of power which also show low level of pragmatic competence as some used face threatening acts.

Different syntactical downgraders were deduced from the utterances and analysed. Most frequently used syntactical structures are interrogatives, conditionals, and imperatives. Imperatives do not show positive

politeness and most interrogatives were not polite. Few students utilised direct speech acts like in commands which indicate rudeness and threaten the face of the hearer. This emphasizes the importance of providing educational input to make L2 users aware of how and which specific linguistic choices help them achieve their pragmatic goals, as well as assessing pragmatic competence, primarily in an L2 academic context.

5.2 Recommendations

The limited empirical information available about the differences in pragmatic competence amongst Namibia University L2 students at the higher levels of language proficiency prompted the rationale for the current study. The findings foreseen to be useful for making inferences about Namibian University students' pragmatic skills for their academic activities and for informing the content of English courses in Namibian universities regarding how successful students' communication with tutors and peers might be enhanced. It is therefore according to the findings of the current study that the researcher suggests that:

- The goal of implementing a variety of instructional activities is to assist students become more effective, fluent, and successful communicators in the target language. This is only feasible if there are grammatically and pragmatically competent language teachers.
- Furthermore, the study of various communicative patterns not only helps teachers to be active participants in social interactions, but it can also assist their students become active classroom participants as well as encourage them to think critically and creatively in a foreign language.
- Pragmatics and pragmalinguistic devices should be thought from secondary school to university level in multilingual Namibian education system and it should be part of teachers' and Teachers Vocational Education and Training (TVET) training courses. This should be done to acquaint students with better pragmatic competence and knowledge at an early stage to avoid pragmatic failure.

- One idea is to engage learners in cultural discussions about the socio-cultural norms of the L2. Following that, the educator may design activities that require students to communicate in ways that reflect L2 norms. One common way of doing this can be an activity that requires learners to choose from certain linguistic forms that are used for certain speech.

5.3. Implications for future studies

- A different pragmatic theory such as conversational implicature, the cooperative principle, conversational maxims and relevance theory can be applied to study the pragmatic competence at separate fields such as tourism, nursing, or parliament debates, political speeches etc, in Namibian context.
- A similar study can be taken to research the correlation of linguistic devices and pragmatic at the Namibia University of Science and technology with interviews and role plays as instruments of data collection.
- A study looking at the teachers in Namibia from different ethnic groups and their influence in the pragmatic competence of learners.
- Finally, there is a need to investigate and assess the influence of media and (social media) and technology and how they play a role in enhancing the pragmatic competence of users.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Written Discourse Completion Task

Dear Participant

My name is Wilhem Henghono, studying my Master of English and Applied Linguistics at Namibia University of Science and Technology (NUST) under the supervision of professor Haileleul Woldemariam (NUST) and Dr. Thresia Waandja (NUST). I am presently conducting a study focused on *pragmatic evaluation of communicative competence of second year students of the Department of Communication at the Namibia University of Science and Technology*. Therefore, my research stands in need of your participation and assistance.

I will offer you the essential information and invite you to participate in this study. Before you decide to participate in this study, it is paramount that you understand why the research is being conducted and what it involves. If there are any portions of this paper that you do not understand, please ask for clarification.

The study adheres to strong ethical standards. Your personal information will not be shared with anyone. The information you enter will be kept private and will only be used for research purposes. At any moment, you have the right to revoke your consent to participate in the study. You will not be subjected to any punishment or action.

Thank you for participating in this study.

Instructions: Please read the following scenarios and write what you believe you would say in each scenario if you were faced with this situation in real life.

MAKING REQUESTS

1. Your friend attends classes regularly and takes good notes. You often miss class and ask your friend for the lecture notes. What will you say?

You:.....
.....

2. You want another student (who is not your close friend) to lend you some lecture notes.

What are you going to say to him/her?

You:
.....
.....

Friend: Well...then I guess I'll have to ask someone else.

3. You are a student and you want to ask your teacher for an extension for finishing an essay paper. What are you going to tell your teacher?

You:
.....
.....

4. You have received a much lower grade on an exam than you had expected. You had put a lot of effort into the class and you believe you had prepared very well for the exam and had performed well on the exam. You want your professor to reconsider your exam and explain why you received a low grade. What do you say to your professor?

You:

.....

.....

5. In the classroom, the lecturer has taught a new topic. You did not understand some part of the topic. Therefore, you meet the lecturer. What are you going to say?

You:.....

.....

MAKING APOLOGIES

6. You borrowed a book from your instructor, which you promised to return the following day. However, when you came to class, you realised you forgot to bring it along.

You:

.....

.....

Lecturer: *Ok, but please remember it tomorrow.*

7. You offended a fellow student during a class discussion. After the lesson, the fellow student mentions this fact and you admitted you were wrong. What will you tell her?

You:

.....

.....

8. A friend arranges to meet you yesterday in order to get some notes from you to study for an exam. He waited for an hour, but you didn't come. He calls you up:

Friend: You know, I waited for you for an hour yesterday.

You:

.....

.....

9. You borrowed a book from a best friend, and you ripped the cover page by accident. You are giving back the book to your friend.

Friend: Oh, what happened to the book?

You:

.....

.....

10. You wanted to meet your English professor in his office, but you went to the wrong office and interrupted a strange teacher's writing. What will you say to them?

You:

.....

.....

Teacher: *It's all right. Take it easy.*

11. Mary and you are classmates. Someone in the class borrowed money from you and did not give it back. You insisted that Marry was the person who borrowed money from you. Mary insisted that she did not borrow money from you. At that moment, another student came into the classroom and told you that he was the person who had borrowed the money.

Mary (angrily): Do you believe me now?

You:

.....

.....

MAKING COMPLAINTS

12. Yesterday you placed an order at the photocopy shop for 10 bound copies of your assignment.

Today you must deliver all 10 copies to your professor by 12:00 noon. When you go to the photocopy shop to pick up your booklet the clerk, who you recognize from one of your classes seems confused and unaware of your request.

You: Hi, I'm [your name]. Do you have my assignment booklet ready?

Clerk: Hmmm. Uh, I don't see anything here under your name.

You:.....

.....

13. One of your professors speaks very quietly, and it is hard for you to understand him. You want to talk to him about this problem. You will say:

You:

.....

.....

14. You want to study in a university abroad. You have asked a professor at your university to write a letter of recommendation for you which should be finished by today. It turned out that your professor hasn't done it. You must send it with an application form as soon as possible. What will you say to him?

You:

.....

.....

15. You are leading a group assignment discussion. One of your group members came 20 minutes late and this has already been a second time he/she came late. What would you say to him /her?

You:

.....

.....

.....

Appendix B

Questionnaire

Please fill in the following questionnaire by ticking in the appropriate box where necessary.

Section 1: Background information of the participants

Please tick in the appropriate box.

1. SEX

Gender	
Male	
Female	

2. AGE GROUP

Age group	
15-20	
20-25	
25-30	
30-35	

3. HOME LANGUAGE

HOME LANGUAGE	
English	
Oshiwambo	
Otjiherero	
Damara-Nama	
Lozi	
Rukwangali	
Khoekhoegowab	

Others	
--------	--

5. Level of education: Undergraduate ☐ Post graduate ☐ others ☐

6. How many years have you been studying English?

Number of years:	
12-14	
14-16	
16-20	

7. Why do you study English?

- a. It is prescribed and compulsory b. It is useful for my career
- c. I like it d. Any other (please specify).....

8. Given an opportunity, do you want to study the English language further? Why?

.....

9. Using the below 1-5 scale, please indicate by circling the most correct response that best describes your

English perception best: **1 = Strongly disagree (SD), 2 = Disagree (DA), 3 = Neutral (N), 4 = Agree (A), 5 = Strongly Agree (SA)**

	STATEMENTS	1	2	3	4	5
10	I think it is important that I learn to communicate with others in English effectively					
11	I believe learning English grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation mean learning English					
12	I pay attention to grammar errors when communicating in English					

13	University English courses provide much understanding on intercultural communication, conversation rules, usage and how to use English appropriately					
14	Communicative activities are a waste of time in English class					
15	I admire people who can communicate with others in English fluently and accurately.					
16	I prefer speaking my native language than English to others at school					
17	I believe English lecturers should teach us how to communicate with people and how to use English appropriately in the English classes.					
18	I know how to obtain cultural knowledge and appropriateness of language use in my learning.					
19	Tasks used in English class provide me knowledge and skills to improve my ability to use English appropriately.					
20	I prefer my English classes to be focused on communicative language teaching and practice with grammar explained when necessary.					