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Politeness and English as a Foreign Language

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Prohlášení

Prohlašuji, že jsem tuto diplomovou práci vypracovala samostatně, a to s využitím zdrojů, které jsou uvedeny v seznamu literatury.

V Olomouci dne 5. 12. 2023 …………………………………….

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Abstract

This diploma thesis deals with teaching politeness to EFL learners. It aims to investigate the effectiveness of pedagogical intervention in enhancing the competence of Czech 9th-grade EFL learners to use polite requests appropriately in English, explore the effectiveness of deductive and inductive approaches, and examine potential gender-based differences in response to these approaches. A quantitative method is employed, utilising a pre-test and post-test control group design as part of a quasi-experimental design conducted in natural settings at a Czech elementary school. Explicit instruction is used for both approaches. The results indicate that pedagogical intervention is significantly more effective than the absence of it. Moreover, no significant difference is revealed between the effectiveness of the deductive and inductive approaches. Similarly, no statistically significant difference is found between the response of males and females to these two approaches in terms of efficiency.

Key words: English language teaching, linguistic politeness, pragmatics, English as a foreign language, foreign language teaching, requests, deductive approach, inductive approach

1 Introduction

In a world where cross-cultural communication is vital, the nuanced use of language plays a crucial role in successful interaction. Therefore, when aiming to increase foreign language learners' proficiency, it is essential to enhance not only their grammatical skills but also their ability to use language effectively. Politeness is a phenomenon that extends beyond structural correctness, entailing a balance between expressing ideas and consideration, respect, and cultural appropriateness. In foreign language education, mastering politeness conventions should have a much more significant role for the learners to avoid potential conversation breakdowns.

This study aims to investigate the effectiveness of pedagogical intervention in enhancing pragmatic competence. It provides a comparison of two teaching approaches, deductive and inductive, with a specific focus on increasing the ability of 9^{th}-grade Czech English language learners to use polite requests in English appropriately.

The first part of the thesis presents the theoretical background for this study. It includes pragmatics, its universality and role in language learning, politeness and its various models, potential gender-based differences in politeness, and the relationship between politeness and English as a foreign language (EFL). The last topic is devoted to the speech act of request, highlighting its similarities and differences in English and Czech.

The second part of the thesis, the practical part, reports on the research conducted to fulfil the thesis aim and to answer its research questions. To do so, a quasi-experiment was carried out with a pre-test and post-test control group design, focusing on 9^{th}-grade learners studying EFL and their ability to use (polite) requests appropriately.

2 Pragmatics

In order to fully understand politeness and its importance in foreign language teaching, it is essential to look at it from a broader perspective and focus to some extent on pragmatics as well. Pragmatics can be defined as "the study of language use in context." (Huang, 2017, p. 1). This definition is rather broad, yet it can be sufficient for some purposes. For our purpose, however, it is appropriate to provide some definitions that are more detailed, even though it is quite problematic to produce one since, as Huang (2017, p. 1) puts it, "pragmatics is a particularly complex subject with all kinds of disciplinary influences, and few, if any, clear boundaries" (Huang, 2017). He provides two more definitions from two different schools of thought, the first being the Anglo-American tradition. Its definition is as follows:

> *"Pragmatics is 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."* (Huang, 2017, p. 2)

This view of pragmatics is known as "the Anglo-American component view". According to this conception, pragmatics is one of five core components of linguistics, with the other four being semantics, syntax, morphology, phonetics, and phonology. They all have a rather well-defined area of study and belong to the same contrast set. Other "hyphenated" branches of linguistics, like educational linguistics, anthropological linguistics, and sociolinguistics, are located outside this set (Huang, 2017, p. 2).

The second school of thought is "the European Continental tradition". According to their "perspective view",

> *"Pragmatics is a general functional (i.e. cognitive, social, and cultural) perspective on linguistic phenomena in relation to their usage in forms of behaviour. [It] should be seen ... as a specific perspective ... on whatever phonologists, morphologists, syntacticians, semanticists, psycholinguists, sociolinguists, etc. deal with."* (Verschueren, 1999 cited in Huang, 2017, p. 3)

Within this perception of linguistics, "pragmatics is taken to present a functional perspective on all core components and 'hyphenated' areas of linguistics and beyond" (Huang, 2017, p. 3). It is, therefore, substantially wider than the component view. Verschueren (1999, p. 7, 11) states that pragmatics is "the linguistics of language use", and it deals with "the full complexity of linguistic behaviour" (Verschueren, 1999). He claims that it does not belong to the contrast set with the traditional components of linguistic theory (i.e. semantics, syntax, morphology, phonology, and phonetics), which together form "the linguistics of language recourses". That is because the core components have their own unit(s) of analysis. Moreover, pragmatics does not have a place in the set of "interdisciplinary fields of investigation" (such as sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and anthropological linguistics) since it does not have its own extra-linguistic correlational object(s) as all interdisciplinary fields do (Verschueren, 1999, p. 10-11). Verschueren (1999, p. 11) explains that pragmatics functions as "a point of convergence for the interdisciplinary fields of investigation and as a latch between those and the components of the linguistics of language resources" (Verschueren, 1999).

However, as Huang (2017) writes, the two traditions have been converging recently. Moreover, they complement each other, and there is much they can learn from one another. That is because the Anglo-American tradition focuses for the most part on theory and cognitive, philosophical, and formal pragmatics, whereas the European Continental tradition deals with empirical work and socio-cultural pragmatics, cross-cultural pragmatics, intercultural pragmatics, and part of interlanguage pragmatics (Huang, 2017).

According to Yule (1996, p. 4), Pragmatics is "the study of the relationships between linguistic forms and the users of those forms" (Yule, 1996). It involves four areas of study which are concerned with speaker meaning (i.e. the meaning of people's utterances rather than the meaning of the actual words and phrases on their own), contextual meaning (i.e. the meaning in a specific context which influences what the speaker says), the expression of relative distance (i.e. the amount of information that needs to be uttered based on relative closeness or distance), and how more gets communicated than is said (Yule, 1996).

Crystal (2007, p. 275) states that pragmatics "is a branch of linguistics which studies the factors that govern our choice of language in social interaction and the effect of our choice on others" (Crystal, 2007).

Verschueren (1999) provides four traditional research areas of pragmatics. They are deixis, speech acts, implicit meaning, and conversation. Moreover, he presents two more topics which have evolved into domains of research: politeness and argumentation (Verschueren, 1999). According to him, the topics "represent different ways of speaking about common phenomena rather than different phenomena" (Verschueren, 1999, p. 42). He also states that the traditional topics are interconnected. Many of them are complexly connected with politeness. As he states, politeness pertains to the relationship between principles that underlie conversational interaction, specifically those that need flounting (or breaching) of Gricean maxims (see section 3.1), and deixis (Verschueren, 1999).

There have been many attempts at defining pragmatics, explaining its domain of inquiry, and describing where it is situated within the linguistic theory. However, because of the complexity of the subject, various disciplinary influences, and unclear boundaries, it has been rather challenging. In the upcoming sections, the difference between pragmatics, semantics, and sociolinguistics will be discussed. Then, the concepts of pragmatic and sociolinguistic competencies in the context of English language teaching will be presented, and the universality and cross-cultural variations in pragmatics will be introduced. Furthermore, the chapter will explore whether pragmatic development can be observed when applying pedagogical intervention and which approach is more efficient.

2.1 Pragmatics, Semantics, and Sociolinguistics

Pragmatics and semantics both deal with meaning. However, there is a difference between the ways the two fields use the verb "to mean". This can be demonstrated by using the two following sentences: "(1) What does X mean?" and "(2) What did you mean by X?" (Leech, 1983, p. 6). The first sentence demonstrates meaning in semantics which is defined as "a property of expressions in a given language", excluding the speaker, hearer, and the situation (Leech, 1983, p. 6). The second sentence, then, shows meaning in pragmatics, which relates to users of the language (Leech, 1983).

As for sociolinguistics and pragmatics, they are some areas they share. It can, however, be claimed that sociolinguistics deals with "the systematic linguistic correlates of relatively fixed and stable social variables (such as region of origin, social class, ethnicity, sex, age, etc.) on the way an individual speaks" (Thomas, 1995, p. 185). It is unchangeable and provides a "picture" of the language that is used in a certain community at a certain time (Thomas, 1995).

> *"Pragmatics, on the other hand, is mainly concerned with describing the linguistic correlates of relatively changeable features of that same individual (such as relative status, social role) and the way in which the speaker exploits his/her (socio)linguistic repertoire in order to achieve a particular goal."* (Thomas, 1995, p. 185)

Pragmatics is “dynamic” (Thomas, 1995, p. 185). It depicts what speakers from certain communities do with their linguistic repertoire and how they employ them in order to make things change or keep the current situation. Pragmatics exploits sociolinguistics by taking the sociolinguistic characteristics of people’s linguistic repertoires as the starting point. Basically, sociolinguistics informs one about what linguistic resources people have, whereas pragmatics reveals what they do with them (Thomas, 1995). At the intersection of pragmatics and sociolinguistics lies sociopragmatics, a field concerned with how language is used in particular societies while being “context-sensitive” (Huang, 2017; Leech, 2014, p. 13). It, among other topics like social deixis, focuses on politeness. (Huang, 2017).

In conclusion, semantics and pragmatics differ in their treatment of the verb “to mean”, where semantics sees meaning as an inherent property, divorced from context, whereas pragmatics ties meaning to users and situations. Sociolinguistics captures stable linguistic features in communities, while pragmatics has a dynamic focus on changeable aspects. The interplay of pragmatics and sociolinguistics leads to sociopramatics.

2.2 Pragmatic and sociolinguistic competence

Based on The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment (henceforth CEFR) (2020), a policy instrument for language education used across Europe, there are three Communicative language competence: Linguistic competence, Pragmatic competence, and Sociolinguistic competence. These competences are interconnected in any use of language and cannot be separated. (CEFR – Companion volume, 2020)

As mentioned in the previous chapters, there are narrower and wider views of pragmatics dealing with different problematics. The borderlines between pragmatics and other linguistic fields are rather blurry, with pragmatics sharing some areas with other studies, such as sociolinguistics. Therefore, it is appropriate to provide not only the description of pragmatic competence but also of sociolinguistic competence.

According to CEFR (2020), pragmatic competence deals with “user/learner’s knowledge of the principles of language use according to which messages are:

- organised, structured and arranged (“discourse competence”);
- used to perform communicative functions (“functional competence”);
- sequenced according to interactional and transactional schemata (“design competence”)”. (CEFR – Companion volume, 2020, p. 137)

Thornbury (2006, p. 174) claims that pragmatic competence is "the knowledge that language users have that enables them to take contextual factors into account when using and interpreting language" (Thornbury, 2006). This competence requires time to develop even in native language speakers (Thornbury, 2006). As stated by Leech (1983) and Félix-Brasdefer (2017), pragmatic knowledge includes sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competence. The former is concerned with whether one has the knowledge about and can perform according to social norms in particular situations in a certain society, as well as if he/she is familiar with assessing (im)politeness and social distance and social power variables (Leech, 1983; Félix-Brasdefer, 2017). Whereas the latter, pragmalinguistic competence, refers to:

> *"knowledge about and performance of the conventions of language use or the linguistic resources available in a given language that convey 'particular illocutions' in contextually appropriate situations. It includes knowledge of strategies (e.g. directness, conventional indirectness) and the linguistic and nonlinguistic resources (e.g. prosody) used to convey pragmatic meaning, such as the various linguistic resources employed to express an apology […]."* (Félix-Brasdefer, 2017, p. 418)

Sociolinguistic competence is by Holmes (2013, p. 440) defined as "the knowledge which underlies people's ability to use language appropriately" (Holmes, 2013). According to CEFR (2020, p. 136), it deals with "the knowledge and skills required to deal with the social dimension of language use" (CEFR – Companion volume, 2020). The process of acquiring this competence in a non-native language can be difficult and tedious as it requires one to understand how different communities use language based on their social values (Holmes, 2013).

In conclusion, the CEFR outlines three interrelated language competencies, two of which are of interest in this study. Pragmatic competence allows users to consider contextual parameters when utilising and interpreting language. It involves sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competence. Sociolinguistic competence encompasses the knowledge enabling appropriate language use in social contexts.

2.3 Universality and cross-cultural variations in pragmatics

As stated by Kasper and Rose (2001), many pragmatic phenomena are, based on existing theoretical works and empirical studies, used worldwide. According to them, "basic orientations to the effectiveness and social cohesiveness of communicative action, such as the Cooperative Principle (Grice, 1975) and politeness (Brown & Levinson, 1987), regulate communicative action and interaction throughout communities" (Kasper & Rose, 2001, p. 4-5). The definition of "cooperative and polite", as well as the practical application of the mentioned principles in different situations, differs among different societies (Kasper & Rose, 2001, p. 4-5). For instance, Kerkam (2015) claims that Arabic speakers do not employ indirectness for the purpose of sounding polite. Unlike English speakers, they interpret it negatively and deliberately use it to perform face-threating acts (see section 3.2) (Kerkam, 2015; Mills, 2015). Anybody can indirectly communicate their aim and conclude the message based on information depending on contextual details, with the use of hints found in the sentences as well as diverse 'knowledge sources' (see Gumperz, 1996) (Kasper & Rose, 2001, p. 5). Kasper and Rose (2001) also argue that the major categories of illocutionary acts, as provided by Searle (1976), which include representatives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations, and some 'individual communicative acts', such as apologies, complaints and requests, are present in every society. Furthermore, it is part of 'universal pragmatic knowledge' that in communication in which people regularly engage, they do not form new expressions. These situations are governed by use of conventionalized patterns which ensure their effectivity. It also involves the fact that context is the driving force for the variation of strategies of communicative acts, together with factors like 'social and psychological distance', 'social power', and 'the degree of imposition', which is associated with a communicative act. It is, however, important to note that the evaluation by speakers and listeners of the weight and values of the mentioned factors differs significantly among various contexts and linguistic groups (Kasper & Rose, 2001, p. 5-7). Kasper and Rose (2001, p. 7) claim that the indexical meanings of speech acts and strategies vary not only cross-culturally, but also inter- and intra-culturally (Kasper & Rose, 2001).

It has been observed that the main realization strategies detected for some communicative acts remain consistent throughout linguistic groups that are not only linguistically but also culturally diverse (Kasper & Rose, 2001). That can be said, for example, about fixed speech act for apologising, which consists of "an explicit apology, an explanation, and an admission or denial of responsibility" (Kasper & Rose, 2001, p. 5). There are also some secondary strategies that rely more on the situation and may be heightened or alleviated. It has been discovered that these strategies are being used in English, German, French, Hebrew, Thai, and Japanese. (Kasper & Rose, 2001). The major realization strategies for requests vary in accordance with their level of directness (encompassing ‘direct’, ‘conventionally indirect’, and ‘indirect’) along with internal and external modifications (Kasper & Rose, 2001, p. 5).

In conclusion, pragmatic phenomena, with key principles like CP and politeness, are used globally. However, societal variations exist, such as differences in interpretations of indirectness. Universally, illocutionary acts and strategies are governed by conventionalized patterns, contextual factors, and social dynamics. Some main realization strategies are consistent in diverse linguistic groups.

2.4 Pragmatic development due to pedagogical intervention

Having discussed what pragmatics and pragmatic competence are, as well as the universality of pragmatics and its variations across cultures, it is desirable to review existing literature on pedagogical intervention regarding pragmatics.

First and foremost, it is important to note that if learners want to acquire pragmatics of a target language, they have to learn some specific linguistic and cultural conventions. The differences between how people perform communicative acts depend less on whether a pragmatic strategy is available and more on to what extent the strategy is conventionalized in a particular speech community (Kasper and Rose, 2001, p. 7).

It is highly advantageous for students when a form matches the same function in the target language as it does in their mother tongue. It helps them to get a particular pragmalinguistic knowledge since it allows first-language structures to be applied in the target language while yielding the same result. For example, when learners from Denmark or Germany learn ability questions in English, they do not need instruction since model verbs “could” and “would“ have equivalents in their mother tongues (Kasper & Rose, 2001, p. 6). ‘Positive transfer’ can as well aid in obtaining sociopragmatic knowledge. In instances where the allocation of rights and responsibilities among actors, their relative social power, and the requisites for resources closely correspond between their native and target community, it is not necessary for the learners to make major modifications in their social classification. (Kasper & Rose, 2001, p. 6).

According to Kasper and Rose (2001), learners, however, do not always take advantage of what they already know. As is known from educational psychology, students rarely apply their existing knowledge and strategies to unfamiliar tasks. The same can be said about some aspects of learners’ universal pragmatic knowledge and pragmatic knowledge based on their first language (Kasper & Rose, 2001). Students usually interpret utterances literally (instead of deducing their meaning) and do not use context information enough (Carrell, 1982). One example can be underusing politeness marking in the target language despite marking it in utterances in their first language (Kasper, 1981 cited in Kasper & Rose, 2001). For this reason, pedagogical intervention is needed—not as a means to provide learners with information that would be new to them, but rather to raise their awareness of what they know as well as foster them in using their universal and transferable pragmatic knowledge from their first language in target language contexts (Kasper and Rose, 2001). Schmidt (1993) confirmed the necessity of intervention by claiming that merely being exposed to the target language is inadequate because pragmatic functions and contextual factors are often not noticeable, and even extended exposure does not help with their recognition (Schmidt, 1993). In addition, Bardovi-Harlig (2001) demonstrates that in case of the absence of intervention, many phenomena in L2 are acquired slower or cannot be acquired at all (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Rose, 2005).

Félix-Brasdefer (2017, p. 430) writes that "pragmatic development as a result of pedagogical intervention indicates that a consciousness-raising approach followed by metapragmatic instruction is more efficient than input alone" (Félix-Brasdefer, 2017). Furthermore, whether the type of instruction is explicit, implicit, or a combination of them (see section 2.4.1) has an impact on the type of learning of the pragmatic target. Pragmatic instruction can also be influenced by other factors such as "the modality in which input is provided, production vs comprehension, or whether the type of the task" – in combination with metapragmatic instruction – influences the development of specific pragmatic targets that are, for instance, compliments and responses to them (Félix-Brasdefer, 2017, p. 430).

As stated by Félix-Brasdefer (2017), learners who are instructed in pragmatics using implicit or explicit teaching and also involved in activities enhancing their awareness of communicative actions surpass those who are not instructed. Moreover, it is necessary to teach pragmatic elements that are adequate considering students' level of proficiency because learners may not have gained the required "linguistic means" yet (Félix-Brasdefer, 2017; Kasper & Rose, 2001, p. 5).

Pragmatic competence is essential for effective communication, and while positive transfer can aid learners, pedagogical intervention is crucial to bridge the gap between knowledge and application. Moreover, different types of input provision and instruction can yield different results in learning specific pragmatic targets. Importantly, tailoring instruction to students' proficiency is essential. Overall, effective pedagogical interventions enhance learners' pragmatic development and awareness of communicative actions.

2.4.1 Deductive and inductive approach

Teachers can use either deductive or inductive approach (or a combination of them) when instructing learners. According to Ishihara and Cohen (2010), in a deductive approach, learners are provided with explicit information by external sources (e.g. teacher, materials) before being given examples they can study. On the other hand, in an inductive approach, they analyse pragmatic data in order to detect pragmatic norms that exert a guiding influence on diverse language uses. It can, therefore, be concluded that deductive and inductive teaching can be distinguished by the "procedural relationship" between the main factors, namely rules and examples (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010; Qi & Lai, 2017, p. 27).

Decoo (1996) provides a theoretical framework that answers the question of whether it is only possible to use implicit teaching of rules for inductive learning or whether explicit teaching can be used as well. He refuses the idea that inductive learning can only be associated with implicit learning. In this framework, he formulated five modalities, four of which are "modalities of inductive learning, which could be either explicit or implicit" (Decoo, 1996; Qi & Lai, 2017, p. 27). Qi and Lai (2017) provide a comparison of these five modalities (see Table 1). Modality A is "Actual deduction", meaning that at the start of the learning process, learners are provided with explicit grammatical rules. Subsequently, they transition into applying this grammar by using examples and exercises (Decoo, 1996, p. 97). Modality B refers to "Conscious induction as guided discovery", in which different examples (usually sentences that can be within a text) are shown to learners first. Next, by posing "key-questions", the teacher guides the students to discover and articulate the rules. The justification for this method is that students who arrive at the rule through their own discovery will benefit from it (Decoo, 1996, p. 97). Decoo (1996, p. 97) refers to modality C as "Induction leading to an explicit 'summary of behaviour'". It represents a shift towards a more behaviour-oriented approach. In this method, a student is initially asked to practise a specific structure intensively. As a consequence of this practice, the rule becomes "induced and internalized". In the final part of the lesson, the rule is explained by the teacher explicitly (Decoo, 1996). The next Decoo's (1996) modality, modality D or "'Subconscious' induction on structured material", does not employ explicitly stated grammar rules. Instead, "abstractions and generalizations are left to the 'subconscious capabilities' of the students". When using this method, carefully structured language materials to facilitate the inductive process are given to the learners. "The principle advocates that through the systematic repetition of the same pattern, through graded variations, through drill and practice, the student[s] will come to an "integrated mastery" of the rule, without conscious analysis” (Decoo, 1996, p. 97). The fifth modality, modality E, referred to as ‘Subconscious’ induction on unstructured material, aims to mimic the process of “natural acquisition” as closely as possible. In this method, students engage only in intense language practice based on authentic input and with no linguistic manipulation or structuring. Similarly to first language acquisition, “generalizations” will emerge “naturally” (Decoo, 1996, p. 98).

Table 1: Comparison of Decoo’s five modalities

	Deductive	**Inductive**			
	Modality A	Modality B	Modality C	Modality D	Modality E
Explicit or implicit	Explicit	Explicit or implicit	Explicit	Implicit	Implicit
Guided discovery	Absence	Presence	Absence	Absence	Absence
Material structure	N/A	N/A	N/A	Structured material	Unstructured material

Source: Qi & Lai, 2017, p. 27

Another author who has provided a framework refusing the association of deductive learning with explicit learning and inductive learning with implicit learning is DeKeyser (2003). He claims that it is not only inductive learning that can be both explicit and implicit but also deductive learning (see Table 2). Moreover, according to him, metalinguistic rules are included in explicit deductive learning as well as in explicit inductive learning. The only distinction between them is the way of acquiring the rules: with the help of teaching or self-discovery (DeKeyser, 2003; Qi & Lai, 2017). Qi & Lai (2017, p. 28) claim that, according to current literature, “explicit inductive instruction might be more effective than explicit deductive instruction, and that the advantages of inductive instruction might be more salient in the case of relatively more complex features that involve more varied pragmalinguistic structures and influencing factors in language use” (Qi & Lai, 2017).

Table 2: The inductive/deductive – implicit/explicit dimensions

	Deductive	**Inductive**
Explicit	Traditional teaching	Rule discovery
Implicit	Using parameters	Learning L1 from input

Source: DeKeyser, 2003, p. 315; Qi & Lai, 2017, p. 27

In general, it is believed that using an inductive approach fosters 'higher-order thinking' and may be more efficient than the other approach (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). Despite this, the results of research focusing on L2 pragmatics have been contrary (see Takimoto, 2008; Jeon & Kaya, 2006) (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010, p. 116). These results might, however, be "inconclusive" (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010, p. 116-117). Ishihara and Cohen (2010, p. 117) claim that even though learners self-discover the norms which can be conducive to pragmatic learning, there may be difficulties with "getting it right" (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). According to them, "learners may take different advantage of it, depending on their learning styles" (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010, p. 117). As for foreign-language pragmatic learning, auspicious results for both types of instruction have been shown in a study by Takimoto (2008). It was found that the knowledge acquired using the inductive approach may be "more easily accessible in real time" and last longer than the pragmatic knowledge gained by using the deductive approach (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010, p. 117). The inconsistency in the findings might be attributed to variations in the proficiency levels of learners, the specific pragmatic feature under examination, and how the inductive approach was used (Qi & Lai, 2017, p. 28).

According to Ishihara and Cohen (2010, p. 117), it is common that a combination of the two approaches is used in language classrooms. First, some students detect pragmatic norms (i.e. inductive approach), and then, they share them with the others who have not been able to discover them by that time (i.e. deductive approach). Moreover, learning can be seen as "co-constructed" when a teacher directs students in the course of the process of discovering pragmatic norms (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010).

In conclusion, the choice between deductive and inductive approaches in language instruction hinges on the procedural relationship between rules and examples. Decoo's framework outlines five modalities, revealing that inductive learning can be both explicit and implicit, while DeKeyser claims that deductive learning can be associated with not only explicit but also implicit instruction. The outcomes of pragmatic learning with these two approaches vary among different studies, and a combination of both of them is commonly employed in language classrooms.

3 Politeness

As indicated in the previous chapter, many social sciences pay attention to politeness and related issues. The phenomenon is studied in a wide range of disciplines, including pragmatics, sociolinguistics, applied linguistics, conversation analysis, social psychology, and anthropology (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Brown (2017, p. 384) provides a broader definition of politeness which claims that it is "an intrinsic aspect of social interaction, crucial to the construction and maintenance of social relationships […] and hence bearing on human cooperation and universals in human interaction […]" (Brown, 2017). In addition, she states that politeness in communication is at the core of interpersonal interactions and presumably serves as a prerequisite for collaboration between people, for which language use is pivotal. Politeness most transparently discloses the essence of "human sociability" as it is manifested through speech (Brown, 2017, p. 384).

The first works on politeness as a linguistic aspect (known as 'linguistic politeness') started to appear in the 1970s and ´80s. Among the first researchers of this phenomenon were linguists Robin Lakoff and Geoffrey Leech, and linguistic anthropologists Penelope Brown and Stephen Levinson. (Brown, 2017)

According to Lakoff (1990, p. 34), "[p]oliteness is a system of interpersonal relations designed to facilitate interaction by minimizing the potential for conflict and confrontation inherent in all human interchange" (Lakoff, 1990). The main objective of Lakoff's (1973) work is to detect overarching rules which govern human interaction (Brown, 2017).

In 1978, Brown and Levinson introduced an abstract model of politeness drawing on Goffman's concept of 'face' (Brown, 2017). Their work mainly focuses on managing acts that can threaten one's face by employing appropriate strategies one chooses by weighing three components: distance, power, and rank or degree of imposition (Brown, 2017; Leech, 2014).

Leech (2014) claims that pragmatics, in contrast to grammar, is regulated by principles rather than rules (Leech, 2014). Therefore, drawing on Grice (1975), he provides a Politeness Principle, which subsumes several maxims (Leech, 1983).

As already stated in the previous chapter, pragmatic knowledge includes sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competence (Leech, 1983; Félix-Brasdefer, 2017). Similarly, politeness involves a sociopragmatic and a pragmalinguistic facet. Pragmalinguistic politeness is determined by examining the meaning of an utterance without considering the specific context (Leech, 2014). Even though there are some objections to this statement, which claim it is not possible to conclude that an utterance is polite without context, considering the semantic meaning and lexigrammatical form can help. That is, if "very much" is attached to "thank you", it intensifies the expression and, therefore, makes it more polite (Leech, 2014). Although, there are exceptions, such as irony, in which "thank you very much" might be less polite (Leech, 2014, p. 16). Pragmalinguistic politeness is essential for students of English because it helps them grasp the different degrees of politeness associated with language forms and their meanings. On the contrary, sociopragmatic politeness involves evaluating politeness within a context and based on specific factors (Leech, 2014).

Politeness is, according to Leech (2014, p. 103), "a matter of degree", meaning that concluding the suitable degree of sociopragmatic politeness relies on various "scales of value" (Leech, 2014). Inspired by Brown and Levinson's (1987) three factors influencing the degree of politeness, namely "power", "distance", and "rank of imposition", Leech (2014) provides five scales: "vertical distance between S and O", "horizontal distance between S and O", "cost/benefit", "strength of socially defined rights and obligation", and "self-territory and other territory" (Leech, 2014, p. 103). For instance, in the case of the decrease of horizontal distance, the requirement for politeness diminishes as well (Leech, 2014). In case of pragmalinguistic politeness, it is judged on a "unidirectional scale" that starts with "non-polite", progresses to "more polite", and "even more polite", and continues without reaching a final point, as it is always possible to intensify an utterance more (Leech, 2014, p. 17-18).

In the following sections, three of the most significant theories of politeness will be introduced, all of which aim to uncover principles of politeness with some assertions of their universality (Brown, 2017). Moreover, some critiques of these theories will be provided, followed by an exploration of the relationship between politeness and gender and a discussion on whether it is important to teach politeness to learners of a foreign language.

3.1 Lakoff's model

In the 1960s, Grice started to investigate the gap between semantic (i.e. literal) and pragmatic (i.e. contextual) meanings. He used the terms "what was said" and "what was implicated" to distinguish them. For the purpose of connecting these two meanings, Grice proffered a 'cooperative principle' (henceforth CP) (Leech, 2014, p. 310-311). The principle represents a "constraint on linguistic behaviour" (Leech, 1983, p. 8) and is supposed to be followed by all partakers (Grice, 1975) to ensure maximal efficiency of information transfer (Brown, 2017). Grice's CP is formulated as follows: "Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged” (Grice, 1975, p. 45). It consists of four categories - quantity, quality, relation, and manner – with their maxims and sub-maxims, bearing results in compliance with the CP (see Grice, 1975).

“The Cooperative Principle […]

QUANTITY: Give the right amount of information: ie

1. *Make your contribution as informative as is required.*
2. *Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.*

QUALITY: Try to make your contribution one that is true: ie

1. *Do not say what you believe to be false.*
2. *Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.*

RELATION: Be relevant.

MANNER: Be perspicuous: ie

1. *Avoid obscurity of expression.*
2. *Avoid ambiguity.*
3. *Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).*
4. *Be orderly.”* (Leech, 1983, p. 8)

In addition, Grice acknowledged the fact that there are more maxims (Leech, 2014), such as “be polite”, which might produce implicatures as well as the ones proposed by him (Grice, 1975).

Lakoff (1973) chose a rule-based approach for analysing and defining politeness (Brown, 2017). According to her, there are two so-called ‘rules of pragmatic competence’: (1) Be clear, and (2) Be polite, which speakers follow to fulfil their particular goals. If the main purpose is to convey a message directly and effectively, one is to choose clarity over politeness so that no misunderstanding occurs. Whereas if the main aim is to navigate the social hierarchy and determine the positions of the participants in the conversation based on the speaker’s view, the speaker is to prioritise politeness. These rules may sometimes align, leading to similar and mutually supportive outcomes. However, more frequently, they can clash. Thus, depending on the situation, one or the other will take precedence (Lakoff, 1973). She states that when there is conflict between clarity and politeness, in the majority of cases, politeness takes precedence since avoiding offense is often deemed more crucial than ensuring clarity (Lakoff, 1973).

Lakoff (1973) draws on Grice's CP in providing 'rules of conversation', using his maxims of quantity, quality, relevance, and manner, and contributes to it by introducing her 'rules of politeness': "(1) Don't impose; (2) Give options; (3) Make A feel good – be friendly" (Lakoff, 1973, p. 298). In some cases, two or more of these rules may operate simultaneously, mutually strengthening each other. Equally as often, a decision must be made between them. Therefore, one rule will nullify the other. In other words, one rule may outweigh the other (Lakoff, 1973). According to Lakoff (1973), these rules extend beyond verbal communication and encompass actions as well. It is, therefore, not possible to separate rules of language from other forms of collaborative human interactions since they are interconnected components of a unified system (Lakoff, 1973).

Rule 1 – Don't impose – can be interpreted as "remain aloof, don't intrude into 'other people's business'" (Lakoff, 1973, p. 298). When asking for something that belongs to Goffman's "nonfree goods" (see Goffman, 1971), based on this rule, one should keep his distance or, at least, seek permission to ask before inquiring about the nonfree goods (Lakoff, 1973). Due to this, it is generally expected that one requests permission before posing a personal question. The same, however, does not apply if the response is not interpretable as nonfree goods (Lakoff, 1973). An example of linguistic devices influenced by rule 1 are passives and impersonal expressions, as they often introduce a "sense of distance" between the speaker and the statement or the speaker and the addressee (Lakoff, 1973, p. 299).

As for rule 2 – Give options, it sometimes operates in conjunction with rule 1, but it also applies in situations where rule 1 would not be suitable (Lakoff, 1973). Rule 2 essentially states: "Let A make his own decisions – leave his options open for him" (Lakoff, 1973, p. 299). Even though this might initially appear as it is the same as staying aloof, it only sometimes is the case. Lakoff (1973) also highlights the importance of hedges when following this rule. These expressions can be employed to grant the listener the choice of how to respond (Lakoff, 1973). According to her (Lakoff, 1973, p. 299), some hedges can convey that the speaker holds a relatively "weak emotional commitment" towards the topic under discussion (Lakoff, 1973). Another option is that the speaker is just trying to be polite and does not desire to risk irritating the addressee. She claims that the employment of such expressions, however, goes against rule 1, which encourages clarity and directness in communication (Lakoff, 1973).

The last rule – Make A feel good – be friendly – can appear not as "hypocritical" as the others, although it is frequently employed customarily even when genuine friendship is absent (Lakoff, 1973, p. 301). Its primary function is to create a perception of 'camaraderie' among the speaker and addressee and, therefore, to generate a feeling of equality between them

(Lakoff, 1973). According to Lakoff (1973), this fosters a positive feeling in the addressee only on the condition that the speaker is genuinely equal or even superior to the addressee. In the case of the speaker being inferior, choosing rule 3 can be perceived as presumptuous and lead to the ending of the conversation with a disappointing outcome (Lakoff, 1973). The use of nicknames or at least first names instead of formal titles can often be observed in this rule, as well as expressions like "like, y' know, and I mean", which reveal the speaker's feelings on the subject and thus encourage the recipient to be more involved (Lakoff, 1973, p. 301). Additionally, complimenting also appears when using this rule (Lakoff, 1973).

As stated by Lakoff (1973), the first two rules – Don't impose and Give options – can sometimes be in conflict, while at other times, they can be applied in harmony. The act of preventing nonfree goods can be seen not only as trying not to impose but also as granting autonomy to the addressee. However, rules 1 and 3 appear to be incompatible. Therefore, if they co-occur, one must infer that, due to diverse extralinguistic factors, the partakers in the conversation are altering their interpersonal dynamics (Lakoff, 1973). As for rules 2 and 3, they can, like rules 1 and 2, be either in conflict or cooperate. For instance, when a speaker uses expressions like "like, y' know, and I mean", it signals that his statement reflects his personal belief, which can be interpreted as providing options (Lakoff, 1973, p. 302). Furthermore, if, when anticipating rule 3, one gets rule 1 instead, the result is "a breach of politeness rather than a free choice between that and a (polite) refusal to impose" (Lakoff, 1973, p. 302).

As for the relationship between the rules of conversation and the rules of politeness, conversational rules primarily apply in other than rule 3 situations, which encompass rule 1 situations, i.e. formal contexts. According to Lakoff (1973), it is possible to view the rules of conversation as specific instances falling under rule 1 of politeness. Their main objective is to facilitate efficient and straightforward communication, aiming to prevent any imposition on the listener. This means avoiding actions such as unnecessarily prolonging the conversation, introducing irrelevant details, or causing confusion, which might reflect poorly on the listener (Lakoff, 1973). Importantly, politeness rules tend to clash with conversational rules in rule 3 of politeness situations. However, such violations of the rules of conversation "save" rule 2 and rule 3 politeness (Lakoff, 1973, p. 303)

In her later work, Lakoff (1990) claims that based on the priority they give to these rules, different cultures adopt one of three strategies. When a culture emphasized rule 1, it aligns with the 'Distance' strategy. Prioritizing rule 2 corresponds to the 'Deference' strategy, while a preference for rule 3 reflects the 'Camaraderie' strategy. In general, Distance is preferred in British English, whereas Camaraderie is favoured in American English (Lakoff, 1990).

In conclusion, Lakoff extended Grice's CP by introducing three rules of politeness. The interplay between these rules, such as the conflict between clarity and politeness, highlights the complexity of language usage. Lakoff's three cultural strategies underscore how different cultures prioritize these rules. Overall, the combined perspectives offer a nuanced understanding of language dynamics, emphasizing both clarity and interpersonal considerations in communication.

3.2 Brown and Levinson's model

Another work attempting to describe the phenomenon of politeness appeared in 1978 and remains one of the most influential, as well as criticised, works on this topic (Leech, 2014). The central concept of this piece of work, written by Brown and Levinson, is 'face' (Brown, 2017). As already mentioned above, Brown and Levinson drew on Goffman's (1967) notion of face, which is described as "the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself", as well as of positive and negative face (Brown, 2017; Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 61). Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) expanded Goffman's analysis and offered a cross-cultural perspective of politeness, claiming that the principles governing the formation of polite utterances are universal (Brown, 2017).

Face comprises of two aspects - positive and negative face (Brown & Levinson, 1987). It pertains to the emotional and social aspects of one's identity that are inherent in every individual and anticipated to be acknowledged by others (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Yule, 1996). Moreover, it can be "lost, maintained, or enhanced" (Brown & Levinson, 1987). As a general principle, on the basis of "the mutual vulnerability of face", individuals work together to uphold face in their interactions (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 61).

Brown and Levinson (1987) regard positive and negative face as "basic wants" that are recognized by all participants in an interaction. According to their theory, it is advantageous for every participant to "partially satisfy" these wants. In other words, it is not necessary to satisfy other's face wants fully. Additionally, it is not uncommon for face to be ignored, besides social breakdowns in situations of immediate collaboration also for the benefit of efficiency (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 62).

Brown and Levinson (1987) define positive face as "the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some other" and the negative face as "the want of every 'competent adult member' that his actions be unimpeded by others" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 62). According to Yule (1996), positive face represents the desire for acceptance among others, the wish to be regarded as a part of the same community, and to be assured that one's desires align with those of others. In contrast, negative face indicates the aspiration for independence, the freedom to act without constraints, and the avoidance of imposition by others (Yule, 1996). Negative face, and the politeness of not imposing derived from it, is easily recognisable because it is the form of politeness (formal politeness) that immediately comes to mind when thinking about the concept of 'politeness' (Brown & Levinson, 1987). On the other hand, positive face and its associated politeness are not so conspicuous (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

The second attribute that, according to Brown and Levinson, every person possesses is rationality (Brown, 2017). They define it as "the application of a specific mode of reasoning- what Aristotle (1969) called 'practical reasoning' – which guarantees inferences from ends or goals to means that will satisfy those ends" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 64). Individuals utilise rational means to uphold their face when confronted with potentially face-threatening acts (henceforth FTAs) (Leech, 2014).

FTAs are actions which "intrinsically threaten face" by contradicting the face wants of the hearer and/or the speaker (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 60). Brown and Levinson (1987) categorise these acts based on (1) which kind of face is threatened, and (2) whether they threaten the hearer's or the speaker's face, and classify them even further (see Brown & Levinson, 1987). For instance, orders and requests threaten the negative-face want of the addressee because they anticipate a future action by the hearer and, in doing so, "put some pressure" on the hearer to perform or avoid performing the action (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 65) Apologies, on the other hand, harm speaker's positive face (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Brown and Levinson (1987), however, remark that some FTAs, such as complaints, can jeopardise both kinds of face (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Given the 'mutual vulnerability of face' mentioned earlier, it is desirable to prevent FTAs or to implement specific strategies to reduce the risk of threatening one's face. In this regard, any 'rational agent' will consider the weightiness of the minimum of three wants: (1) to convey the message of an FTA, (2) to be efficient or urgent, and (3) to preserve the hearer's face to some extent. Except for (2) outweighing (3), speakers will aim to reduce the potential threat posed by their FTAs. (Brown & Levinson, 1987)

Figure 1 depicts the five main strategies for doing or avoiding a FTA, which are ordered from the most to the least potentially face-damaging.

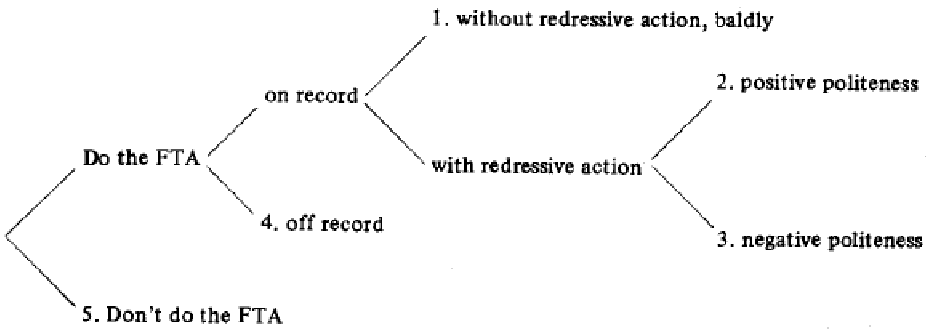

Figure 1: Possible strategies for doing FTAs
(Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 69)

First and foremost, when thinking about a possible FTA, a decision must be made whether to do the act or to avoid it. Not doing the FTA is a strategy that poses the least risk of face loss (Brown & Levinson, 1987). If one decides to do the FTA, he can either choose to go 'off record' or 'on record'. In case of going off record, "there is more than one unambiguously attributable intention" and, thus, the speaker cannot be assumed to have had a single, specific intent (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 69). Hints, such as metaphors, irony, and rhetorical questions, are usually utilised in this strategy to convey the speaker's intent without stating it outright, making the meaning somewhat open to interpretation. In contrast, when going on record, there is only one unmistakable intention that all participants would agree upon as the driving force behind the action (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

There are two options to going on record, either to perform the FTA 'without redressive action, baldly' or 'with redressive action' (Brown & Levinson, 1987). The former means performing it "in the most direct, clear, unambiguous and concise way possible" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 69). This strategy is typically used when the speaker does not anticipate negative consequences from the hearer (Brown & Levinson, 1987). For instance, this occurs in situations where (1) the participants silently agree to temporarily set aside considerations of face to ensure "urgency or efficiency", (2) the potential harm to the hearer's face is minimal, as in speech acts which clearly benefit the hearer and do not demand significant sacrifices from the speaker (such as "Come in"), or (3) when the speaker possesses significantly more power than the hearer or is able to gain the support of others to damage the hearer's face without risking their face (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 69). When using the latter kind of on-record strategy, 'with redressive action', the speaker modifies or adds to the FTA in a way that clearly shows that it is not his desire or intention to pose a threat to the hearer's face, and that the speaker acknowledges the addressee's face wants and desires for them to be accomplished.

Redressive action can be categorised into two types based on whether it emphasises the positive or negative aspect of face (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

The type of redressive action that enhances hearer's positive face is known as 'positive politeness' (Brown & Levinson, 1987). It is an "approach-based" strategy which "anoints the face of the addressee by indicating that in some respects, S[peaker] wants H[earer]'s wants" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 70). This can be achieved by an emphasis on closeness as well as solidarity (Brown, 2017). The speaker expresses his liking for the hearer or their equal standing in a group (having the same rights, obligations, etc.) and, therefore, minimises the face threat resulting from an FTA (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

In contrast, 'negative politeness' primarily aims to "partially satisfying (redressing) hearer's negative face", which involves his fundamental desire to preserve his personal space and autonomy (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 70). According to Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 70), negative politeness primarily relies on avoidance and manifests through various strategies that guarantee the speaker's acknowledgement and respect for the hearer's negative face wants, ensuring no or minimal interference with their freedom of action. Thus, it is expressed through "self-effacement, formality and restraint", focusing on specific aspects of the hearer's face that emphasise his desire to be "unhindered". To mitigate an FTA, methods like apologising for intrusion, utilisation of linguistic and non-linguistic deference, hedging, and the application of impersonal language are used to provide the hearer with a way out in order not to feel pressured (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Brown and Levinson (1987) provide a comprehensive list of strategies, from which fifteen belong to off-record strategies, fifteen to positive politeness, and ten to negative politeness (Leech, 2014). It is, however, not desirable to describe all of them here (see Brown and Levinson, 1978, 1987).

When deciding which strategy to use, one is to consider specific 'payoffs' or advantages, and 'sociological variables' in order to find the most beneficial one (Brown & Levinson, 1987). A speaker determines the weightiness of an act by using the following formula: $W_x = D(S, H) + P(H, S) + R_x$. It comprises three social variables, namely social distance (D), power (P), and rank of imposition (R). In the formula, x stands for the act, S for the speaker, and H for the hearer (Eelen, 2014). The payoffs of the main strategies will be provided in the following paragraphs.

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), if a speaker chooses to go on record, five advantages can be obtained by him. The speaker can arouse compulsion of other people against the hearer or gain support for the speaker's cause. He can earn recognition for his honesty and for demonstrating trust in the hearer. This strategy also allows the speaker to be seen as straightforward and avoid the perception of manipulation. Furthermore, it helps prevent misunderstanding, and it provides the opportunity to reciprocate and maintain face, counterbalancing any potential face loss resulting from an FTA (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

On the contrary, off-record strategies ensure benefits like: gaining recognition for being tactful and not forcing his opinion on others; reducing the likelihood of his actions being a part of other's discussions about him; preventing any association with potential damage to face; revealing addressee's feelings towards the speaker by giving the hearer a chance to demonstrate care for the speaker (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

As for positive politeness, one payoff is the fact that a critique often loses its severity and can even become a playful interaction or a compliment since the speaker expresses his liking of the addressee and their similarity. In addition, the speaker can prevent or reduce the sense of indebtedness caused by an FTA, like a request. This can be done by indirectly alluding to their relationship as well as by framing the request as a shared endeavour from which both of them will benefit. (Brown and Levinson, 1987)

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), the advantages of using negative politeness are showing respect and deference to the hearer and thus reducing potential future indebtedness created by the FTA, remaining aloof and refraining from becoming overly familiar, which can possibly cause a loss of face, providing an option for the addressee to, for example, dismiss a request without any pressure and, hence, reduce face loss of both participants, and showing consideration for the hearer's face (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

The payoff of the last strategy, 'Don't do the FTA', is preventing any offense to the hearer that might have resulted from a particular FTA. In this case, however, the speaker will not manage to accomplish the intended communication goal. (Brown and Levinson, 1987)

In summary, Brown and Levinson's work on politeness in language, rooted in the concept of 'face', offers a comprehensive understanding of FTAs and different strategies, whose choice is influenced by social variables, and which allow speakers to navigate face concerns while achieving communication goals.

3.3 Leech's model

In 1983, Geoffrey Leech introduced the so-called Politeness Principle (henceforth PP), which complements Grice's CP (Brown, 2017). He described it as "a constraint observed in human communicative behavior, influencing us to avoid communicative discord or offence, and maintain or enhance communicative concord or comity" (Leech, 2014, p. 87). Moreover, he formulated the PP as follows: "Minimize (other things being equal) the expression of impolite beliefs", accompanied by its positive and less significant version:" Maximize (other things being equal) the expression of polite beliefs" (Leech, 1983, p. 81). For this principle, Leech (1983) provided six maxims:

(I) "TACT MAXIM (in impositives and commisives)
   (a) Minimize cost to other [(b) Maximize benefit to other]

(II) GENEROSITY MAXIM (in impositives and commisives)
   (a) Minimize benefit to self [(b) Maximize cost to self]

(III) APROBATION MAXIM (in expressives and assertives)
   (a) Minimize dispraise of other [(b) Maximize praise of other]

(IV) MODESTY MAXIM (in expressives and assertives)
   (a) Minimize praise of self [(b) Maximize dispraise of other]

(V) AGREEMENT MAXIM (in assertives)
   (a) Minimize disagreement between self and other [(b) Maximize agreement between self and other]

(VI) SYMPATHY MAXIM (in assertives)
   (a) Minimize antipathy between self and other [(b) Maximize sympathy between self and other]" (Leech, 1983, p.132)

The formulation of these maxims has been shortened for the sake of usefulness (Leech, 1983). For instance, (I) (a) should precisely be read: "Minimize the expression of beliefs which express or imply cost to other" (Leech, 1983, p. 132). Naturally, the remaining maxims should undergo an analogous extension as well. The reason for them belonging to the PP is that they advocate the expression of polite over impolite beliefs (Leech, 1983).

Moreover, maxims (I) to (IV) come in sets of two since they address "bipolar scales" (cost-benefit and praise-dispraise), whereas maxims (V) and (VI) tackle "unipolar scales" (agreement and sympathy) (Leech, 1983, p. 132). Despite the presence of diverse interconnections among these scales, individual maxims pertain to different evaluative scales (Leech, 1983).

In terms of importance, the maxims and sub-maxims are not equal (Leech, 1983). According to Leech (1983), the first maxim exerts a greater influence on conversational behaviour than the second one. Similarly, the third maxim has a stronger impact than the fourth one. Furthermore, regarding sub-maxims, (a) appears to carry more weight than (b), which shows that negative politeness holds greater significance than positive politeness (Leech, 1983).

Expanding his framework, Leech (2014) appended another four maxims to the original six, namely 'Obligation (of S to O)'[1], 'Obligation (of O to S)', 'Opinion reticence', and 'Feeling reticence' (Leech, 2014). Moreover, he introduced the General Strategy of Politeness (henceforth GSP), a "superconstraint" involving all of his maxims. The strategy is as follows: "In order to be polite, S expresses or implies meaning that associate a favourable value with what pertains to *O* or associates an unfavourable value with what pertains *S* (*S* = self, speaker)" (Leech, 2014, p. 90). By incorporating these new maxims, the original maxims were reorganised as well (see Table 3) (Leech, 2014). Leech (2014, p. 91) claims that the individual maxims are "just variant manifestations of the same supermaxim or superstrategy, the GSP" (Leech, 2014).

[1] S = speaker, O = other(s), typically the addressee (Leech, 2014)

Table 3: The component maxims of the General Strategy of Politeness

Maxims (expressed in an imperative mood)	Related pair of maxims	Label for this maxim	Typical speech-event type(s)
(M1) give a hight value to O's wants	Generosity, Tact	Generosity	Commissives
(M2 give a low value to S's wants		Tact	Directives
(M3) give a high value to O's qualities	Approbation, Modesty	Approbation	Compliments
(M4) give a low value to S's qualities		Modesty	Self-devaluation
(M5) give a high value to S's obligation to S	Obligation	Obligation (of S to O)	Apologizing, thanking
(M6) give a low value to O's obligation to S		Obligation (of O to S)	Responses to thanks and apologies
(M7) give a high value to O's opinions	Opinion	Agreement	Agreeing, disagreeing
(M8) give a low value to S's opinions		Opinion reticence	Giving opinions
(M9) give a high value to O's feelings	Feeling	Sympathy	Congratulating, commiserating
(M10) give a low value to S's feelings		Feeling reticence	Suppressing feelings

Source: Leech, 2014, p. 91

According to Leech (1983, p. 80), the PP should not be viewed merely as an additional principle alongside the CP. Instead, it should be seen as an essential complement that plays a crucial role in preventing the CP from "serious trouble" in situations where the CP is not able to sufficiently elucidate some exceptions (Leech, 1983). Leech (1983, p. 107) claims that politeness is "asymmetrical", meaning that actions considered polite concerning a hearer (or a third party) may be seen as impolite in relation to a speaker, and the other way round

(Leech, 1983). He provided maxims of politeness exactly for this reason since they elucidate these asymmetries and their implications regarding indirect communication (Leech, 1983).

While the CP allows an interlocutor to convey information with the expectation that the other interlocutor is engaging cooperatively and serves the purpose of governing our speech so that it aligns with one’s intended “illocutionary or discoursal goal(s)”, it can be contended that the PP serves an even more significant regulatory function (Leech, 1983, p. 82). Namely, it manages social harmony and cordial relations (Leech, 1983). This forms the foundation for the assumption that one’s conversational partners are cooperative to begin with (Leech, 1983).

As stated by Leech (1983), in some instances, politeness assumes a subsidiary role. This occurs, for instance, when a speaker and a hearer are involved in a cooperative task where the information interchange has the same weight for both parties. On the other hand, the PP can override the CP to such a degree that it even leads to the Maxim of Quality, which is prone to preponderate the other cooperative maxims, being disregarded. That being the case, in specific situations, individuals may find it acceptable to employ so-called ‘white lies’ (Leech, 1983).

In conclusion, Leech’s PP expands the understanding of communication dynamics, complementing Grice’s CP. The intricate interplay of his maxims sheds light on the subtle nuances of politeness. The addition of more maxims, alongside the overarching GSP, enriches the framework. Leech underscores the PP’s pivotal role in preserving social harmony and regulating interactions, surpassing the confines of the CP. While politeness may occasionally play a subsidiary role, the PP remains a valuable tool for deciphering the complexities of diverse communicative scenarios.

3.4 Critique and other approaches

Over time, various politeness theories, models or approaches have emerged, each giving rise to its own set of critiques and alternative perspectives. Notably, the model proposed by Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) has gained prominence but has also faced significant criticism, particularly regarding its claims of universality and cross-cultural applicability. Similar critiques have been directed toward Leech and his model. In this section, some critique of the two models as well as some alternative approaches to politeness theory will be listed.

Ide (1989), presenting a Japanese perspective, offers a critique of Brown and Levinson, and Leech for their Western-oriented bias, emphasizing “strategic” interaction, which employs politeness to reach personal objectives (Leech, 2014). She distinguishes two types of politeness, namely ‘volition’ and ‘discernment’, while the former aligns with Brown and Levinson’s description (driven by individual's desires), the latter is specific to Japanese culture and regards "the role and obligations of the individual as member of a closely knit group within a hierarchical society" (Leech, 2014, p. 36).

Another author, Gu (1990), writing from a Chinese viewpoint, does not agree with the concept of 'face' being primarily viewed as an individual's psychological motivation and supports the Confucian notion that face is a "normative social phenomenon" (Leech, 2014, p. 36).

Spenser-Oatey (2000) takes issue with the Brown and Levinson's positive and negative face, claiming that they are, in their essence, very dissimilar because positive face relates to face, while negative face deals with sociality rights (Spenser-Oatey, 2000; Leech, 2014). Consequently, she proposed a model in which she introduces a general concept 'rapport management', consisting of 'sociality rights management' (dealing with personal or social entitlements), and the concept of 'face management' (dealing with personal or social value) (Spenser-Oatey, 2000). Moreover, they both have two more components. Face management incorporates 'quality face' (i.e. Brown and Levinson's positive face) and 'identity face' (Leech, 2014). While sociality rights management comprises 'equity rights' (i.e. Brown and Levinson's negative face) and 'association rights' (Leech, 2014). Whereas quality face and equity rights relate to personal perspective, identity face and association rights concern social perspective (Spenser-Oatey, 2000). In the revised version of her work (2008), she, however, does not distinguish between the two components of face management anymore and proposes another category, 'interactional goals' (Spenser-Oatey, 2008; Leech, 2014).

Regarding Leech's model, Thomas (1995, p. 167) criticised Leech (1983) for formulating too many maxims, resulting in the theory being "at best inelegant, at worst virtually unfalsifiable" (Thomas, 1995). He argues that there seems to be no intentional method for limiting their number, which could lead to having a maxim to account for every minor pattern observed in how people use language (Thomas, 1995).

Huang (2014) disputed Leech's proposal of adding PP to Grice's CP, and the fact that they should be regarded as equal in their essence. He claims there are several arguments against it (Huang, 2014). First, he made the same point as Thomas (1995) about the inadequacy of introducing numerous maxims to account for language regularities. Huang (2014) states that this would render pragmatic theory excessively open to "falsification" (Huang, 2014, p. 44). Second, politeness is guided by social norms, while CP offers a socially neutral framework for communication, emphasising "no deviation from rational efficiency without any reason" (Huang, 2014, p. 44). According to Huang (2014), politeness can be used as a rational justification for divergence, which ties more effectively with the CP. Third, the resilience of cooperative behaviour is challenging to contest. Even actions that may superficially appear uncooperative are often construed as cooperative upon deeper analysis. If politeness principles were treated like maxims, a similar degree of strength would be anticipated, thus making it difficult to be impolite, which is "counterintuitive" (Huang, 2014, p. 44).

In 1992, Watts and his colleagues expressed the need for politeness to be divided into two types: 'first-order politeness' (i.e. "a socio-psychological concept") and 'second-order politeness' (i.e. "linguistic, scientific concept") (Eelen, 2014, p. 29). According to them, the former pertains to "the various ways in which polite behaviour is perceived and talked about by members of socio-cultural groups" while the latter is "a theoretical construct, a term within a theory of social behaviour and language usage" (Watts et al., 2005). Eelen (2001) adopted this distinction but renamed them politeness$_1$ and politeness$_2$ (Leech, 2014). Watts and his colleagues (1992) argue that the primary focus of politeness research should be politeness$_1$, whereas Leech (2014) contends it should concentrate on politeness$_2$ (Leech, 2014).

There have been several attempts to describe the phenomenon of politeness and critiques of the earlier ones, which led to the authors (slightly) adjusting or further explaining their thoughts in order to defend their works (e.g. Brown & Levinson (1987), Leech (2014)). However, even though dated and biased toward Western civilization, the models provided, especially the one by Brown and Levinson (1987), can be used for some purposes, such as in EFL classrooms (Schepers, 2014).

3.5 Politeness and gender

The relationship between language and gender has been studied by many researchers (e.g. Brown, 1980; Lakoff, 1975; Ochs, 1992; Okamoto, 1995; Tannen, 1990) and from various perspectives, specifically deficit, dominance, difference, and dynamic or social constructionist approaches (Coates, 2013). The deficit approach was the initial approach represented by the work of Lakoff (1975), introducing the concept of 'women's language' (Coates, 2013). On the other hand, the dynamic approach is the latest one, referring to works that see "gender as a social construct rather than as a 'given' social category" (Coates, 2013, p. 6).

One area of studies dealing with language and gender focuses on gender differences in politeness. According to 'folklinguistics' (i.e. "sets of popular beliefs about language") and some linguists (e.g. Okamoto, 1995; Brown, 1980), "women are more polite than men" (Swann, 2009, p. 213; Coates, 2013, p. 105). Brown (1980) conducted a study in Tenejapa, a

Mayan community in Mexico, with the result of women being more polite based on “the crude measure of gross use of particles” constituting “the crude index of politeness” (Coates, 2013, p. 106). Holmes (1995) undertook a study in New Zealand that showed that women are more positively polite than men because of, among other features examined, the greater use of ‘facilitative’ tags, while men employ ‘epistemic modal’ tags more (Swann, 2009). Smith (1992) compared the speech of Japanese females and males “in charge”, specifically focusing on their use of directives. His results support the assertion that women employ more polite forms than men, yet younger women use less polite language than the older ones. Moreover, he also claims that the “phenomenon is more complex” and not merely “binary” (Smith, 1992, p. 79). It is, furthermore, important to note that gender is perceived as “relatively fluid” (Swann, 2009, p. 234). Its significance may vary across different contexts and is viewed not as a standalone category but as intertwined with other social categories, such as race, class, and sexuality, which are further interwoven and sustained within the framework of power, authority, and inequality (Swann, 2009).

In conclusion, the study of language and gender has been explored from various perspectives. One specific aspect of this research delves into gender differences in politeness, where studies indicated nuanced variations in politeness usage between men and women. However, it is essential to recognise the complexity of this phenomenon, considering its fluidity, intersectionality with other social categories, and context.

3.6 Politeness and EFL

Learning a foreign language is commonly associated with memorising vocabulary and drilling grammar. However, nowadays, it is understood that it is essential to understand how to utilise the language for various purposes and in different contexts while communicating efficiently and politely (Holmes, 2013; Kasper & Rose, 2001). According to Thomas (1983, p. 96-97) it is important to learn not just grammar and vocabulary because

> *“[i]f a non-native speaker appears to speak fluently (i.e. is grammatically competent), a native speaker is likely to attribute his/her apparent impoliteness or unfriendliness, not to any linguistic deficiency, but to boorishness or ill-will. While grammatical error may reveal a speaker to be a less than proficient language-user, pragmatic failure reflects badly on him/her as a person.”* (Thomas, 1983)

Moreover, it is highly likely that misunderstandings of this type are the foundation of "unhelpful and offensive stereotypes" (Thomas, 1983, p. 97). Bou-Franch and Garcés-Conejos (2003) claim that learners should be able to express the image of themselves that they want to portray and also understand the image their conversational partner wishes to present (Bou-Franch & Garcés-Conejos, 2003)

As discussed earlier, politeness is a phenomenon studied by many disciplines, including, apart from other, pragmatics and sociolinguistics (Brown & Levinson, 1987). The CEFR categorises politeness under sociolinguistic competence (see section 2.2) (CEFR – Companion volume, 2020). The key concepts for sociolinguistic appropriateness provided by the CEFR, which are to be achieved by learners of foreign languages in Europe, are:

- *"using polite forms and showing awareness of politeness conventions;*
- *performing language functions in an appropriate way (at lower levels in a neutral register);*
- *socialising, following basic routines at lower levels, without requiring the interlocutor(s) to behave differently (from B2 up) and employing idiomatic expressions, allusive usage and humour (at C levels);*
- *recognising sociocultural cues, especially those pointing to differences, and acting accordingly;*
- *adopting an appropriate register (from B2 up)."* (CEFR – Companion volume, 2020, p. 136)

Several researchers studied the differences in politeness between different cultures (e.g. Gu, 1990; Ide, 1989) or variation between native and non-native speakers in the use of, for example, (in)direct requests (e.g. Jalilifar, 2009). As for teaching politeness to English-language learners, several authors researched whether politeness should be taught in classrooms and how. Rajabia and colleagues (2015) conducted a study focusing on teaching (appropriate) requests to Iranian EFL learners, with the findings indicating "the necessity of incorporating consciousness-raising activities in the classroom" and the importance of explicit instruction (Rajabia et al., 2015, p. 238). Another research on requesting was done by Takahashi (2001), who compared different types of interventions to increase pragmatic performance by Japanese EFL learners. His finding showed that explicit teaching of request strategies had the biggest effect on students' competence as well as confidence (Takahashi cited in Cohen, 2005).

Bou-Franch and Garcés-Conejos (2003) have provided a methodological proposal for teaching politeness in classroom contexts, which presents an awareness-raising task and suggests using other activities, such as role-play, enabling learners to practise communication with others and complement the awareness-raising task in an indirect way (Bou-Franch & Garcés-Conejos, 2003).

In conclusion, it is crucial to teach politeness to EFL learners, as well as other phenomena belonging to pragmatics, in order to avoid pragmatic failure. The significance of politeness is further highlighted by the CEFR, which categorizes it under sociolinguistic competence. In this section, several studies were presented while exploring effective pedagogical methods for teaching politeness in language classrooms, which underscored the need for consciousness-raising activities and explicit instruction to enhance learners' pragmatic performance.

4 Requests

During any given instance, the production of speech encompasses three interconnected acts: locutionary act, illocutionary act, and perlocutionary act. According to Yule (1996, p. 48), the first act, the locutionary act, constitutes the foundational process of utterance, involving the creation of a "meaningful linguistic expression". The second act, the illocutionary act, denotes the construction of an utterance with a certain purpose and function intended. It is executed using the utterance 'communicative force'. The last act, the perlocutionary act, represents the effect an utterance has on the listener (Yule, 1996). In this chapter, English requests will be categorised and analysed. Moreover, they will be compared to Czech requests.

When discussing requests, it is unthinkable not to mention Searle and his speech act classification. According to him (1976, p. 11), requests belong to 'directives' (one of five basic 'illocutionary act' categories), whose 'illocutionary point' "consists in the fact that they are attempts […] by the speaker to get the hearer to do something" (Searle, 1976). In his words, requests, among other directives, are supposed to "get the world to match the words" (Searle, 1976, p. 3).

Requests are similar to orders and commands, which also belong to the category of directives. Searle (1969, p. 66) states that apart from the two preparatory rules of requests, (1) "H is able to do A; S believes H is able to do A" and (2) "it is not obvious to both S and H that H will do A in the normal course of events of his own accord", orders and commands have another one: "S must be in a position of authority over H" (Searle, 1969). Leech (2014, p. 135) claims that there is another difference between these speech acts, that is the way they treat optionality. Requests usually grant an addressee the discretion to decide whether to carry out the requested action. Conversely, when orders or commands are issued, the addressee is not afforded the same freedom of choice. He, moreover, states that there exists no distinct boundary between these three speech acts. Instead, there is "a continuous scale of optionality", ranging from the absolute lack of choice in a pure command to gradually increasing degrees of freedom given to the hearer (Leech, 2014). There are, however, more speech acts that share the indistinct borderlines of the request domain, like offers, suggestions, and instructions (Leech, 2014).

According to Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987), requests are FTAs and, therefore, when requesting, one should use strategies for doing FTAs (provided in section 3.2) (Brown & Levinson, 1978, 1987). Blum-Kulka and colleagues (1989) provide another point of view, presenting three requesting strategies based on their level of directness: (1) direct requests, (2) conventional indirect requests, and (3) non-conventional indirect requests (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Leech, 2014). As stated by Blum-Kulka (1987), when making conventional indirect requests, people refer to certain prerequisites that must be met in order for the requests to be fulfilled. They exhibit a common characteristic among different languages, which is the potential for pragmatic ambiguity between the intended request and the literal interpretation of the words used. It appears that the process of conventionalization impacts both the content (core meaning) of the statement and the selection of language components. In contrast, non-conventionally indirect requests are unrestricted regarding their core meaning, linguistic structure, and 'pragmatic force' (i.e. the communicative purpose of an utterance). Therefore, both the types of subtle cues (hints) that can be employed to articulate a request and the scope of pragmatic force are under no formal constraints except those guided by the CP (Blum-Kulka, 1987). Leech (2014, p. 142), however, claims that he prefers terms 'on-record' and 'off-record' for conventional and non-conventional indirect requests since the "non-conventional requests can actually be highly conventionalized (or pragmaticalized)" (Leech, 2014).

In their research, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) categorised the three levels of directness into nine "sub-levels", referred to as "strategy types", which collectively create a "scale of indirectness", providing a framework for cross-cultural analysis of speech acts (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984, p. 201). These requests strategy types include: (1) mood derivable, (2) explicit performatives, (3) hedged performative, (4) locution derivable, (5) scope stating, (6) language specific suggestory formula, (7) reference to preparatory conditions, (8) strong hints, and (9) mild hints (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984, p. 202).

Even when speakers have determined the desired degree of directness of the FTA, they can still utilise various linguistic devices to adjust the level of imposition associated with it (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984). To do so, one can implement 'internal' or 'external' modifications. The difference between these two adjustments is that the former one is done with the help of elements within the 'head act', while the latter is done by means of devices in the surrounding context of the 'head act'. The head act is the core segment of a request, with 'address term(s)' and 'adjunct(s)' being the other two surrounding it (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984). Importantly, regardless of their type, these modifications do not change the FTA's level of directness or the specific meaning conveyed by the utterance (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984). Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) provide a list of devices for both. In order to execute internal modification, syntactic and lexical/phrasal 'downgraders' can be used to make a request more indirect and, therefore, more polite (Blum-Kulka et al.,1989; Eskin, 2017). Some examples of syntactic downgraders are modal forms, past tense, and embedded if-clause, while 'hedges' (e.g. "somehow"), 'subjectivizers' (e.g. "I wonder"), and 'downtoners' (e.g. "possibly") belong to lexical/phrasal downgraders (Eskin, 2017). External modification with the goal of softening a request is done by 'mitigating supportive moves' (i.e. mitigating adjucts) that can achieved with the use of, for instance, 'getting precommitments', 'preparators', and 'imposition minimizers' (Eskin, 2017). Figure 2 depicts the three components of requests and the strategies for their modification graphically.

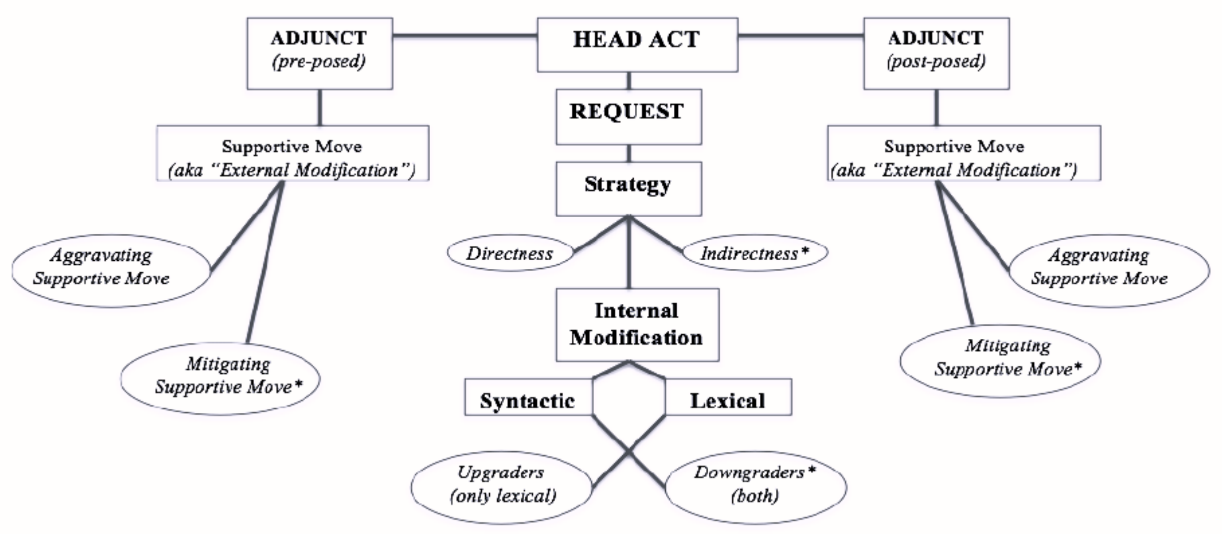

Figure 2: The components of requests and the strategies for their modification (Esken, 2017, p. 53)

4.1 (Polite) requests in English and Czech

Czech is an Indo-European language, specifically belonging to a West Slavic language group. English, while being an Indo-European language as well, is a member of West Germanic languages. Naturally, there are differences, as well as similarities, in the way (polite) requests are used in the Czech and English language. Exploring these distinctions and commonalities is essential when teaching English polite requesting to Czech learners of EFL.

Obenbergerová (1992, p. 93-94) claims that while "both cultures operate with the same pragmatic scale", it appears that they utilise the optionality scale in a distinct manner (Obenbergerová, 1992). She highlights the fact that Czech speakers commonly employ polite negative requests, by which "communicative pessimism" as well as negative politeness are demonstrated. In Czech, the utilisation of negative polite requests is not done to sway the listener's compliance with the action but rather to convey a sense of deference, reduce imposition and prevent potential discord. When using this strategy, a negative response is, in a way, implied, granting the hearer a sense of freedom to reject the request, which is considered more demanding in the case of a positive request. Moreover, the frequent insignificance of yes/no question polarity contributes to the justification for employing these requests. In contrast, negative requests are generally avoided in English since the speakers aim to establish a neutral setting to encourage the hearer to comply (Obenbergerová, 1992).

Obenbergerová (1992) claims that while Czech and English utilise different strategies, which may be caused by their inherentness in their cultures, to accomplish their aim, the same notion of request from the perspective of sociopragmatic applies in both of them (Obenbergerová, 1992).

As for the choice of requests, both languages use a variety of forms. They range from 'yes/no' and 'wh-questions' to imperatives (softened to become requests). Even if an imperative is supplemented by 'please' or a question tag, it is viewed as rather impolite considering its rank of imposition and directness. In the case of Czech, it is equal to the 'Will you requests' used in English regarding the degree of politeness and usage frequency. "The Czech 'Will you' interrogative sentence is connected with the function of a question more closely than is the case in English" (Obenbergerová, 1992, p. 95). According to Dušková (1984), this type of requests in English displays a broader function variety compared to the broader diversity of forms that constitute requests in Czech (Dušková, 1984). Another type of requests is whimperatives (i.e. "directives phrased interrogatively […], e.g. Would you pass me the salt? vs. Pass me the salt (please)."), which are perhaps the most frequently used indirect request in English. Czech speakers also use them, yet in both a positive and negative forms (Obenbergerová, 1992; Válková, 2004, p. 35)

Negation used in Czech requests can lead to pragmatic failure if transferred to English requests (Obenbergerová, 1992; Thomas, 1983). While being polite in Czech, negative forms of requests can be perceived as irony in English (e.g. "Can't you send it today?"). Moreover, requests that are the most polite in Czech, while being the most indirect, are those which use both negation and a conditional. Due to that, they are indirect and "very tentative" meaning the hearer is able to revoke it (Obenbergerová, 1992, p. 97). Furthermore, sentences such as "Wouldn't you send it today?" and "Couldn't you send it today?" are literal translations of Czech requests that rank at the highest level of politeness. In English, they are, however, perceived differently, giving the impression that the speaker is shocked by the hearer's apparent unwillingness and inability to fulfil the request, causing them to be considered impolite (Obenbergerová, 1992). Another risk of pragmatic failure occurs when Czech speakers employ “please” to yes/no and wh-questions, since the Czech expression “prosím tě/vás” can be used more broadly than “please” in English (Obenbergerová, 1992).

When teaching Czech students requesting in English, it is important to raise their awareness of the differences and similarities between these two languages. If they are not instructed on the distinctions, it can lead to pragmatic failures, such as in the case of using negative forms of requests or employing “please” where it is not appropriate.

5 The research

The theoretical part of this thesis presented background information about pragmatics, politeness, and the speech act of requesting, as well as pedagogical instruction focusing on them in EFL classrooms.

This chapter aims to elucidate the entire concept and process of the research, encompassing the research aim and research questions, information about why the study was conducted, the research participants and their selection, methods and procedures, and the tool employed for data collection.

5.1 Research aim and questions

This aim of this thesis is to investigate the effectiveness of pedagogical intervention in enhancing the competence of Czech 9th-grade EFL learners to use polite requests appropriately in English, explore the effectiveness of deductive and inductive approaches, and examine potential gender-based differences in response to these approaches.

The research questions are as follows:

RQ1: To what extent does pedagogical intervention enhance the competence of 9th-grade Czech EFL students in using polite requests in English appropriately?

RQ2: Which teaching approach demonstrates higher effectiveness in enhancing the competence of 9th-grade Czech EFL learners in using polite requests in English?

RQ3: How do Czech male and female 9th-grade students respond to different teaching approaches to teaching polite requesting?

5.2 Research problem

In the theoretical part of this thesis, arguments from various scholars regarding pragmatics and the need for instruction to foster pragmatic development and awareness of communicative actions were presented. Moreover, a section was dedicated to exploring two types of instruction, deductive and inductive, specifically evaluating their effectiveness in teaching pragmatic to language learners. Given the inconclusive nature of existing results, it was decided to undertake research with Czech EFL learners.

A decision was made to examine learners' pragmatic competence before and after trying to enhance learners' ability to use (polite) requests appropriately with the use of deductive and inductive approaches. The reason for selecting this subject matter is the importance of pragmatic competence in avoiding pragmatic failure, which, as stated earlier, is deemed more serious than grammatical errors. It is also believed that insufficient attention is dedicated to pragmatic and sociolinguistic issues in English classes in lower secondary schools in the Czech Republic. For instance, the Project coursebooks (2 to 5), which are commonly used at lower-secondary school level in the country, lack a direct explanation of different degrees of politeness and generally do not include examples or comparisons concerning requests with regard to politeness (Sugar, 2015).

5.3 Research participants

For the purpose of the study, a sample of EFL learners was chosen. The participants were of Czech nationality, whose first language is Czech. They were between 14 and 15 years old, in their last year of lower secondary school, attending the same elementary school in a town in Zlín region. This school was chosen due to the number of individual classes in the target year, as well as because of previous positive collaboration during teaching practice at the school.

The participants were learners from 3 classes of the same year, which, during the school year, in English language classes, were divided into 6 groups, as is a common practice in foreign language classes to achieve having less than 15 learners in one group. These 6 groups were taught by 5 teachers (one teacher taught 2 groups). All of these 5 teachers use the same set of coursebooks for teaching English at the lower secondary school level, namely Project, in accordance with the same School Educational Programme and based on The Framework Education Programme for Basic Education, and CEFR.

Regarding learners' English language skills, at the time of the research, all of learners had been learning English for at least 6 years, considering the fact that the teaching of a foreign language is obligatory from the 3rd year of primary schools in the Czech Republic according to The Framework Education Programme for Basic Education. However, not all participants had the same language proficiency (as was observed during the process of conducting the research), which is assumed to be a natural, given a myriad of factors, such as the groups being taught by different teachers in their English lessons and the learners' predispositions.

As for the sample size of this research, out of 4 classes approached, 3 were willing to participate in this research. Moreover, because this research took place in natural conditions, instead of regular English classes, not all participants were present during the whole process.

Therefore, instead of the intended number of participants, the sample size was 45 participants, out of which 21 were female and 24 were male. The process of selecting the research participants will be discussed in section 6.4.7.

5.4 Methods and procedures

In this research, a quantitative method was employed, utilising a pre-test and post-test control group design as part of the quasi-experimental design conducted. The reason for the use of the quasi-experimental design is the natural environment and the conditions under which it was performed. Because this research took place in educational settings, it was not possible to randomly assign learners to different groups. Consequently, additional measures were taken to avoid issues with the validity of results (Dörnyei, 2007).

5.4.1 Preliminary steps

In the preliminary phase, the school was approached with a request for the opportunity to carry out the research. Subsequently, communication with affected teachers resulted in the negotiation of suitable timetables. The teachers were introduced to the concept of the research and asked to elicit the willingness of the students to participate in it.

5.4.2 Participant engagement and group formation

As the next step, the participants were presented with the aim and the purpose as well as the whole process of the study. They were informed about the voluntariness of participation and assured about the anonymity of the partakers. Subsequently, the learners agreed to their results being analysed and used for the purpose of the study. Finally, 3 out of 4 classes were enrolled.

As for the formation of research groups, the 6 groups, which were taught by 5 teachers in regular English lessons, were asked to form 3 groups, based on their affiliation to classrooms, to ensure a smooth process when creating timetables and securing classrooms for the research. This meant that each research group was formed of 2 sub-groups. Out of the 3 research groups, 2 were appointed to be treatment groups and 1 to be a control group. The assignment of the types of intervention was done on a random basis.

5.4.3 Test development and pilot

As a next step of the preparatory phase of the research, a test was constructed to align with the purpose of the study, the age, and the assumed proficiency level of the participants (see section 6.5). The test was piloted by a group of 5 individuals similar in age and proficiency level to the participants, and some adjustments were made before administering it to the actual participants. One of the modifications made was the use of instructions in Czech instead of English.

5.4.4 Native speaker selection and involvement

Another process that took place before the actual research was a selection of 12 native speakers (henceforth NSs) of English. Their data would serve as reference answers for students' responses in the 1st part of the test. Moreover, they would evaluate the appropriateness of the learners' answers in another part.

Due to financial constraints, a decision was made to approach acquaintances when recruiting NSs for this research. The chosen NSs differed in several factors, such as age (ranging from 25 to 69), education, social status, and gender. The reason for deciding to employ NSs in this research was to increase validity and reliability and to minimise any potential personal bias.

The NSs were given the 1st part of the test (see section 6.5) and requested to choose the most appropriate answer for each situation based on their judgment. From the 12 NSs recruited for this research, 11 were able to complete the tasks assigned, and 1 withdrew from the research because of time constraints.

5.4.5 Inter-rater reliability analysis for part 1

After the NSs' responses were obtained, they were analysed in IBM SPSS Statistics for Inter-rater Reliability, which "reflects the variation between 2 or more raters who measure the same group of subjects" (Koo & Li, 2016, p. 156). To do that, the Intraclass Correlation Coefficient, which can range from 0 to 1, was employed (Koo & Li, 2016). The closer the Intraclass Correlation Coefficient is to 1, the more reliable the data are (Koo & Li, 2016). The Two-Way Random-Effects Model was selected since the raters were chosen from a larger population, so the results can be generalised (Koo & Li, 2016). Based on this calculation, the data showed 'excellent reliability' with 0,969 for 'absolute agreement', which "concerns if different raters assign the same score to the same subject" (Koo & Li, 2016, p. 158). Therefore, the mode of their answers for each situation was used to create reference answers for the 1st part of the test. Table 4 showcases results from the Inter-rater Reliability calculation, with 'Average Measures' in the Intraclass Correlation being the relevant value for this research. Average Measures is "an index for the reliability of different raters averaged together" (MedCalc, n.d.).

Table 4: Intraclass Correlation Coefficient result for part 1

	Intraclass Correlation[b]	95% Confidence Interval		F Test with True Value 0			
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Value	df1	df2	Sig
Single Measures	,740[a]	,433	,976	35,053	3	30	<,001
Average Measures	,969	,894	,998	35,053	3	30	<,001

Two-way random effects model where both people effects and measures effects are random.
a. The estimator is the same, whether the interaction effect is present or not.
b. Type A intraclass correlation coefficients using an absolute agreement definition.

5.4.6 Research implementation

The research took place over 14 days in May 2023, mainly in English language classes. Each treatment group underwent 3 treatment lessons and 2 testing lessons. The control group participated in 2 testing sessions as well. However, during the 3 lessons held between the testing sessions, the learners did not receive any treatment. The treatment lessons were 45 minutes long. In order not to disrupt the research process, the lessons were scheduled closely together, and no regular English lesson taught by a different teacher was inserted between them. The timetable of the research is presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Research timetable

	Deductive group	Inductive group	Control group
Pre-test	3rd May 2023	2nd May 2023	2nd May 2023
Lesson 1	4th May 2023	3rd May 2023	4th May 2023
Lesson 2	10th May 2023	4th May 2023	9th May 2023
Lesson 3	11th May 2023	9th May 2023	11th May 2023
Post-test	15th May 2023	10th May 2023	15th May 2023

The first session was partly introductory, including an explanation of the process and a presentation of scheduled dates. While the second part of the lesson involved administering and collecting a pre-test. This process was the same for all 3 groups.

The next 3 lessons differed in their approach or content. The deductive group was taught utilising a deductive approach to teaching, specifically an explicit deductive approach. The inductive group was taught using an inductive approach to teaching, specifically an explicit inductive approach. Finally, the control group did a range of various activities, which did not involve any (polite) requests nor the issue of politeness generally. The course of these lessons will be provided in Chapter 7.

After the 3 lessons were completed, the last lesson, a second testing lesson, took place. At the beginning of the lesson, the post-tests were administered, and the learners were given enough time to complete them. The second part of the lesson included various activities to fill in the free time and allow the students to de-stress.

5.4.7 Equal group formation

Once the treatment was completed and the data collected, the pre-tests and post-tests were paired, and the tests that did not have a pair were excluded. After eliminating the unpaired tests, each group had a different number of members. While the deductive group had 15 individuals, the inductive group had 20 individuals, and the control group had 17 individuals. To achieve the same number of participants in each group for smoother calculations, random selection using an online website (www.random.org) was conducted. The paired tests numbered, 2 ranges of numbers (1 to 20 and 1 to 17) were set, and 5 numbers for the inductive groups and 2 numbers for the control group were generated. As a result, 3 groups with an equal number of participants were formed. These groups were, however, unequal gender-wise. The deductive group had 9 males and 6 females, the inductive group had 8 males and 7 females, and the control group had 7 males and 8 females.

5.4.8 Evaluation instruction and process

After the creation of groups equal in number, the 11 NSs were contacted again and instructed on their role as evaluators of the learners' answers in the 3rd part of the test. They were provided with a text summarising the issues of politeness, which had been tested in the test completed by the learners, and a guide on how to proceed in their role, which included specific steps, criteria of evaluation, and deadlines to be met.

First, the evaluators were provided with a set of 6 responses from the 3rd part of the test, taken from 2 unpaired tests. Half of the responses were written by 1 student, and the other half by a different student. The evaluators were instructed to rate these answers on a 5-point Likert-type scale, focusing on the appropriateness of the responses in terms of the degree of politeness rather than grammaticality. The scale served as both the evaluation criteria and the evaluation tool (see section 6.5.2).

5.4.9 Inter-rater reliability analysis for part 3

The reason for providing the evaluators with some real data was to measure the Inter-rater Reliability, specifically for this part of the test, to ensure reliability and variability for the actual evaluation of the responses in the paired tests. The same process as for part 1 was conducted using the SPSS Statistics software to calculate the Interclass Correlation Coefficient. For this part, the coefficient indicated 'moderate reliability' with 0,707 for 'absolute agreement', as shown in Table 6 (Koo & Li, 2016). This allowed the process to proceed.

Table 6: Intraclass Correlation Coefficient result for part 3

	Intraclass Correlation [b]	95% Confidence Interval		F Test with True Value 0			
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Value	df1	df2	Sig
Single Measures	,180[a]	,024	,639	3,602	5	50	,007
Average Measures	,707	,213	,951	3,602	5	50	,007
Two-way random effects model where both people effects and measures effects are random.							
a. The estimator is the same, whether the interaction effect is present or not.							
b. Type A intraclass correlation coefficients using an absolute agreement definition.							

5.4.10 Data analysis

After the reliability calculation, the NSs were provided with a document with examinees' responses to the 3rd part of the tests. They were asked to repeat the process of evaluation with the use of the 5-point Likert-type scale for all 45 participants, thus 90 tests.

As the last step, both the pre-tests and post-tests of the 3 groups were assessed and the data analysed.

To gain a comprehensive understanding of the acquired data through the pre-test and post-test control group design, descriptive statistical analyses were conducted. When aiming to answer the research questions, many statistical tests were attempted and subsequently rejected because of the nature of the data. For instance, the analysis of covariance had to be dismissed because the data violated some of the assumptions essential for the correct calculation of results. Since the data were non-normally distributed, it was opted for non-parametric tests (Dörnyei, 2007). Therefore, the Wilcoxon Signed-rank Test and Mann-Whitney U Test were used.

5.5 Research tools

In this section, the research tools used to collect data from Czech EFL learners as well as the evaluations of some of these data by the evaluators (NSs) will be introduced.

5.5.1 Test

When deciding which research tool to use, a widely used method in educational settings was selected – a test. Tests facilitate the collection of a large amount of data within a relatively short period. They are especially useful for evaluating learners' knowledge at multiple points in time, such as in pre-test post-test designs or pre-test post-test follow-up designs.

The test utilised for this research was a summative achievement test (see Appendix A). In both the pre-test and post-test phrases, the same test was administered to ensure consistency in data collection. The test was completed within 10 to 15 minutes. Its purpose was to measure learners' pragmatic competence, specifically the ability to use the requests appropriately concerning their level of politeness, and face-threat. The test consisted of 4 parts, in which 3 parts focused mainly on sociopragmatic competence and one on pragmalinguistic competence. After piloting, the task instructions were changed from English to Czech for better comprehension.

Part 1 involved 5 multiple-choice test items. The examinees' task was to choose the most appropriate request for each situation. The situations varied in their degree of imposition, distance, and power, which the learners were supposed to detect. These 5 test items focused mainly on learners' sociopragmatic competence and were to be judged on Leech's 'sociopragmatic politeness scale' since the choice was based on social context.

Part 2 consisted of 2 ordering test items, in which the learners were asked to order 5 requests in each test item from the most impolite (1) to the most polite (5). This part focused predominantly on pragmalinguistic competence since no context was provided. However, sociopragmatic knowledge was also required to determine that generally, in English-speaking countries, the more indirect a request is, the more polite and vice versa (Brown & Levinson, 1987). The 2 test items were not created exclusively for this test. Instead, they were taken from Thaine (2010) and adapted.

In the next part, part 3, including item 8, the examinees were asked to (for each of the 3 situations) write a request that would bear an appropriate degree of politeness. This task assessed learners' sociopragmatic competence.

The last part, including 4 multiple-choice items (items 9 to 12), was based on Brown and Levinson's politeness theory and focused on politeness strategies (see section 3.2). Instead of applying terms used by Brown and Levinson, it was opted to use example sentences to make it easier for the examinees to imagine.

For part 1, reference answers had to be created. To do that, NSs were employed. The process is described in sections 6.4.4 and 6.4.5. Moreover, NSs were also requested to evaluate examinees' responses in part 3 with the use of a 5-point Likert-type scale (see sections 6.4.9 and 6.4.10). This helped with assessing each response while preventing any potential personal bias.

As for the pointing system, in part 1, each correct answer was awarded 1 point. In part 2, each correctly ordered request equalled half a point. In the 3rd part, responses were evaluated on a scale from 1 to 5, with the points corresponding to the points on the scale (see section 6.5.2). For instance, if a response was evaluated as 1, the individual received 1 point. If a response was evaluated as 4, 4 points were awarded. Finally, in the last part, each correct answer was given 1 point.

The test and the pointing system were created to benefit both males and females since, according to Cohen et al. (2007, p. 161), "boys perform better than girls on multiple choice questions […] (perhaps because boys are more willing than girls to guess in multiple-choice items) […]" (Cohen et al., 2007). Moreover, the aim was to create a test that would not be excessively lengthy, leading to a loss of concentration or boredom (Cohen et al., 2007).

5.5.2 Likert-type scale

A Likert scale is a "widely used" rating scale that "build[s] in a degree of sensitivity and differentiation of response while still generating numbers" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 325-326). According to Leech (2014), it can be used to evaluate appropriateness and politeness (Leech, 2014). For example, Takimoto (2008) utilised an 11-point scale for his "Acceptability Judgement Test" to make examinees rate the appropriateness of requests (Takimoto, 2008, p. 377).

As mentioned before, it was decided to utilise a 5-point Likert-type scale for evaluating the appropriateness of examinees' responses in the 3rd part of the test. The evaluation was conducted by 11 NSs who were instructed on their role as evaluators and provided with evaluation criteria. The decision to employ NSs aimed to ensure validity and reliability as well as to prevent any potential bias since this part of the test was subjective.

The 5-point Likert-type scale provided a set of predefined levels representing different degrees of politeness. Each point on the scale corresponded to a specific level of appropriateness, creating a framework for the evaluation of examinees' responses. The evaluators were supposed to, based on their judgement, determine which point on the provided scale reflects the observed degree of politeness best. This evaluation tool was employed to ensure consistency in the evaluation process. The evaluation scale is provided in table 7.

Table 7: Evaluation scale

1	2	3	4	5
Very inappropriate	Somewhat inappropriate	Neutral	Somewhat appropriate	Very appropriate

Moreover, the evaluators were provided with a description for each point on the evaluation scale to ensure the evaluators would not misunderstand the scale. No relevant sources providing descriptions of individual points on a Likert-type scale concerned with the appropriateness of the degree of politeness used in requests could be found. Therefore, a decision was made to utilise AI to help with generating them. Subsequently, the descriptions were adjusted. The descriptions co-created specifically for the purpose of this research are as follows:

1. Very inappropriate
• the request is entirely unsuitable for the given context
• it shows a complete disregard for politeness norms and cultural expectations
• the response may be offensive or rude

2. Somewhat inappropriate
• the request lacks appropriateness for the context
• it demonstrates limited awareness of politeness norms and cultural factors
• the response may be somewhat offensive or insensitive

3. Neutral
• the request is neither highly appropriate nor highly inappropriate
• it shows some understanding of politeness norms but falls short in certain aspects
• the response may need improvement to better match the context

4. Somewhat Appropriate
• the request is generally suitable for the context

• it demonstrates a good understanding of politeness norms and cultural factors
• the response is considerate and respectful

5. Very Appropriate
• the request is highly suitable for the context
• it adheres closely to politeness norms and cultural expectations
• the response is exceptionally considerate and respectful (OpenAI, 2023)

6 Course of lessons

In this chapter, courses of lessons for treatment groups and the lesson plans will be presented. Moreover, the content of lessons of the control group will be mentioned.

6.1 Deductive group

As mentioned earlier, the deductive group was taught with a deductive approach, using explicit instruction. The instruction was given predominantly in Czech to ensure better comprehension.

6.1.1 Lesson 1

The 1st treatment lesson aimed to teach learners which factors affect the degree of politeness in requests and how. The focus was on power, distance, and rank of imposition (see section 3.2).

First, the teacher explained which factors are influential when choosing the appropriate level of politeness and provided real-life examples for better understanding.

In the 1st activity, learners were asked to come up with 3 different situations, and the teacher evaluated the factors involved.

In the next activity, the teacher explained the connection between these factors and the (in)directness of requests.

Then, learners were given a worksheet (see Appendix B) and asked to read a conversation and determine what was strange about it and why. Moreover, they were asked to adjust it.

For the last activity, learners were instructed to work in pairs, choose one of the provided pictures, and write a conversation based on it. The dialogue was meant to include a request, either an appropriate or inappropriate one. Some of the pairs were chosen to read the conversation, and their classmates decided whether the request was appropriate in that situation.

The lesson plan for the 1st treatment lesson of the deductive group was as follows:

Lesson: 1st treatment lesson

Lesson Time: 45 min

Topic: Factors influencing the degree of politeness

Aim: Learners will be able to evaluate factors involved in different situations and decide which requests are appropriate. They will be willing to work in pairs and share their attitudes towards politeness with the class.

Approach: Deductive

No.	Activity	Time	Task	Materials	Aim
1	Introduction	3 min	T welcomes Ls and introduces the main aim.		To introduce the aim and plan of the lesson
2	Factors influencing the choice of the degree of politeness	7 min	T explains which factors are influential in choosing a degree of politeness. She provides example situations.		Ls will be able to name factors influencing the degree of politeness.
3	Evaluation of factors in different situation	8 min	T asks Ls to come up with 3 different situations and she evaluates the factors involved.		Ls will be able to evaluate factors in different situations.
4	Types of requests	10 min	T explains how requests can change based on the factors mentioned.		Ls will make a connection between (in)directness of requests and contextual factors.
5	Conversation adjustment	4 min	Ls are asked to read a conversation, decide what is strange about it and why. Then, they are asked to adjust the conversation so that it is more appropriate.	worksheet	Ls will be able to decide whether a request is appropriate or not and why.
6	Conversation writing based on pictures	10 min	Ls are asked to make pairs. They can choose one of two pictures. They are supposed to write a conversation that describes what is happening in the picture. The conversation must involve a request (either an appropriate or inappropriate one). Then, they read it to their classmates, and they decide whether the request is appropriate or not.	worksheet	Ls will be able to decide whether a request is appropriate or not and why.
7	Lesson assessment	3 min	T asks Ls to give her feedback on the lesson, and they are encouraged to ask questions.		To gather feedback

6.1.2 Lesson 2

The 2nd lesson aimed at teaching politeness strategies and their payoffs to learners. No terms, such as 'positive' and 'negative', were used. Instead, example requests were utilised.

In the 1st activity, the teacher used a situation ("asking X to share their umbrella") to explain the nuances between requests when using different politeness strategies.

In the 2nd activity, the learners were supposed to choose the most fitting requests based on their payoffs.

Next, they were introduced to the politeness principle by Lakoff (1975). The teacher provided example sentences to show how diverse requests can be and to further broaden learners' range of requests they know.

As the last activity, the teacher asked the pupils to make pairs and write 3 requests according to the politeness principle by Lakoff. The teacher asked the pairs to read their requests to ensure their correctness.

The lesson plan for the 2nd treatment lesson of the deductive group was as follows:

Lesson: 2nd treatment lesson

Lesson Time: 45 min

Topic: Politeness strategies and their payoffs

Aim: Learners will be able to choose politeness strategies based on their payoffs. They will be willing to work in pairs and share their attitudes towards politeness with the class.

Group: Deductive

No.	Activity	Time	Task	Materials	Aim
1	Introduction	5 min	T welcomes Ls and introduces the main aim.		To introduce the aim and plan of the lesson
2	Politeness strategies - explanation	15 min	T uses a situation ("asking X to share their umbrella") to explain the differences between politeness strategies and their payoffs.		Ls will be willing to discuss their understanding of politeness strategies.
3	Politeness strategies - exercise	10 min	Based on different criteria (payoffs), Ls are supposed to choose the most fitting request. The T provides them with more information about the requests to help them.		Ls will be able to decide which politeness strategy to use for a specific payoff.

4	Politeness principle maxims - explanation	4 min	T introduces the Ls to the politeness principle by Lakoff (1975) and provides example sentences for each maxim.		Ls will be able to name the maxims of the politeness principle.
5	Politeness principle maxims - exercise	10 min	T asks Ls to make pairs and write 3 requests according to the politeness principle by Lakoff (Don't impose, Give options, Make your addressee feel good).		Ls will be able to write an example sentence for each maxim.
6	Lesson assessment	5 min	T asks Ls to provide feedback on the lesson and encourages them to ask questions.		To gather feedback

6.1.3 Lesson 3

The 3rd treatment lesson served as a revision lesson. It aimed at reinforcing previously learned knowledge, such as evaluating factors influencing the degree of politeness and politeness strategies.

In the 1st activity, the teacher drew 3 horizontal axes on the board, labelled them "distance", "power", and "rank of imposition", and described 3 situations. After describing each situation, the learners were asked to come to the board and evaluate the contextual factors by drawing a cross on the three axes. Each axis represented a continuum from the least to the most. For example, if one was supposed to ask his boss for a pay rise, the cross on the first line would be on the very right side. The teacher debated with the class to elicit their reasoning behind their decisions.

The next activity focused on pragmalinguistic politeness. The learners were requested to make groups of 3. Then, the teacher gave each group 6 pieces of paper with 6 requests written on them. Their task was to order them from the least polite to the most polite. The teacher reviewed their order and transcribed the requests onto the board in the correct sequence.

Then, the learners were given a worksheet (see Appendix C) and asked to write appropriate requests for 3 situations. The teacher was checking their responses during it. When they had finished, the teacher asked some of them to read their requests out loud.

As the last activity, learners were asked to make groups of 3 and given 3 pieces of paper for each group. They were asked to write a big letter on each paper (A, B, C), read the questions in exercise 2 on the worksheet, discuss the options and choose the correct answers. When they had finished, the teacher asked them for their answers. The learners showed their answers by raising the papers with the letter of their answers.

The lesson plan for the 3rd treatment lesson of the deductive group was as follows:

Lesson: 3rd treatment lesson

Lesson Time: 45 min

Topic: Politeness - revision

Aim: Learners will be able to write an appropriate request based on context, order requests based on their degree of politeness and choose requests based on their payoffs. They will be willing to work in teams and share their attitudes towards politeness.

Group: Deductive

No.	Activity	Time	Task	Materials	Aim
1	Introduction	3 min	T welcomes Ls and introduces the main aim.		To introduce the aim and plan of the lesson
2	Evaluation of factors influencing the degree of politeness	8 min	T draws 3 horizontal axes on the board and names them "power", "distance", and "rank of imposition". T describes 3 situations and asks Ls to come to the board and evaluate the factors by drawing a cross on each axis based on the situation (left side= the least; right side = the most).		Ls will be able to evaluate factors influencing the degree of politeness.
3	Request ordering	8 min	T asks Ls to make groups of 3 and gives all groups 6 pieces of paper with 1 request on each. Their task is to order the requests from the least polite to the most polite. T checks them and writes them on the board in the right order when all groups are done.		Ls will be able to order requests based on their degree of politeness.
4	Request writing	12 min	T asks Ls to write an appropriate request for each situation (exercise 1). T checks them and asks some Ls to read them out loud.	worksheet	Ls will be able to write appropriate requests based on context.
5	Strategies' payoffs matching	9 min	T asks Ls to make groups of 3 and gives each group 3 pieces of paper. Ls are asked to write a big letter on each paper (A,	worksheet	Ls will be able to choose requests based on their payoffs.

			B, C). Next, she asks each team to read the questions in exercise 2, discuss the options and choose the correct answers. When they are done, T asks the teams for their answers. Ls show them by raising the paper with the letter of their answer.		
6	Lesson assessment	5 min	T asks Ls to give her feedback on the lesson, and they are encouraged to ask questions.		To gather feedback

6.2 Inductive group

The inductive group was taught with an inductive approach, using explicit instructions. As in the deductive group, the instructions were given predominantly in Czech.

6.2.1 Lesson 1

The 1st lesson aimed, as in the deductive group, to teach learners about the factors influencing the level of politeness in requests, focusing on power, distance, and rank of imposition (see section 3.2). Prior to the 1st activity, learners were given a worksheet (see Appendix D), which included 3 out of 4 activities planned for the lesson.

In the initial activity, the teacher asked learners to read two conversations and decide what was wrong with them. She guided their discovery and posed additional questions about why the conversations seemed strange. After identifying the issues, learners were asked to adjust the requests to make them more appropriate, and the teacher provided feedback on their choices.

The subsequent activity involved learners reading various situations and deciding which factors played a role in choosing the level of politeness when making requests.

To make a connection between the (in)directness of requests and contextual factors, the teacher wrote some requests on the board and elicited learners' opinions on their level of politeness and the situations in which they would use them.

The final activity consisted of two parts. In the 1st part, learners were instructed to form pairs. They were asked to write a conversation based on the picture which would include a request (either appropriate or inappropriate). In the 2nd part, some pairs read their dialogues, and the rest of the class decided whether the requests were appropriate or not.

The lesson plan for the 1st treatment lesson of the inductive group was as follows:

Lesson: 1st treatment lesson

Lesson Time: 45 min

Topic: Factors influencing the level of politeness

Aim: Learners will be able to evaluate factors involved in different situations and decide which requests are appropriate. They will be willing to work in pairs and share their attitudes towards politeness with the class.

Approach: Inductive

No.	Activity	Time	Task	Materials	Aim
1	Introduction	5 min	T welcomes Ls and introduces the main aim.		To introduce the aim and plan of the lesson
2	Conversation adjustment	5 min	T asks Ls to read two conversations and decide what is wrong with them. T guides their discovery. Next, Ls are asked to change the utterances for more appropriate ones. T provides feedback on their choices.	worksheet	Ls will be able to decide whether a request is appropriate or not and why.
3	Factors influencing in choice of level of politeness	10 min	Ls are asked to read some situations and decide which factors play a role in choosing the level of politeness when making requests.	worksheet	Ls will be able to decide which factors play a role in various situation and evaluate them.
4	Types of requests	10 min	T writes requests with different level of (in)directness on the board and elicits Ls opinions on their level of politeness and in which situations they would use them. T provides feedback on their choices.		Ls will make a connection between (in)directness of requests and contextual factors.
5	Writing a conversation	10 min	Ls are asked to make pairs. They are supposed to write a conversation that describes what is happening in the picture. The conversation	worksheet	Ls will be able to decide whether a request is

			must involve a request (either an appropriate or inappropriate one). Then, they read it to their classmates, and they decide whether the request is appropriate or not.		appropriate or not and why.
6	Lesson assessment	5 min	T asks Ls to give her feedback on the lesson and they are encouraged to ask questions.		To gather feedback

6.2.2 Lesson 2

The 2nd lesson aimed at teaching politeness strategies and their payoffs to learners. As in the deductive group, no terms, such as 'positive' and 'negative', were used. Instead, example requests were employed.

First, the learners were provided with examples of 5 different politeness strategies used to request the same thing. The teacher asked different questions to elicit whom one would approach like that and what would be the benefit of doing so.

In the next activity, the learners were asked to work in teams to choose which request was the most fitting based on the potential payoff. Discussion within the teams was encouraged.

Subsequently, the learners were shown 3 examples of requests. The teacher elicited the names of the politeness principle maxims. The purpose was to show how diverse requests can be and to further broaden learners' range of requests they know.

As the last activity, they were asked to make pairs and write 3 requests according to the politeness principle by Lakoff.

The lesson plan for the 2nd treatment lesson of the inductive group was as follows:

Lesson: 2nd treatment lesson

Lesson Time: 45 min

Topic: Politeness strategies and their payoffs

Aim: Learners will be able to choose politeness strategies based on their payoffs. They will be willing to work in pairs/groups and share their attitudes towards politeness with the class.

Group: Inductive

No.	Activity	Time	Task	Materials	Aim
1	Introduction	4 min	T welcomes Ls and introduces the main aim.		To introduce the aim and plan of the lesson
2	Politeness strategies	12 min	T provides Ls with examples of 5 different politeness strategies used to request the same thing. T asks Ls questions to elicit whom one would approach like that, and the payoffs of the strategies.		Ls will be able to connect different requests with their payoffs.
3	Politeness strategies - quiz	14 min	Based on different criteria (payoffs), Ls are supposed to choose which request is the most fitting. They work in groups and discuss their choices.		Ls will be able to decide which politeness strategy to use for a specific payoff.
4	Politeness principle - maxims	5 min	T provides Ls with 3 examples of requests and elicits the names of the politeness principle maxims.		Ls will be able to name the maxims of the politeness principle.
5	Politeness principle - exercise	7 min	T asks Ls to make pairs and write 3 requests according to the politeness principle by Lakoff (Don't impose, Give options, Make your addressee feel good).		Ls will be able to write an example sentence for each maxim.
6	Lesson assessment	3 min	T asks Ls to give her feedback on the lesson and they are encouraged to ask questions.		To gather feedback

6.2.3 Lesson 3

The 3rd treatment lesson served as a revision session, aiming at practising learners' previously acquired knowledge. The lesson followed the structure of the 3rd lesson of the deductive group.

The 1st activity focused on evaluating factors influencing the level of politeness. The learners were asked to make groups of 3. The teacher drew 3 horizontal axes on the board, labelling them "power", "distance", and "rank of imposition". The learners were asked to replicate them onto a piece of paper 3 times. Each axis represented a continuum from the least to the most. The teacher described 3 situations and asked the learners to evaluate the factors by drawing a cross on each axis. Discussion was encouraged. After the groups were done evaluating the factors in each situation, some of them were asked to come to the board and replicate their evaluations for the teacher to check their choices.

The next activity focused on pragmalinguistic politeness. The teacher gave each group 6 pieces of paper with 6 requests written on them. Their task was to order them from the least polite to the most polite. The teacher reviewed their order and transcribed the requests onto the board in the correct sequence for the learners to check their order.

Subsequently, the learners were given worksheets (see Appendix C) and asked to, individually, write an appropriate request for each situation (exercise 1). The teacher was checking their responses during it. When they had finished, the teacher asked some of them to read their requests out loud.

As for the last activity, the learners were asked to work in groups again and given 3 pieces of paper per group. They were asked to write a big letter on each paper (A, B, C), read the questions in exercise 2 on the worksheet, discuss the options and choose the correct answers. When they had finished, the teacher asked them for their answers. The learners showed their answers by raising the papers with the letter of their answers.

The lesson plan for the 3rd treatment lesson of the inductive group was as follows:

Lesson: 3rd treatment lesson

Lesson Time: 45 min

Topic: Politeness - revision

Aim: Learners will be able to write an appropriate request based on context, order requests based on their degree of politeness and choose requests based on their payoffs. They will be willing to work in teams and share their attitudes towards politeness.

Group: Inductive

No.	Activity	Time	Task	Materials	Aim
1	Introduction	3 min	T welcomes Ls and introduces the main aim.		To introduce the aim and plan of the lesson
2	Evaluation of factors influencing the degree of politeness	12 min	Ls are asked to make groups of 3. T draws 3 horizontal axes on the board, labelling them “power”, “distance”, and “rank of imposition”. Each group is requested to replicate them onto a piece of paper 3 times. T describes 3 situations and asks Ls		Ls will be able to evaluate factors influencing the degree of politeness.

			to evaluate the factors by drawing a cross on each axis (left side= the least; right side = the most). Some of them are, then, asked to come to the board and do the same on the board.		
3	Ordering requests according to politeness	8 min	T asks Ls to make groups of 3 and gives all groups 6 pieces of paper with 1 request on each. Their task is to order the requests from the least polite to the most polite. T checks them and writes them on the board in the right order when all groups are done.		Ls will be able to order requests based on their degree of politeness.
4	Request writing	8 min	T asks Ls to, individually, write an appropriate request for each situation (exercise 1). T checks them and asks some Ls to read them out loud.	worksheet	Ls will be able to write appropriate requests based on context.
5	Strategies' payoffs matching	9 min	T asks Ls to work in groups again and gives each group 3 pieces of paper. Ls are asked to write a big letter on each paper (A, B, C). Next, she asks each team to read the questions in exercise 2, discuss the options and choose the correct answers. When they are done, T asks the teams for their answers. Ls show them by raising the paper with the letter of their answer.	worksheet	Ls will be able to choose requests based on their payoffs.
6	Lesson assessment	5 min	T asks Ls to give her feedback on the lesson, and they are encouraged to ask questions.		To gather feedback

6.3 Control group

The control group did not engage in any activities with pragmatic or sociolinguistic aspects. The activities that the learners participated in were practising their writing skills (e.g. group writing), speaking skills (e.g. discussion about travelling), and vocabulary (e.g. personality adjectives).

7 Results

In this chapter, the results of this research will be presented and discussed, along with the exploration of its limitations.

This research aimed to answer 3 research questions. To do that, it was decided to use pre-test post-test control group design, utilising the same test for both pre-testing and post-testing. The data analysis was conducted in IBM SPSS Statistics software, employing 2 non-parametric tests: the Wilcoxon Signed-ranked Test and Mann-Whitney U Test.

Research question 1:

To what extent does pedagogical intervention enhance the competence of 9th-grade Czech EFL students in using polite requests in English appropriately?

In order to answer this research question, a decision was made to use Wilcoxon Signed-ranked Test (related samples), since it is designed for computing with two related samples (Cohen et al., 2007). It was calculated for each group separately to determine whether there was a significant change between the pre-test and post-test scores.

As for the deductive group, the test statistic of 72,000 and the asymptotic significance of 0,009 (considered statistically significant if it is lower than 0,05) indicate a significant positive change between the pre-test and post-test scores. The mean score increased from 12,367 (standard deviation = 7,756) in the pre-test to 15,500 (standard deviation = 7,111) in the post-test. The minimum score increased from 1,50 to 4,50, suggesting improvement. However, the maximum score decreased from 23 to 22. These findings demonstrate a significant positive change in the deductive group's performance. Table 8 provides a summary of this test, and Figure 3 illustrates the positive and negative differences between the two tests.

Table 8: Summary of the Wilcoxon Signed-rank Test for the deductive group

Total N	15
Test Statistic	72,000
Standard Error	12,718
Standardized Test Statistic	2,595
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	,009

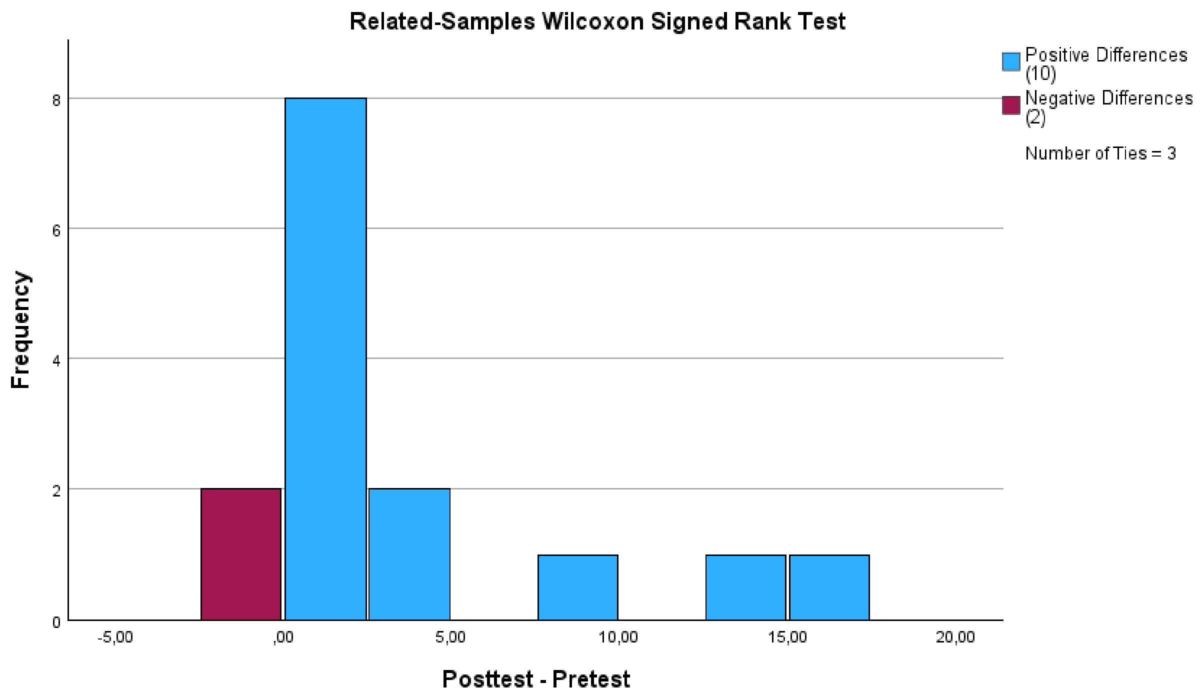

Figure 3: Differences between pre-test and post-test scores of the deductive group

The test statistic for the inductive group was 105,000, and the asymptotic significance was < 0,001, indicating a significant positive change between the pre-test and post-test. The mean increased from 17,733 (standard deviation = 3,698) to 20,800 (standard deviation = 2,103). The minimum increased from 9 to 17, while the maximum remained the same at 23. The summary of this test can be seen in Table 9, and the differences between the pre-test and post-test are illustrated in Figure 4.

Table 9: Summary of the Wilcoxon Signed-rank Test for inductive group

Total N	15
Test Statistic	105,000
Standard Error	15,878
Standardized Test Statistic	3,306
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	<,001

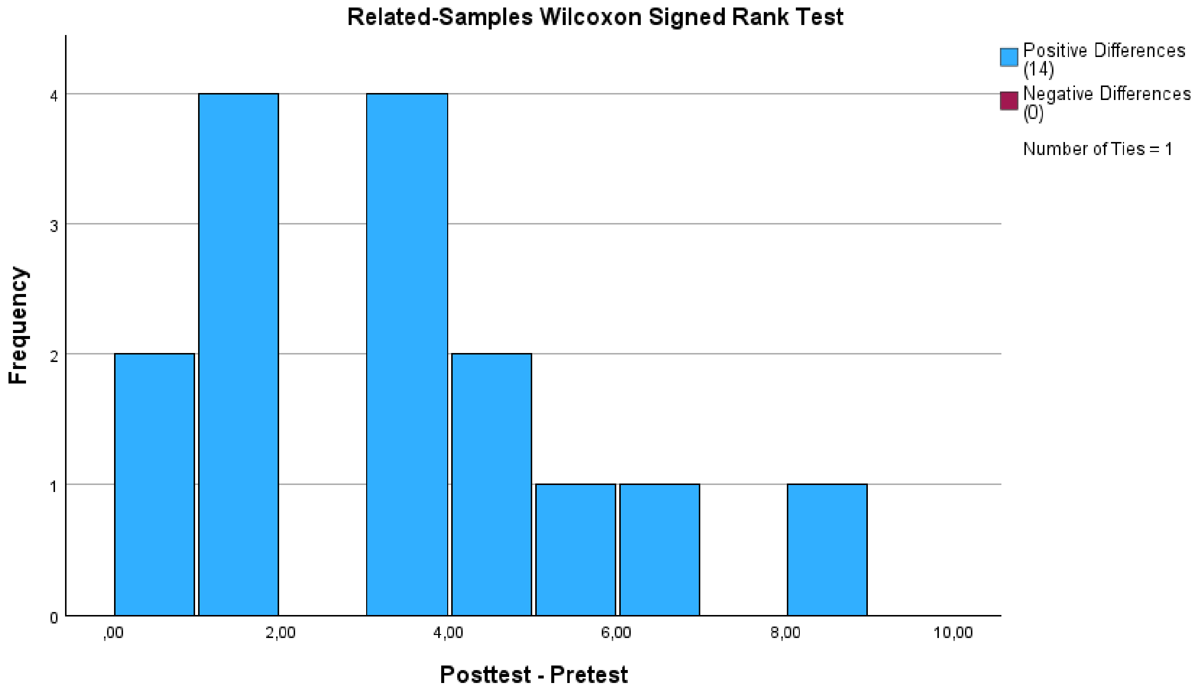

Figure 4: Differences between pre-test and post-test scores of the inductive group

As for the last group, the control group, the test statistic calculated by the Wilcoxon Signed-rank Test (related samples) was 34,000, and the asymptotic significance was 0,244. This indicates that there was no significant change in scores between the two testing points. The mean score decreased from 20,593 (standard deviation = 2,576) in the pre-test to 20,000 (standard deviation = 2,7839) in the post-test. The minimum score decreased from 16,50 to 14,50. Similarly, there was a decrease in the maximum score, namely from 25,00 to 24,00. Additional values can be found in Table 10, and the differences between the test scores can be seen in Figure 5.

Table 10: Summary of the Wilcoxon Signed-rank Test for control group

Total N	15
Test Statistic	34,000
Standard Error	15,882
Standardized Test Statistic	-1,165
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	,244

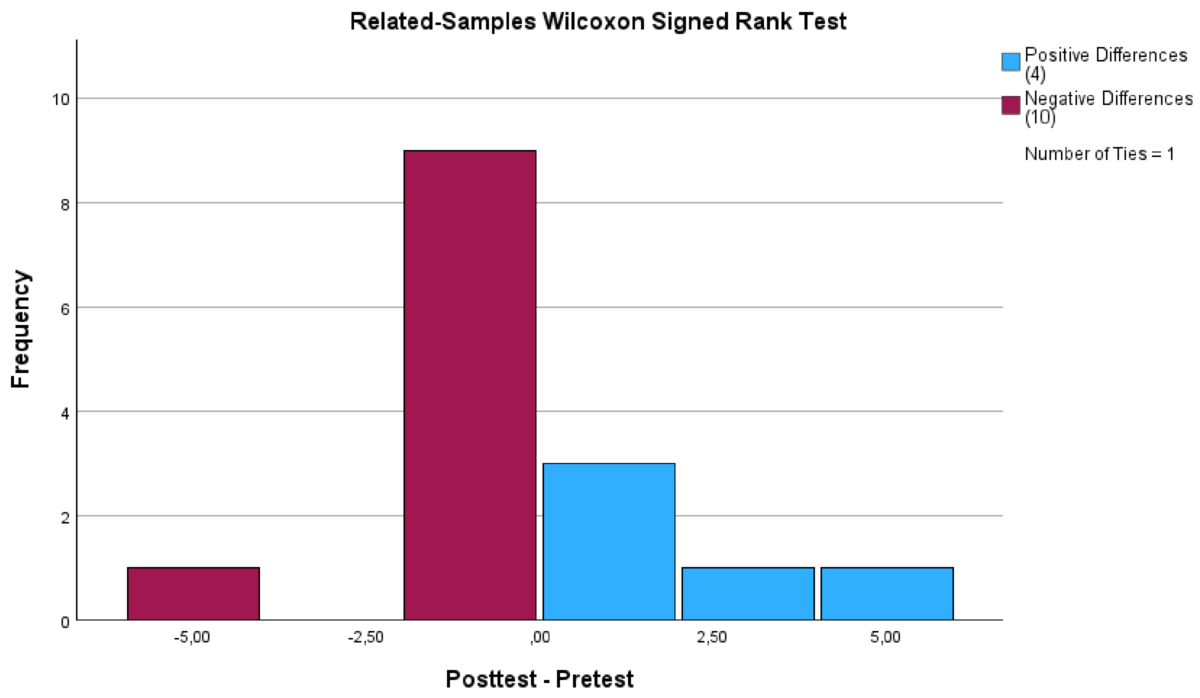

Figure 5: Differences between pre-test and post-test scores of the control group

Based on these findings, a statistically significant positive change between the pre-test and post-test scores in both the deductive and inductive treatment groups was observed. In contrast, the change in the control group was not statistically significant. These results indicate that pedagogical intervention significantly enhances the competence of 9th-grade Czech EFL students in using polite requests in English appropriately.

Research question 2:

Which teaching approach demonstrates higher effectiveness in enhancing the competence of 9th-grade Czech EFL learners in using polite requests in English?

With the use of the Wilcoxon Signed-rank Test and the Mann-Whitney U Test (independent samples), it was determined that the changes in scores from the pre-test to the post-test do not differ significantly between the deductive and inductive groups (Mann-Whitney U = 142,000; p = 0,233). The mean difference between the pre-test and post-test was 3,133 for the deductive group and 3,067 for the inductive group (see Figure 6). Additional value calculated by the Mann Whitney U Test are presented in Table 11.

These non-significant findings indicate that there is no substantial difference in the effectiveness of these two approaches. Both the deductive and inductive approaches resulted in significant improvements in EFL learners' competence in using polite requests in English.

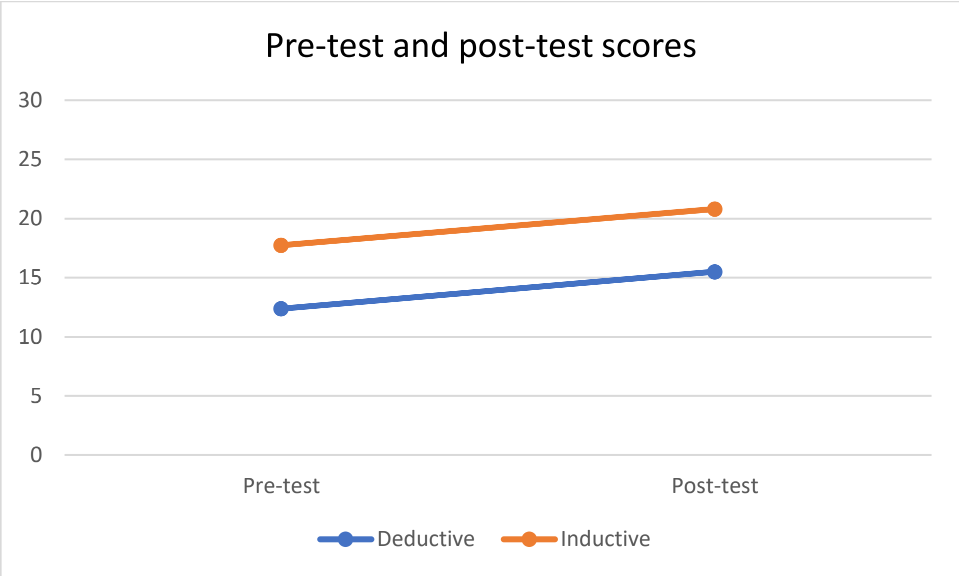

Figure 6: Pre-test and post-test scores of the deductive and inductive approach groups

Table 11: Summary of the Mann-Whitney U Test

Total N	30
Mann-Whitney U	142,000
Wilcoxon W	262,000
Test Statistic	142,000
Standard Error	23,988
Standardized Test Statistic	1,230
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	,219
Exact Sig. (2-sided test)	,233

Research question 3*:*

How do Czech male and female 9th-grade students respond to different teaching approaches to teaching polite requesting?

To determine whether or not one approach was more efficient for female or male learners, the Independent-sample Mann-Whitney U Test for both genders separately was computed to see if there was a significant difference in score gains between the treatment groups. No significant differences were observed between the deductive and inductive groups for both males (U = 44,000; p = 0,439) and females (U = 27,500; p = 0,349), indicating that the effectiveness of the two approaches did not differ within each gender. Table 12 provides the summary of the results computed with the use of the Mann-Whitney U Test.

Table 12: Summary of the Mann-Whitney U Test for males and females

	Males	**Females**
Total N	17	13
Mann-Whitney U	44,000	27,500
Wilcoxon W	80,000	55,500
Test Statistic	44,000	27,500
Standard Error	10,341	6,942
Standardized Test Statistic	,774	,936
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	,439	,349
Exact Sig. (2-sided test)	,481	,366

7.1 Discussion

This thesis aimed to investigate the effectiveness of pedagogical intervention in enhancing the competence of Czech 9th-grade EFL learners to use polite requests appropriately in English, explore the effectiveness of deductive and inductive approaches, and examine potential gender-based differences in response to these approaches. The findings indicate that pedagogical intervention is significantly more effective than no intervention, as evidenced by the statistically insignificant change in the pre-test and post-test scores in the control group. In contrast, both deductive and inductive groups demonstrated significant improvements. Furthermore, the data analysis showed no statistically significant difference in the effectiveness between the deductive and inductive approaches. Lastly, the study found no significant differences in the responses to these two approaches among males and females.

Several researchers have focused on the issue of pragmatic competence in EFL contexts and its enhancement, proving the fact that pragmatics is teachable and pedagogical instruction is more efficient than no instruction. However, when it comes to the effectiveness of different approaches to teaching pragmatic concepts the results are inconclusive (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010).

Takimoto (2008) conducted a study examining the effects of deductive and inductive approaches to teaching 'complex requests' to Japanese EFL students comparing the results of 3 treatment groups (deductive instruction, inductive instruction with problem-solving tasks, inductive instruction with structured input tasks) and a control group. His results show that the treatment groups achieved significantly better results than the control group (Takimoto, 2008).

No research similar to this study in the case of the age of the learners, the types of instruction and the speech act chosen could be found. However, to demonstrate the inconsistency in the findings concerning which approach is more effective, some studies will be presented.

Rose and Ng's (2001) study focused on the effectiveness of the deductive and inductive approaches in teaching compliments and compliment responses. Their findings demonstrated that both led to the enhancement of pragmalinguistic competence. In the case of improving sociopragmatic competence, only the deductive approach succeeded (Rose and Ng, 2001).

Glaser (2016) carried out a quasi-experimental study exploring potential differences between the deductive and inductive approaches, both with explicit instructions. The study focused on EFL learners (with different first languages) in Germany at the university level. According to her results, the inductive approach was more effective in teaching offer refusals (Glaser, 2016). Kubota (1995), on the other hand, did not find any significant difference between these two approaches when teaching conversational implicature to Japanese EFL learners.

Concerning the response of males and females to the two teaching approaches, the findings align with the results of Poutmoradi and Vahdat (2016) suggesting no significant difference.

In conclusion, this research adds to the existing body of knowledge on language methodologies, providing insights into the Czech EFL learning environment. Moreover, it sheds light on the practical implications of employing deductive and inductive approaches in language classrooms involving gender-based preferences. It is, however, essential to approach these findings with a recognition of the study's limitations provided in the following section.

7.1.1 Research limitations

This section will outline the limitations of the study, highlighting factors that affected its design and findings. Understanding these limitations provides context for the results and helps to interpret them accurately.

The first limitation is the sample size. Because of the fact that this research was conducted in natural settings, at an elementary school, it was not possible to work with a larger sample size. Moreover, the learners' attendance was not compulsory. This led to the exclusion of a considerable number of participants from the study.

The next limitation is the fact that the sample was not chosen randomly, which may impact internal validity (Cohen et al., 2007). Therefore, the research conducted was not an experiment but a quasi-experiment.

Another issue attributable to the setting of the research is the unequal proficiency level of the groups. This may affect the internal validity of the study, making it challenging to attribute the observed changes exclusively to the treatment.

Moreover, potential threads to reliability were identified, including the reliance on multiple-choice questions in the test, which could introduce an element of guessing. Additionally, variations in the time of day during testing sessions may have influenced participant performance.

Due to the small sample size, the results are relevant only for the given group and cannot be generalised to the whole population. Moreover, non-parametric tests had to be utilised to calculate the data received, which were not normally distributed. These tests yield smaller effect sizes (Cohen et al., 2007).

Finally, it should be emphasised that politeness is a subjective phenomenon influenced by many factors. This leads to challenges in assessment and thus, objectivity issues.

8 Conclusion

This diploma thesis aimed to investigate the effectiveness of pedagogical intervention in enhancing the competence of Czech 9^{th}-grade EFL learners to use polite requests appropriately in English, explore the effectiveness of deductive and inductive approaches, and examine potential gender-based differences in response to these approaches. In this research, a quantitative method was employed, utilising a pre-test and post-test control group design as part of the quasi-experimental design conducted.

The theoretical part served as the background for the research part, encompassing existing knowledge about topics such as pragmatics, politeness, and requests, all in the context of language teaching.

The data obtained were analysed and presented to answer the research questions set. The findings support the need for pedagogical intervention when teaching pragmatics. Both the deductive and inductive approaches demonstrated a significant impact on the improvement of learners' pragmatic competence. Moreover, the comparison between them did not reveal a statistically significant difference in their efficiency in teaching polite requests. Similarly, no substantial gender-based difference in response to these two approaches was found.

When interpreting the results, it is essential to acknowledge the limitations of the study, such as the quasi-experimental design, sample size, and the specific group under investigation.

This study contributes to the broader field of language education by providing insights into the effectiveness of different teaching approaches, especially in the context of politeness. The findings corroborate existing research on the teachability of pragmatics and underscore the importance of considering both deductive and inductive methods with explicit instruction in language classrooms.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Test

Ve cvičení 1-5, zakroužkuj nejvhodnější žádost pro uvedenou situaci. (5 bodů))

1) You've missed the bus to school. Ask your parent to give you a lift. You have a very good relationship with your parents, but they are in a hurry and have to be at work soon.

a) Take me to school, please. I've missed the bus.

b) I've missed the bus. Can you take me to school?

c) I've missed the bus. Could you take me to school, please?

2) You are in a luxurious restaurant. You've finished your meal and want the waiter to bring you the bill. The waiter is very busy.

a) Bill, please!

b) Sorry. Could we get the bill when you have time, please?

c) Excuse me. Can we get the bill?

3) You are at home dining with your family. You want your younger sibling, who is close in age to you, to pass you the salt. What do you say?

a) Pass me the salt, please.

b) Would you mind passing me the salt, please?

c) Could you possibly pass me the salt?

4) You are in a shopping centre and can see smoke/fire in one of the shops. How do you tell a person shopping in the shop to leave?

a) Fire! Get out of here!

b) Would you mind leaving this place, please? There appears to be some fire.

c) Can you go out, please?

5) You and your friend are in London sightseeing. You want a photo of both of you at the Buckingham Palace. Ask a stranger to take the photo.

a) Excuse me! Can you take a photo of us?

b) Excuse me! Could you take a photo of us, please?

c) Will you take a photo of us, please?

6) *Seřaď následující žádosti od nejméně zdvořilé po nejvíce zdvořilou (1 = nejméně zdvořilá, 5 = nejvíce zdvořilá). Číslo napiš na linku vedle žádosti. (2,5 bodu)*

a) Would you mind turning the radio down? ______

b) I hate to ask, but you couldn't possibly turn the radio down, could you? ______

c) Turn the radio down! ______

d) Can you turn the radio down? ______

e) Would you turn the radio down, please? ______

7) *Seřaď následující žádosti od nejméně zdvořilé po nejvíce zdvořilou (1 = nejméně zdvořilá, 5 = nejvíce zdvořilá). Číslo napiš na linku vedle žádosti. (2,5 bodu)*

a) Do you mind if I leave early? ______

b) Can I leave early? ______

c) OK with you if I leave early? ______

d) I have to leave early, OK? ______

e) Would it be possible for me to leave early? ______

8) Napiš vhodnou žádost ke každé z následujících situací. (15 bodů)

a) You are in your room reading a book. You can't focus because your brother is playing music too loud in his room which is right next to yours. Ask him to turn the music down.

____

____

____

____

b) You are in the garden reading a book. You can't focus because your neighbour is playing music too loud. Ask him to turn the music down.

____

____

____

____

c) You are in the living room reading a book. You can't focus because your father is in the kitchen, repairing the sink and playing music too loud. Ask him to turn the music down.

____

____

____

____

Ve cvičení 9-12, zakroužkuj správnou odpověď. (4 body)

9. Která z následujících žádostí je nejohleduplnější při oslovování posluchače?

a) Hey, buddy, I'd appreciate it if you'd let me use your pen.

b) Can I borrow a pen?

c) I was wondering whether I could, by any chance, borrow your pen.

d) Give me a pen.

10. Kterou žádostí se mluvčí snaží docílit toho, aby se dotyčný člověk cítil, že jsou si rovni a mají stejný cíl?

a) I forgot my pen.

b) Give me a pen.

c) Could you lend me a pen?

d) How about letting me use your pen?

11. Která z těchto žádostí může být nejvíce poškozující pro sebehodnocení mluvčího, pokud bude odmítnuta?

a) Can you lend me a pen?

b) Could you possibly lend me a pen?

c) I was wondering whether I could borrow your pen.

d) How about letting me use your pen?

12. Která z těchto žádostí se nejvíce vyhýbá zodpovědnosti za její vyřknutí?

a) Hmm, I wonder where I put my pen.

b) Could you possibly lend me a pen?

c) I know you're busy, but might I ask you if – em – if you happen to have an extra pen that I could, you know – eh – maybe borrow?

d) Lend me your pen, please.

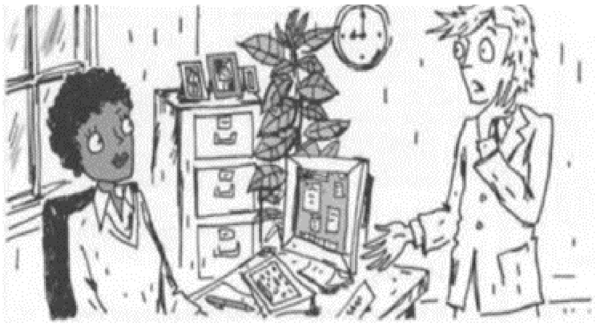
Appendix B: Worksheet – deductive group

1. Read the conversation below. Decide what is strange about it and why. Adjust the conversation.

Melissa and Harry talking about their son, Chris.

Harry: What is that terrible noise?
Melissa: It's the radio. That's what Liam calls music.
Harry: It's awful, and it's too loud. Why can't he turn it down?
Melissa: Tell him to.
Harry: Chris, I was just wondering if you'd mind awfully turning the radio down?
Melissa: I don't think he can hear you.

2. In pairs, write a conversation describing one of the pictures below. The conversation has to involve a request. The request can be appropriate or inappropriate. Read it to your classmates and let them decide whether the request is appropriate or not and why.



Appendix C: Worksheet – deductive and inductive group

1) *Write an appropriate request for the following situation. Take into account the factors influencing the level of politeness.*

a) You are struggling in an English class. Ask the teacher for extra help.

____

____

b) You are on a skiing holiday in the Alps. You are going down the hill very fast. You notice a group of people standing on the slope. Ask them to get out of the way.

____

____

c) Your son is playing video games in his room. Ask him to come downstairs for dinner.

____

____

2) *Circle the right answer.*

Which of these requests is the most considerate?

a) Could you possibly show me where the bus stop is?

b) I'm sorry to bother you, but I was wondering whether you could show me where the bus stop is, if it is not too much trouble.

c) How about showing me where the bus stop is?

Which of these requests is the most efficient?

a) Close the door, please.

b) Excuse me, could you close the door, please?

c) Would you mind closing the door?

Which of these requests can be the most damaging for the speaker's self-image if declined?

a) Let's go to the park.

b) Would you mind going to the park with me?

c) I was wondering whether you would be down to go to a park with me.

In which request does the speaker treat the hearer as if they were equal and wanted the same goal?

a) How about changing the song, mate?

b) Would you mind changing the song?

c) Can you change the song?

Which of these requests avoids the responsibility for the speaker's actions the most?

a) I'm just wondering how I will get home.

b) Could you possibly give me a lift home?

c) How about giving me a lift home?

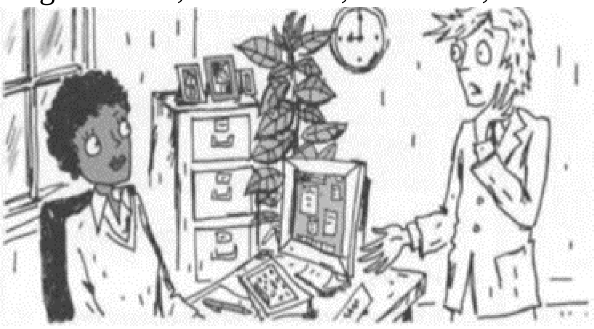
Appendix D: Worksheet – inductive group

1. Read the conversations below. In each conversation find one utterance that seems out of context and say why it is out of context. Change it for something more appropriate.

Conversation 1:
Melissa and Harry talking about their son, Chris.

Harry: What is that terrible noise?
Melissa: It's the radio. That's what Liam calls music.
Harry: It's awful, and it's too loud. Why can't he turn it down?
Melissa: Tell him to.
Harry: Chris, I was just wondering if you'd mind awfully turning the radio down?
Melissa: I don't think he can hear you.

Conversation 2:
Angela Smith, team leader, and Steve, who works in her team.



Steve: Excuse me, Ms Smith, I was wondering if I could have a quick word.
Angela: Certainly, Steve.
Steve: Last night I developed toothache…
Angela: Oh dear – sorry to hear that.
Steve: I can't get any work done because I can't focus on it because of it.
Angela: Okay?
Steve: Can you write the emails instead of me? I need to go to the dentist.
Angela: Yes, of course, that's fine.

2. Based on the situations below, decide which factors play the biggest role in choosing the level of politeness when making requests.

a) A girl asking her close friend to lend her a mascara.

A boy asking his sister to bring him a glass of water.

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b) A man asking his colleague to take his 4 shifts for him.

A man asking his brother-in-low to lend him 500 000 CZK.

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c) A patient asking a doctor for a prescription for some medicine.

An employer asking his employee to come to work earlier the next day.

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3. In pairs, write a conversation based on this picture. The conversation has to include a request. The request can be appropriate or inappropriate. Read it to your classmates and let them decide whether the request is appropriate or not and why.

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List of abbreviations

CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CP	Cooperative Principle
EFL	English as a foreign language
FTA	Face-threatening act
FTAs	Face-threatening acts
GSP	General Strategy of Politeness
Ls	Learners
NSs	Native speakers
O	Other(s)
PP	Politeness Principle
S	Speaker
T	Teacher

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Resumé

Tato diplomová práce se zabývá výukou zdvořilosti u českých žáků 9. třídy základní školy, kteří studují angličtinu jako cizí jazyk. Z výsledků pretestů a posttestů zaměřených na vhodné použití zdvořilých žádostí vyplývá, že pedagogická intervence výrazně zlepšuje pragmatickou kompetenci žáků. Při porovnání účinnosti výuky z výsledků těchto dvou testů u žáků vyučovaných deduktivní a induktivní metodou s explicitní výukou bylo zjištěno, že je mezi nimi pouze statisticky zanedbatelný rozdíl. Dále pak nebyl odhalen žádný rozdíl mezi dívkami a chlapci, pokud jde o to, která metoda jim více vyhovuje. Z tohoto výzkumu vyplývá, že při učení zdvořilosti v případě žádostí, lze využívat jak deduktivní metodu s explicitní výukou, tak induktivní metodu s explicitní výukou, jelikož ve stejné míře přispívají ke zlepšení pedagogické kompetence, a to jak u dívek, tak u chlapců.

Annotation

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Rok obhajoby:	2024

Název práce:	Zdvořilost a angličtina jako cizí jazyk
Název v angličtině:	Politeness and English as a Foreign Language
Anotace práce:	Tato diplomová práce se zabývá výukou zdvořilosti u studentů angličtiny jako cizího jazyka. Zkoumá účinnost pedagogické intervence, konkrétně deduktivního a induktivního přístupu s explicitními instrukcemi, při zvyšování pragmatické kompetence českých žáků 9. ročníku a zaměřuje se na přiměřenou míru zdvořilosti v žádostech. Teoretická část se věnuje pragmatice, zdvořilosti a žádostem. Praktická část popisuje výzkum využívající pretest a posttest design s kontrolní skupinou, a to v rámci kvaziexperimentálního designu.
Klíčová slova:	Výuka angličtiny, zdvořilost, pragmatika, výuka angličtiny jako cizího jazyka, výuka cizího jazyka, žádosti, deduktivní přístup, induktivní přístup
Anotace v angličtině:	This diploma thesis deals with teaching politeness to EFL learners. It investigates the effectiveness of pedagogical intervention, specifically deductive and inductive approaches with explicit instructions, in enhancing the pragmatic competence of Czech 9th-grade learners, focusing on the appropriate degree of politeness in requests. The theoretical part explores pragmatics, politeness, and requests. The practical part describes research utilising a pre-test and post-test control group design as part of the quasi-experimental design.

Klíčová slova v angličtině:	English language teaching, linguistic politeness, pragmatics, English as a foreign language, foreign language teaching, requests, deductive approach, inductive approach
Přílohy vázané v práci:	Test a pracovní listy
Rozsah práce:	92 stran
Jazyk práce:	Angličtina