Pragmatic Change of Politeness Request Strategies in Arabic among Saudi Arabian Bilingual Adults
1. Introduction

2. Literature Review

2.1 L2 influence on L1

2.1.1 The study of L2 influence on L1 in adulthood

2.1.2 The influence and the transfer of L2

2.1.3 L1 and the influence of L2 within pragmatics.

2.2 Pragmatic studies

2.2.1 The speech act of Request and Politeness

2.3 The research’s theoretical background

2.4 Related Literature

3. Methodology

3.1 Subject, Procedures used, and Instrumentation

4. Data Analysis and discussion

4.1 The Use of Direct Strategy

4.2 The Use of Conventional Indirectness

4.3 The Use of Non-Conventional Indirectness (NCI)

5. Conclusion

References

Appendices

Appendix A

Appendix B
Abstract
This study examines the effect of l2 on L1 at the pragmatic level. Speech acts are the most revealing differences between languages from a pragmatic and linguistic perspective. This study investigates and compares the differences and similarities between request politeness strategies that bilingual Saudi speakers—who have been in the UK for two years—share with monolingual Saudi speakers and British speakers. The aim is to discover if learning English and engaging with English speakers everyday can change the way Arabic speakers from Saudi Arabia speak in their first language, specifically request politeness strategies. The study helps gain insights into the l2 effects on L1 at the pragmatic level. The question addressed in this study is—does learning English and living in an English-speaking country—Britain for two years or more—change the politeness strategies used to make a request by Saudi Arabic speakers in their first language? If it does change, how does it change? The analysis applied here is derived from Scollon and Scollon’s (1995) politeness theory and Watts' theory (2003). Results show that Bilingual Saudis expressed a greater capacity to apply numerous techniques in the same settings as in situations 2, 4, 5, 6 while the reactions of the members involved techniques such as, direct techniques, conventional indirect techniques and non-conventional direct strategies. In a comparison undertaken amongst the bilingual Saudis, the native Saudis and the British, it was found that the first resembled the second category more than the British.
1. Introduction

This study examines the effects of L2 on L1 at the pragmatic level. Speech acts are the most revealing differences between languages from pragmatic and linguistic perspective. This study investigates and compares the differences and similarities in request politeness strategies that bilingual Saudi speakers, who have been in the UK for two years, share with monolingual Saudi speakers and British speakers. The aim is to discover if the learning of English and engaging with English speakers everyday can change the way Arabic speakers of Saudi speak in their first language specifically request politeness strategies. The study helps to gain insight in the L2 effects on L1 at the pragmatic level. The question addressed in this study is does learning English and living in the English speaking country, Britain, for two years’ period or more can change the politeness strategies used for requesting by Saudi Arabic speakers in their first language, and if they are changed, how they changed.

The analysis applied for this project are Scollon and Scollon([1995]2001)’s politeness theory and Watts’ theory (2003). The study found that Bilingual Saudi expressed more capacity of applying numerous techniques in the same setting like in situations 2, 4, 5, 6 the reactions of the members involved techniques like direct techniques, conventional indirect techniques and non-conventional direct strategies. The bilingual Saudi resembles more with native Saudi as compared to the bilingual Saudi with the British. I undertake a review of the literature of L2 and its influence on L1 and the speech act of request and politeness and then, examine similar studies in this context. Subsequently, I examine the Methodology, Analyse and Discuss the results in the light of Scollon and Scollon’s Theory ([1995] 2001) and Watt’s Theory (2003).
2. Literature Review

2.1 L2 influence on L1

With regard to the subject of bilingual competence and performance, involuntary influence—or interference—remains among the most contentious issues and subjects in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and bilingual studies. Simultaneously, specific limits are imposed by each of the fields with regard to the assessment of interference in specific aspects and areas of production and perception. Within SLA and for both, a subject and an academic field, investigations are generally limited to L1 transfer, and these are conceived of, according to Gass and Selinker (1992, p. 234) as "the use of native language (or other language) knowledge—in some as yet unclear way in the acquisition of a second (or additional) language". Despite the fact that L2’s influence on L1 is indeed considered within the field of bilingualism (Haugen, 1953; Weinreich, 1953; Clyne, 1967; Appel and Muysken, 1987; Romaine, 1995), this element is generally focused on and assessed throughout periods of simultaneous bilingualism and during one’s childhood, or, alternatively, in language-contact situations at the speech-community level. A new and original direction and area of inquiry may be potentially created for both, mainstream linguistics as well as the other two fields by assimilating individual L1 learners and users, who are interested in L2’s influence on L1.

2.1.1 The study of L2 influence on L1 in adulthood

Weinreich (1953), in a renowned discussion of the three forms of bilingualism: late bilingualism, early bilingualism and additive bilingualism and subtractive bilingualism suggested and showed a sub-coordinate (generally alluded to or termed
subordinate) bilingualism as the learning process undertaken throughout or during adulthood to master a foreign language. Herein, the linguistic framework and structure of the weaker language is affixed and seen via the dominant language. From this, and based on comparable theoretical suggestions and arguments, the study of SLA and the inquiry into transfer therein, is postulated and predicted dependent on a presumption. This presumption maintains that after the individual’s linguistic structure or system has reached a stage where it can be said to be “mature”, the linguistic native ability of that individual shall not be subjected to further alterations. MacWhinney (1997) has presented an especially formidable, it is subsequently able to interpret input information and data resulting in and moving toward a tuning-up and exactifying calibration of the activation weights governing processing. In the case of an extant neutral structure such as this being impacted by a second language, the process will alter the existing and entrenched set of weights already in place. Indeed, when utilising transfers in the process of learning a second language, one can prevent a catastrophic interference of L2 upon L1.

Transfer within SLA, based on the aforementioned presumption and the general focus on the target language in question, has been researched and assessed as a generalised impact of L1 upon L2 ability and efficacy in use, rather than as a two-way process. According to Gass and Selinker (1992), SLA scholars see bidirectionality as a phenomenon of facilitation, something that may be utilised in equal amounts by individuals learning language B of language A and speakers of language B who are learning language A. Though existing literature on the subject of L2’s impact and influence is small at the moment, several academics suggest that the individual’s L1 ability could be subject to alterations throughout adulthood and,
thus, the entrenched and sound “nativeness” of the individual’s first or native language will be less immutable than commonly supposed, according to Major (1992) and Waas (1996).

According to Dorian (1989), Major (1992), Seliger (1996), and Seliger and Vago (1991) Waas (1996) the author’s contemporaneous study is founded on the assimilations among bilingualism with regard to attrition in the first language. Further, this original and recent theoretical paradigm within SLA poses an antithesis to the bedrock of linguistic theory—namely, the native/non-native dichotomy and the idea of the “native speaker”, according to Pavlenko (1999), Rampton, (1995), Singh, (1998), Cook (1991; 1992; 1997; 1999a), Davies (1991), Firth and Wagner, (1997), Grosjean (1989), Kachru (1994), Kecskes and Papp (2000), and Kramsch (1997; 1998). The primary aspect that has drawn counterarguments to the ideas of these scholars, rather predictably, is the Chomskian concept of native speakers’ abilities due to the monolingual speaker ability, something that “idealizes away variation, performance, and especially bilingualism, [and] is even less suitable to SLA than it is to linguistics”, according to Sridhar (1994). The initial issue with regard to the vague and often unascertainable concept of the ability of the native speaker that such scholars highlight is the monolingual foundation, something that has been confined as a result of the cultural premises of the West. According to some scholars like Cook (1991; 1992; 1997; 1999a); Grosjean (1989); Major (1992); Rampton (1995); Singh, Lele and Martohardjono (1988) and Sridhar (1994), this preference or bias within linguistic theory has resulted in the denial or the overlooking of existing multilingual interactional contexts wherein, (a) a second language may be able to impact the initial language ability for the speaker and; (b), those who are bilingual
may act and behave in a manner different from that of monolingual speakers of one or both, languages.

The preference toward monolingualism has consecutively meant an additional issue, one that has been highlighted by a number of scholars. This is, namely, the negative and inefficient duplicative competence model within SLA and bilingualism research and study that has, in accordance with the arguments made by Sridhar (1994), resulted in increased “imperfect knowledge” of interlanguages. For example, the transitional ability, learners’ languages and "a negative characterization of the overwhelming majority of L2 acquirers and users... as speakers of interlanguages (Selinker, 1992), that is, as failed monolinguals rather than successful bilinguals" (Sridhar, 1994, p. 802).

Rampton (1995, p. 338) stipulates that "the idea that people really only have one native language, that really monolingualism is the fundamental linguistic condition, also underlies a widespread failure to recognise new and mixed linguistic identities" when elaborating the pre-existing criticisms concerning the duplicative competence model. Similarly, others such as Lantolf and Pavlenko (in press) stipulate that research in the field of SLA must consider L2 learners and see them as independent agents that determine autonomously cultural and linguistic aims and targets, while determining their extent and relevance. In a global environment, wherein in excess of fifty percent of the population is either bi- or multi-lingual, Cook (1991; 1992; 1997; 1999) propounded the theory of multicompetence, which argued that individuals who were bi or multilingual possessed a notable and differentiated compound state of mind that was incomparable to a couple of minds that were individually monolingual.
Grosjean (1989) also propounded an argument that was comparable to the aforementioned one; namely that, being bilingual was not just a process of adding two entire or partial monolinguals into a single entity, but involved in fact, an exact hearer and speaker who possessed a complete as well as one-of-a-kind linguistic system in his mind.

The abilities of the speaker in question—as a speaker and a hearer—shall be developed so that they meet their personal requirements and those demanded by their particular contexts. Within this paper, I shall adopt and utilise the phrases “late” and “adult lingual” and “L2 users” (cf. Cook, 1999a), to speculate on the assumption that, the people in question have come to learn their second language after the pubescent stage and thus, may attain certain additional elements of L2. Simultaneously, they may utilise both these languages on an infrequent or frequent bases on concurrence with the aforementioned perspective.

2.1.2 The influence and the transfer of L2

What is currently understood as concerning the potential impact of L1 upon that of L2? Until the present time, this has referred to—L2 influence being documented in studies of L2 users' L1 in lexicon and semantics, morphosyntax, phonology, pragmatics and rhetoric. The impact appears to be both, comprehensive and persistent, though it could also seem to be nascent since it is a part of the learning process of L2. For instance, Pavlenko and Jarvis (2000)—when researching the oral narratives of Russians who used English as their L2, assessed 22 individuals, all of who had learnt English for three to eight years and after puberty—discovered that, overall, 17 participants demonstrated the influence of L2 on their native Russian.
Further, this population group included five individuals that had only lived in the USA for a total of three years.

Pavlenko (1999) discovered that this framework was especially beneficial when trying to categorise transfer examples in alternative fields, as shown below. Simultaneously, this endeavour to categorise would not intend to be an ultimate or a comprehensive, total one. Thus, Pavlenko (1999) would be corroborated by prospective research honing and expounding upon this framework. At the same time, the author theorises the influence of L2 upon L1, which means that there is one of five phenomena taking place at a time: (a) borrowing transference, that is, the addition of elements of L2 onto L1 (such as the lexical borrowing wherein original and new items are contributed to the lexicon); b) the creation or conversion of a unitary systematic body, which can differentiate between L1 and L2 (such as the creation of consonants located between both L1 and L2 values). Pavlenko (1999), thinks that the term ‘shift; is not appropriate as it suggests a change from one system to another; c), shift or a transition from certain values and structures within L1 toward other values in L2 with some approximation (such as a semantic extension wherein L1 lexical terminology are conferred with the meaning of the translation equivalents seen in L2; d) the assimilation of L2 elements into L1, called restructuring transfer, which means that certain alterations or substations, or a partial shift, does transpire (for instance, syntactical alteration of structure wherein L1 grammar incorporates L2 rules); e), the loss (or incapacity to create) certain L1 elements as a result of the influence of L2 (referred to as L1 attrition) (one example of this is the incorporation of a syntactically incorrect or deviant sentence of L1 as a result of the impact of L2 constraints). The fact that L2 influences L1 within pragmatics shall be demonstrated
in the next section, and this paper shall assess the alteration of request politeness stratagems within and concerning adults from Saudi Arabia.

2.1.3 L1 and the influence of L2 within pragmatics.

Research into the influence and impact of L2 on L1’s pragmatic influence is well-established, though (Kasper, 1992) nevertheless, this is only a beginning. Those studies that looked into L2 influence, which were few in number, have been summarised below. Kyoto Mori (1997) wrote an autobiographical narrative that detailed the loss of pragmatic ability, and the author discussed the subject at length; Mori hailed from Japan and had been residing in the USA for two decades. She wrote in a complaining fashion that, when living in the Mid-Western regions of the US, she was able to determine and differentiate between the symbolic invitations—the actual and the real ones. This, however, was not true with regard to Japan, she said.

“In Japan there is no clear-cut signs to tell me which invitations are real and which are not. People can give all kinds of details and still not expect me to show up at their door or call them from the train station. I cannot tell when I am about to make a fool of myself or hurt someone’s feelings by taking them at their word or by failing to do so.” (Mori, p. 10)

A further region of loss with regard to pragmatic competence is highlighted by Mori (1997), with regard to the way in which politeness is used in conversation.
“I can only fall silent because thirty seconds into the conversation. I have already failed at an important task: while I was bowing and saying hello. I was supposed to have been calculating the other person’s age, rank, and position in order to determine how polite I should be for the rest of the conversation” (Mori, p. 11).

In a number of instances, the pragmatics of the English and American fusion are extrapolated by Mori: "In my frustration, I turn to the familiar: I begin to analyse the conversation by the Mid-Western standard of politeness" (Mori, p. 7). Additional evidence of L1 pragmatic loss is seen as a result of the most comprehensive assessment of L1 loss unto this time. This was noted and highlighted by a study by Waas (1996) that concerned proficiency. German immigrants living in Australia were assessed on the basis of their morphosyntactic as well as their communicative abilities; the study assessed a total of 118 late German English bilinguals and interviewed them. They showed a considerable L1 rate of attrition. Despite the fact that they thought codeswitching to be a negative phenomenon, not one subject could finish the interview unless the researcher utilised L2. As a result, and as part of all the interviews, members participating in the study encountered challenges and difficulties regarding the conversational fluency of their German. As a result, the authenticity of their words and their expressiveness was stymied. Such issues exist due to an absence of specific responses, proverbial statements, humour and idiomatic phrasing. Additionally, certain phenomena like reflex responses, onomatopoeia and repartee are seen to be lost on the participants. The results of the study were expounded upon by Waas (1996), who stated the subject’s keenness to assimilate into their L2 context, their voluntary migration and the consequential assimilation (as, overall, 116 of all the subjects were working and there was a
considerable number of administrative, professional and managerial workers in the group). Further, Waas (1996) discovered that certain differentiations of sentiment and attitude concerning L1 attrition did also exist. Of these, the most important were the differences found among individuals who affiliated with other German-speaking individuals, and those who did not speak German.

As a result of this, the L1 loss impacted naturalised citizens most of all, with the second-most impacted group being those that had still got their passports—though this group possessed only a handful (or no) connections with German-speaking people living in Australia at the time. Further research studies into the impact of L2 on L1 indicate that the impact could also be seen in an alternative form of atomised responses: either listener response, or, alternatively, those not seen or heard in the monolingual Mandarin speakers, or else in the thoughts of Mandarins-dominant bilingual speakers. Such strategies involved backchannel tokens like “uh hu” “ahha” yeah” and “shui” [yes in Mandarin]. Herein, Mandarin utilises forms like “dui”, “ao”, “aidid”, and others. Additionally, in the same way that monolingual speakers of English use the language, the two L2 utilisers also incorporated backchannel tokens in their speech more regularly compared to Mandarin-speaking conversationalists, and did so with gestures and gesticulations that recalled backchannel behaviour in English. For example, one such conversation required a user of L2 to create a total of 306 backchannel statements and utterances, though comparatively their interlocutor used just five. In the same manner, in English-speaking, bilinguals (English-Flemish) who were residing in Finland utilised Finnish backchannel signals and greeting including “joo” [yes], “hei [hi], “ahaa” [see] as well as, “joo” as they were inhaling or exhaling in the same manner as the English je^.
Despite the fact that the discussion above seems to indicate loss, borrowing and shift as the primary alterations of pragmatic ability of L1, a research paper concerning compliment responses suggests that the influence of L2 on 195 Mexican-American bilingual speakers’ compliment repertoire is not the same as that of the monolinguals who speak Spanish and English as a result of convergence. In the case of such distinctions, not constituting an aspect of the target-languages’ community forms, the authors indicate that certain pragmatic distinctions do transpire.

Therefore, to summarise the above, there appears to be scant evidence that may be used indicating that L2 influence will also impact pragmatic competence, thereby, cause convergence, according to Valdes and Pino (1981), Additionally, according to Tao and Thompson (1991) and Waas (1996), this is also true of borrowing shift and loss. Cross-linguistic differentiation within certain pragmatic norms may be generally perceived to be the reason behind this phenomenon, along with acculturation, intensive day-to-day exposure to L2 pragmatic norms and high L2 proficiency levels, according to Tao and Thompson (1991), Valdes and Pino (1981), and Waas (1996).

2.2 Pragmatic studies

Over the last two decades, a change in the stress of linguistic studies concerning either foreign and second languages has been evident. The emphasis has shifted to the communicative and practical side of study from the structural and grammatical side, according to Widdowson (1987) and Canale Swain (1980) (as cited in Ghaleb, 2003). The increasing numbers of empirical research studies concerning the
behaviour of speech acts are related to the increasing volume of literature. Non-native speakers, according to many of these studies, can prove incapable of communication in certain contexts or scenarios despite having a commendable grammatical ability and vocabulary in the target language, according to Blum-Kulka (1982). Pragmatic competence is, according to Johnstone and Johnstone (1999), an element of communicative ability and alludes to the capacity to appropriately engage in communication within a certain contextual use. This is converse to linguistic ability that alludes to the overall command of the usual linguistic rules in a language as abstracted from the utilisation of the language. The change in stress from grammatical to communicative ability results in researchers working for English as an inter-language or Arabs following the same line when assessing and examining the issue of relevance in the creation of both, foreign and native language learners. This paper assesses the significant element of communicative ability in Yemeni Arabic through request strategies.

2.2.1 The speech act of Request and Politeness

Among the most significant of all impressions upon humans is politeness, indeed, people are unable to get along in cases where politeness and social conventions of politeness are eradicated or ignored within social systems. The phenomenon is a universal one and exists across many disciplines; it is interdisciplinary. All the languages and cultures display different means of showing respect and deferential sentiment, as well as stymieing imposition, acting with good behaviour and manners and saving face. This is true of both nonverbal and verbal communication. Indeed, a number of research papers have demonstrated that politeness conventions vary between languages. Conversely, request is a kind of speech wherein the requester
(that is; the speaker) calls on the requestee (that is; the hearer) to undertake an act that benefits them. That requires the requestee to lose out on something. This may be conducted as nonverbal and verbal means, while using a directive speech act, according to Reiter (2000). It is also called the "impositive" by Leech (1993). Nevertheless, the term should not be mistaken with the phrase “directive” regarding both, indirect and direct elocution. The request is made and comprises two distinct aspects; the modifiers and the head act. The latter is the primary utterance that states a total and entire demand or request, which stands independent of another statement or modifier. This is then, subsequently followed or else, preceded by certain modifying elements that stymie or aggravate the repercussions of the demand upon the addressee, according to Reiter (2000). An instance of this is evident below:

“I have forgotten my wallet, would it be possible for you to lend me some cash, please?

Herein, the “could you lend me some cash” is the head act—a stand-alone statement—independent of the need for modifiers. It relays the request in an entire and obvious way.

“I have forgotten my wallet at home” and “please” herein act as modifiers, thus they stymie the request made by the utterer on the addressee.
When this request is translated in to Arabic, the request comprises two distinct elements: the modifiers and the head acts, as seen in the English rendering. For instance:

Law samaḥt ja:_aχi, mumkin tiftaḥ ___bak?

That is: “excuse me brother, may you open the window?”

As always, the modifier is able to stand on its own, and in this example the modifier is “‘mumkin tiftaḥ ___bak?’”, it is a total and obvious request. Conversely, the statement ‘Law samaḥt ja:_aχi’ is a modifying one, and is used as a modifier in order to stymie the request for the addressee,

In the rendering of English, the request may be acknowledged and seen with interrogatives, imperatives and declaratives. Nevertheless, some academics think that certain direct imperatives generally prevent constructs for both, instructional and commanding statements, though this is not the case when delivering a request (Lyon, 1968). When a speaker delivers a request, they follow certain principles concerning politeness, while endeavouring to prevent themselves from making a direct request. Indeed, a direct request can seem to be an impolite, aggressive and threatening statement, according to Leech (1983) and Brown and Levinson (1987), though indirect forms are generally less aggressive, more polite and thus, better when trying to prevent oneself from seeming threatening. For instance,
“Clean the kitchen.”

OR

“Excuse me, would it be possible for you to clean up this table please as my friends are on their way here?”

In the initial instance when rendered into English the utterance may be seen as an instruction and thus, not a polite one. Consequently, the stratagem is the less-preferable way of requesting something in the English language. For example, the indirect form of the same request is made with the addition of certain modifiers, thereby, making it more polite and less direct, according to Lyons (1968), Leech (1983) and Brown and Levinson (1987). This is due to the fact that it stymies the potential repercussions of a request with regard to the person addressed and their ‘face’. The idea of face is expounded upon by Scollon and Scollon (2001), who assert that the means by which the idea of race alludes to the means by which a cultural grouping arranges its politeness stratagems and its societal relationships, are dependent on differentiations in the culture. These authors state that the concept of the self is related to the significant autonomy and self-motivated perspective and ideology, and thus, is privy to continuing negation. Conversely, in Asian societies, there is a more collectivist perspective, wherein membership to a group may transcend the importance of an essential grouping.

During times at which face-threatening is higher, House and Kasper (1981) assert that more redressive stratagems are chosen by a certain speaker. Indeed, speakers generally select negative strategies of politeness above those of positive politeness in scenarios wherein there is a higher face-threat. This is due to the fact that the former is generally more redressive compared to positive strategies of politeness.
The threat is redressed by negative politeness, according to the International Journal of Language Societies and Cultures, which is respectful of the listener, that is; their desire is to be autonomous, avoid imposition from other individuals and retain freedom of action. For instance:

“Apologies for inconveniencing you, would it be possible for me to borrow a total of RM2000 from you, if you are not in need of the money at this moment in time?”

In the fifth instance [5], the person speaking enables the listener to decline or ignore them, and not give the cash if they so wish without having to lose face. Indeed, by giving the listener the excuse to reject, they do not have lose face. The extent of politeness impacts the extent of providing influence. The negative question: “It wouldn’t be possible to borrow RM200 from you would it?” also predicts a rejection and adheres to a negative strategy, which is referred to by Brown and Levinson as “pessimistic” (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 173). Indeed, the point that politeness is considerably impacted by elements like “power, distance and the weight of the imposition” is stressed and highlighted by Scollon and Scollon (1995).

Conversely, speakers need to assess and establish the seriousness and the weight of the face-endangering statement or action in the context of a number of variables. These are: i) the distance with regard to societal standing between the listener and the speaker; ii) the imposition of a certain face-threatening act with regard to its hierarchical standing; and iii) the societal difference with regard to power exercised by the two individuals. Indeed, this general rule was supplied by Scollon and Scollon (1995: p. 48): “When two participants differ in their assessment of face strategies, it will tend to be perceived as difference in power”.
In case of the two participants being subordinates, for instance, then, the individuals may select a certain involvement stratagem to address the other. In this case, the other would probably assume they were being coerced or imposed upon by the first individual. This research shall look into the alteration of polite request stratagems among adults in Saudi Arabia that have lived within the UK for two years or more.

2.3 The research’s theoretical background

The main theoretical framework here is the model devised by Scollon and Scollon (1995)—the politeness system or the politeness model. Herein, the primary concept is that there are three different politeness systems that face relationships. These may be categorised into: hierarchical, deference and solidarity politeness system. In accordance to this model, the speaker and the listener, in the deference politeness system, perceive each other to be of an equivalent societal standing, and there is no power being exerted upon them by the interlocutor (-Power), though they have a certain distance between them (-Distance). Consequently, each of them utilises independent stratagems, which include the minimisation of danger that prevents the possibility of losing face. Interlocutors perceive one another as being equal in power within a solidarity politeness system, and their relationship is much closer compared to the first case (-Distance). Herein, each of the interlocutors utilises stratagems of incoherent to state or presume reciprocal sentiment or a claim to a mutual perspective.

Lastly, within the hierarchical politeness system, an individual participant occupies a subordinate place (+Power) while the other person is in an inferior space (Power). Within such a system, without symmetry, wherein there may be a close or else a
distant relationship (either -Distance or + Distance), participants that do not have any power, utilise involvement strategies, according to the observations of Scollon and Scollon. Those individual participants having a lower status or position utilise their independence stratagems to lower the threat or, alternatively, be respectful of the interlocutor in question. More specifically, the autonomy element of face demonstrates the fact that an individual may, according to Scollon and Scollon (1995, p. 37) “act with some degree of autonomy and that he or she respects the rights of others to their own autonomy”. Additionally, the present paper shall utilise the concept of linguistic politeness as devised by Watts (2003), which is undertaken by a ritualised formulaic utterance as well semi formulaic utterance, which are elements of the various kinds of linguistic practice and polite-behaviour conduct. Indeed, according to Watts (2003, p. 182): “when they are missing, their absence is easily interpretable as impoliteness, and when they are in excess of what is required by the situation, they are easily interpretable as politeness”.

2.4 Related Literature
A number of studies in the past have been undertaken in the remit of conversational actions concerning requests. A research undertaken by Blum Kulka (1982; 1983) studied the request behaviour in the language of Hebrew when contrasted with the US and Canadian English speakers. The extent of the societal distance and power relationship among interlocutors was significant when creating the request made by the international Journal of Language Society and Culture. Additionally, such research studies have corroborated the perspective that all languages facilitate forms by which, the language speakers are able to make speech acts. Nevertheless, the selection of the most relevant kind of a speech act is not specific to the language
in question but rather specific to the culture. Additionally, the authors corroborated the fact that politeness value was determined by the scenario of the speech act itself and not through the form of the language. This is something that may be seen to be polite in a number of cultures but may not be seen so, in another culture. As a result, the utilisation of inappropriate forms via misunderstandings within cross-cultural communicative conversation is predictable and should be anticipated. A cross-cultural research paper into the linguistic politeness, in the UK and Uruguay by Reiter (2000) on the basis of Brown and Levinson’s politeness theory (Brown and Levinson, 1987) assesses the data concerning linguistic phenomena with the use of a modified coding scheme extrapolated from the CCSARP (the Cross-cultural Speech Recognition Act Realisation Project). In turn, this model is founded on that of Cohen and Olshtain (1883). It has been expounded upon the aforementioned CCSARP coding manual within their own coding manual, according to Blum-Kulka et al. (1989). The result presented a variance in the means by which, both Uruguay and English speakers differed in the means by which they framed requests. This difference was in accordance with the societal differentiation in the standing of the persons involved.

There is a greater degree of directness in the requests made by Uruguayans, when compared to the UK English speakers. Conversely, the individuals from the UK utilised greater non-conventional indirectness that was seen in extremely low variance within Uruguay’s Spanish. According to Reiter (2000, p. 180): “with the case of request it seems that the British who show more of a need to redress the addressee’s’ negative’ face.” Brown and Levinson’s politeness theory, according to
Reiter (2000, p. 180) could then, be applied to both, the Uruguayan and the UK communities.

Such interviews were completed to ascertain a particular insight as to the means by which requests were made and the telecommunicative behaviour was seen by operators (that is; the hearers). The research concluded that there was a notable cross-cultural differentiation in the extent of directness and strategy selection among the ENSS and the GNSS with regard to requesting strategies. In the case of Greek speakers, the individuals were more direct in their requests compared to the English speakers. Additionally, a study into the socio-pragmatic elements of American Foreign Language learners was conducted by Byron (2004), with regard to the communicative request acts made by Koreans. Within this study, the population used for the research comprised a group of Korean university students. The non-native aspect was provided by American native English speakers, who were also Korean foreign language learners, while the native English data was supplied by 50 female American English speakers and the native Korean data was provided by 50 students that were native Korean speakers.

A written questionnaire was used for data collection, and this was presented as a Discourse Completion Test. The study findings discovered that as advanced learners, the American Korean foreign language learners seemed to progress and develop a higher sensitivity to the utilisation of politeness stratagems when making requests, when contrasted with native speakers. Further, the American Korean foreign language learners did not manage to develop fully native-like means of requesting. Indeed, they usually presented a longer request when contrasted to
native speakers. KFL learners utilised more formulae of greater differentiation compared to the Korean speakers. The study found that this work was helpful in assisting KFL educators be better informed about the linguistic cultural differences within the language in question through stressing the significance of those curricula that highlighted and utilised request acts as part of a cultural setting. Additionally, the Korean way of thinking and speaking needed to be represented in textbooks for the KFL. A study of Mexican University students was used by Felix-Brasdefer (2005) when examining the notions of politeness and indirectness within requests as speech acts. A study used in role-playing situations was undertaken to attain this goal. The study utilised 10 NSs Mexican Spanish language speakers, including six women and four men.

The information herein, was collated using an open-ended roleplaying situation, and the results demonstrated that the NSs speaking Mexican Spanish chose to utilise conventional indirectness stratagems when presenting a request, though they used “query preparation” before making a request. This showed +Distance or else +Power, while they utilised greater directness stratagems. This only implied that they had closer relationships with one another as interlocutors (-Distance). Additionally, the argument that there is no relationship among politeness and indirectness was shown by the study, thereby, corroborating the observations made by Leech (1983) Brown and Levinson (1987). Direct requests were also seen to be dependent on the situation and they appeared to be the predicted or anticipated behaviour within those Mexican subjects that participated in the study within the solidarity politeness system (-Distance, -Power). Further, the study results corroborated precious studies in establishing that directness in both, Polish culture and German culture are not seen
as impolite, but that it is a form of bonding and closeness between the two interlocutors that is critical. A study was conducted in 2006 by Marti, who looked into the politeness perception and the realisation of Turkish monolinguals as well as German-Turkish bilinguals as returnees when making requests. The study tried to determine the potential that Turkish-German bilingual returnee performance in pragmatic terms could have been impacted by German transference.

DCT was used in a further study to collate information from monolingual Turkish speakers as well as bilingual returnees who spoke Turkish and German within ten alternative situations when eliciting requests. The connection amongst politeness and indirectness was also investigated. The results of the study corroborated those of Blum-Kulka (1989), and showed that no linear connection between the two could be established. It was found that indirectness and politeness are closely related to one another. In the study, Turkish speakers utilised and took on different stratagems while German speakers, it was seen, had a greater preference for indirect strategies. A study into the utilisation of request strategies was also undertaken by Chen and Chen (2007), who assessed the utilisation of such strategies amongst EFL Taiwanese learners as well as native American English speakers. Fifty Taiwanese CFL learners and 14 UK English speakers were used here and the CCSARP was utilised to collate the data needed (Blum-Kulka1989). The research findings demonstrated that, in conventional terms, indirect strategies were the choice of each of these groups and that the impact of social variables on the assessment of the main strategy kinds were evident on those occasions when the speakers and listeners had an equivalent societal standing. Indeed, individuals preferred to utilise indirect stratagems in those situations wherein, the social status of the speaker was
greater than that of the addressee, where greater directness could be employed. Thus, societal status was seen to impact cross-cultural variations.

The utilisation of query reparatory modals was compared by Lin (2009) within a conventionally-indirect set of requests undertaken by native English speakers (NS-Es, as well as Chinese native speakers (NS-Cs) and EFL Chinese speakers who were learning English. Overall, 3600 request expressions were taken from a total of 180 students (60 individuals populated each grouping; NS-E, NS-C and EFL), and the discourse Completion Task was used for the research analysis. Blum-Kulka’s (1989) study was corroborated by research findings and the generalisations concerning the conventionality of the indirect request were also corroborated. Initially, despite the type and the range of the modals utilised in both languages, there was a notable change in the cross-cultural sub-strategies used with regard to preference order and distribution. As a result of this, inter-linguistic derivations from what was seen in DCT-elicited NS English information was also evident. Also, there was a distinction in the form and the function of the sub-strategies. The speech act of a request is also seen in the socio-pragmatic study, which examines polite request stratagems within Yemeni Arabic utilised by men speaking Yemeni Arabic as they speak to other males or females. Also considered is their societal standing, power and the distance between the two interlocutors concerning the imposition and the rank of request strategies in normal day-to-day dialogue.
3. Methodology

3.1 Subject, Procedures used, and Instrumentation

Three groups were used to collate the data: Saudi students with low proficiency in English, advanced English speaking Saudi students, who had resided in the UK for two years, and UK citizens, who were incapable of any Arabic speech or linguistic form. Online questionnaires were sent to the participants and 35 responses from each group were counted in this study.

Participants recruited were in the age group 20 to 34 years. The first group of Saudis were all students from the King Khalid University, and the second group were all students in the UK. The third group comprised British citizens. Being focused on the Saudi bilinguals' language abilities compared to the Saudi native Arabic speakers and British English native speakers, the latter two did not seem to speak the other language. In other words, the Saudi natives did not speak English at the advanced level and the British did not speak Arabic. It was unlikely that the study would find a student in higher education in Saudi universities who did not know English at all. So I recruited students who in the undergraduate course the Arabic language. Two versions of the questionnaire: Arabic for the Saudi groups and English for the British group were distributed.

17 Saudi students from KSA
18 Saudi students from KSA
14 female Saudi students in the UK
21 male Saudi students in the UK
16 female British students
19 male British students

A DCT as previously devised by Blum-Kulka (1982) was used in this study given the DCT was well-established and had been often used when collating information about speech acts across and among linguistic groups. The study used a questionnaire
that featured six written scenarios taken from the study of Al-Marrani and Sazalie (2010) about politeness request of Yemen. All participants were asked to place themselves in a normal scenario and presume what they would say within that scenario. The scenarios were different and they were differentiated on the basis of several variables: the request ranking; the relative societal power of both individuals and the societal distance between the two interlocutors. Usual occurrences that were deemed to be relevant and expected by the responders were employed, and they were familiar and normative to the UK and Saudi Arabian speakers. A couple of British and a couple of Saudis judged the situations before the questionnaires were distributed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scenario</th>
<th>Request</th>
<th>Power</th>
<th>Distance</th>
<th>Politeness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scenario 1</td>
<td>S&gt;H</td>
<td>+SD</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenario 2</td>
<td>S&gt;H</td>
<td>+SD</td>
<td>High</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenario 3</td>
<td>S&lt;H</td>
<td>+SD</td>
<td>High</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenario 4</td>
<td>S&lt;H</td>
<td>-SD</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenario 5</td>
<td>S=H</td>
<td>-SD</td>
<td>High</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenario 6</td>
<td>S=H</td>
<td>-SD</td>
<td>High</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. The combination of three social variables in six situations.

Situation 1: You have a delicious meal in a restaurant and now it is time to ask the waiter to prepare your bill. What would you say?

Situation 2: You are a manager and you want a cleaner to clean your office. What would you say?

Situation 3: You are working in a company as deputy manager. You want to request the manager of your company to let you leave work early because you have an appointment with dentist. What would you say?
Situation 4: You need to run few errands down town. You think that will take you an hour. You go to your manager/ess’s office at work with whom you get on well and ask him/her to cover for you. What do you say?

Situation 5: You have missed an important class and you want to borrow your friend’s note. What would you say?

Situation 6: Your classmate in the college is your best friend and you want to use his computer to type your assignment because yours breaks down. What would you say?

The complete Arabic and English questionnaires are in the appendices section.

4. Data Analysis and discussion

Blum-Kulka et al (1989) CCSARP (Cross Cultural Speech Act Realization Project) coding plan was employed to code the gathered data. There were three stages of categorised request as per the coding plan:

- Direct
- Conventionally indirect
- Non-conventionally indirect

This scale would enable the researcher to recognize and evaluate different kinds of request strategies. Afterwards, data analysis would be carried out as per Scollon and Scollon and Watts’ theories.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation</th>
<th>Direct strategies</th>
<th>Conventionally indirect strategies</th>
<th>Non-conventionally indirect strategies</th>
<th>Total In numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>Insufficient English speaking Saudi</td>
<td>85.8%</td>
<td>14.2%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Proficient English speaking Saudi</td>
<td>80.1%</td>
<td>19.9%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>British</td>
<td>23.2%</td>
<td>76.8%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>Insufficient English speaking Saudi</td>
<td>80.1%</td>
<td>14.2%</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Proficient English speaking Saudi</td>
<td>71.3%</td>
<td>19.1%</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>British</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
<td>78.6%</td>
<td>9.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>Insufficient English speaking Saudi</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>89.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Proficient English speaking Saudi</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>87.2%</td>
<td>12.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>British</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>86.7</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>Insufficient English speaking Saudi</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>93.5%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Proficient English speaking Saudi</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
<td>90.1%</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>British</td>
<td>Insufficient English speaking Saudi</td>
<td>Proficient English speaking Saudi</td>
<td>British</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>33.7%</td>
<td>66.3%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>63.4%</td>
<td>36.6%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Division of Percentages of the Request Strategies in six situations for the three groups.

4.1 The Use of Direct Strategy

Graph 1: Direct Strategies.
It was revealed that high percentages of direct requests were employed by the Saudi group 1 with:

- S1 with 85.8%
- S2 with 80.1%
- S6 with 63.4%
- S5 with 33.7%

However, Saudi group 2 employed the highest percentage of direct request in S1. This scenario implied that the Speaker had more power than the Hearer with +distance and the Speaker required the bill. The imposition rate was low and the relationship was unbalanced. Hence, direct requests were chosen by 80.1% of the informants.

In the second scenario, the Hearer had less power than the Speaker and the relationship was unbalanced, though the imposition rate was higher than that in S1. It may be said that a less direct strategy was chosen by the speaker in Saudi group 2 by 10.0%. In S1, direct strategy was used by only 23.2% of the British participants and the position of the Speaker was higher than that of the Hearer, while in S2, a less direct strategy was used by 12.2% of the participants, and comparatively, the rate of imposition was high. The results portrayed that comparatively, Saudi speakers had the propensity to be more direct than the British speakers; however, Saudi group 1 was more direct than Saudi group 2. In S5 and S6, the employment of a less direct strategy was seen by Saudi group 2, where both had an equal relationship because they were friends with one another and the Speaker and the Hearer were equal in position. The imposition rate was high. Comparably, British
speakers were inclined to not use direct strategy in S5 and S6. This was in contrast with Saudi group 1, which was focused on employing more direct request strategies.

Then again, for Saudi group 1 and Saudi group 2, direct request strategies were largely favoured specially the one in which, the speaker and the hearer were friends or in which, the speaker was exercising control over the hearer. Saudi group 1 and Saudi group 2 would be likely to make a request when the relationship was not equal and Speaker had more power than the hearer. In the first and the second scenario, the speaker had more power and therefore, wished his requests be fulfilled irrespective of the abrasiveness of the request or the social distance between them. Scollon and Scollon’s ([1995] 2001) hierarchy courtesy system clarified this situation where the speaker was in a dominant position and the hearer was the subordinate. This position enabled the speaker to employ direct requests and the hearer, to comply with his demands. At the end of the day, the "More power the speaker has, more commitment should the hearer shows in obeying the request, indirectness is not preferred" Abdul-Sattar et al (2009: 12).

In S6, the Saudis also favoured the direct requests at rates of 63.4% and 34.1 %. In this scenario, both had an equal relationship and authority was exercised by neither group (- Power, - Distance). From a cultural perspective, however, it may be said that the Saudis are a collectivist culture and they prefer group recognition over individual independence. Therefore, direct requests indicate unanimity or positive politeness. This implies that Saudis express correspondence, fellowship, social intimacy and a general perspective, while directly making requests of their dear companions.
"The commonly shared genuine background information the speaker has of the hearer as well as the other way around, makes the utilization not only fitting but can relates to the behaviour as expected" (Reiter 2000: 104). These results are in favour of the pas cases in other assortments of Gulf Arabic that shows the preference for direct requests in cases where informants were dearly related or are relatives (for example, Abdul-Sattar et al 2009; Al-Marrani and Sazalie 2010). This behaviour can also be seen in other positive politeness-oriented cultures, like in Indonesia (Hassall 1999). It was demonstrated by the SANs survey analysis that even though SANSs in the above-mentioned cases used direct requests while speaking with their subordinates or close friends, they nevertheless, employed a certain face rectification or alleviation strategies as religious expressions and in-group recognition or participation indicators like, 'azeezi, habeebi(ti) -- my dear bill'lah -- for God sake yakhoyah -- my brother allah yijzaka alkhair -- God bless you

El-Shazly (1993) and Aloui's (2011) research on Egyptian-Arabic and Moroccan-Arabic native speakers was in accordance with this. They tended to use religious expressions and lexical insults to show politeness. From this, the researchers concluded that in Arabic, the use of lexical expressions means that the request is supposedly polite and the purpose is to culturally connect with the other person through lexical expressions. According to Fraser's study (1990:233), politeness can be characterized as "An expected situation that is present in every conversation", 
and keeping in mind an end goal to check the legitimacy of this theory, the researchers randomly selected a group of students to find out more about their ideas and conceptualizations of polite direct requests in Arabic. The students were presented with some sentences to rate the politeness of the sentence. The students avowed that polite request was made when it had appropriate aforementioned expressions. Additionally, they affirmed that it was impolite and harsh to not use these expressions while making a request. Conclusively, in Saudi Arabic culture, basic developments among companions and in S > H known as polite requests when show polite manners and use right expressions. Imperatively, these expressions and indicators have two main uses:

- They make the request more polite
- They increase the interactive intimacy during the conversation

Overall, it was observed that the British participants tended to be reluctant in using direct strategy with regard to making requests. The highest percentage obtained for this group in S1 was 23.2. As far as the Saudi groups were concerned, group 2 showed relatively higher percentages of employing direct strategy than the British, whereas group 1 showed highest rates of directness when making requests.
4.2 The Use of Conventional Indirectness

Graph2: Conventional Indirect Strategies.

The percentages show that the rate of employing a direct strategy by all three groups in different situations varied from one another. With respect to the use of conventional indirectness in S3 and S4, the three groups showed similar percentages i.e.

- 93.5% of Saudi group 1
- 90.1% of Saudi group 2
- 100% of British

In the first situation, the indirect strategy of requesting was employed by;

- 14.2% of Saudi group 1 which was almost similar to that of Saudi group 2
- 76.8% of British

In case of S5, 100% for British, and 79.2% for Saudi group 2 favoured the employment of C1. In S6, Saudi group 2 and the British showed higher inclination towards indirectness as compared to the Saudi group 1. The third and fourth
situations portrayed the requester to be in a position lower than that of the requested and thus the requested was granted full freedom of action. This indicated the power difference between the interlocutors (+power), which consequently proposed that if the hearer had more power over the speaker; the latter was more likely to adopt an indirect approach to make the request. In the abovementioned situation, all three groups were subjected to address their seniors, which compelled them to employ an indirect approach.

Considering the situations 1 and 2, although the speakers were in a superior position than the hearer, which put the interlocutors in a + distance from each other, the British still refrained from addressing the hearers directly, whereas the Saudi groups employed a direct approach. The phenomenon may be explained through the politeness framework proposed by Scollon and Scollon’s [(1995) 2001] work. As per their perspective, the pertaining situations represented a hierarchy of power i.e. the speaker held a lower position (-Power) than that of the hearer (+Power). Thus, a direct strategy was avoided by the speaker who used an independent strategy, which tended to highlight the individuality of the respective participant and withheld their right of action from the influence of social or organisational powers (Scollon and Scollon 1995). Here, it must be considered that the communicative style and behaviour of individuals was substantially influenced by cultural factors. Studies show that culture tends to play a major role in verbal communication in the dimensions of individualism and power distance (Ogiemann 2009). Thus, Hofstede’s (1991) cultural dimensions theory can be employed to justify the behaviour of groups under study for using the indirect approach to make a request. In the Arab social setting, the power distances are quite influential and these create considerable
power differences between subordinates and seniors, which compels the former to behave in a certain respectful and formal manner. This includes using indirect requests and formal titles such as Doctor/Dr, Ustadi/my boss when addressing the seniors. Contrary to that, the British come from a social setting in which a person’s individuality is counted considering the personal achievements and individual rights. These rights include that of respecting others’ individualities and their responses to the requests.

Hence, it can be summarized that the Saudi group 1 and group 2 tended to use direct strategy while addressing their subordinates while the British employed indirect request. The British opted for indirect requests with their friends provided that the pertaining requests were exorbitant. Using an indirect approach, the speaker provided maximum options to the addressee with minimal risks entailed. From the cultural perspective, in an individualistic social setting, indirect requests could be driven by the politeness of behaviour, which allowed the individual rights to be free of any limitations or influences. The obtained results complied with those of gained from the previous research i.e. Anglo-Saxon communities tend to employ indirectness in requesting which is presumably driven by politeness (for example, Brown and Levinson 1987; Leech 1983; Blum-Kulka et al. 1989; Yu 2011). It can be observed that while putting forward a request to people who were equal in position to them and given the condition of having high imposition rates, the Saudi and British groups employed indirect strategies. For instance, in S5 the percentages of indirect request were

- 66.3% for the Saudi group 1
- 79.2% for the Saudi group 2
- 100% for the British
Moreover, the Saudi group 2 and the British tended to employ indirect request strategy in S6 while the Saudi group 1 opted to be direct. It may be proposed that the participants preferred using indirect strategies to decrease the risks of facing failure. Scollon and Scollon’s [(1995)2001] deferential politeness system explains this phenomenon. It provided that the participants tended to keep a deferential distance from each other regardless of them being in equal or near equal positions with no interlocutor exerting power over each other (-Power). They tend to keep a distance (+ Distance) from each other. Consequently, the independence approach was employed by both interlocutors and such communicative behaviour reduced the risks of facing failure. This steers the conclusion that if the groups tend to be more socially distant from one another and have higher rates of imposition, they tend to employ more indirectness in requesting.

4.3 The Use of Non-Conventional Indirectness (NCI)

Graph3: Nonconventional Indirect Strategies.
It was evident that the occurrences of NCI (e.g. hints) were only acknowledged sometimes and out of the recollection mentioned in this research, this was one of the most uncommonly applied techniques. The Saudi group 2, however, was known to apply NCI more than the others; the British group was second on the list, while the Saudi group 1 implemented the smallest number of NCI. The Saudi group 2 applied this technique to five different settings, the British group to three settings, and the Saudi group 1 applied this method to just two settings.

Also, the maximum percentage of NCI consumed by the groups was discovered to lie in S3, where 9.6% of Saudi group 1 selected NCI, whereas 12.8% of the Saudi group 2 and 13.3% of British group used the same technique. Here, the spokesman requested his/her manager to make it to an appointment. The point that needs to be paid attention here, is the fact that the spokesman was less social and there existed a social detachment between the managers and speakers, and the idea of obligation was very minimal. Hence, to deplete the risk to a bare minimum and to evade the possibility of jeopardizing their appearance, the spokesman evaded the possibility of asking his listener directly, and so, had to thoroughly depend on the perspective hidden in the meaning.

Similarly, the cross-cultural contract in the application of NCI also materialized in S2, where 5.7% of the Saudi group 1 applied the suggestions. The Saudi group 2, and the British group, only used 9.7% and 9.2 respectively. These were somewhat higher percentages of INC. In such conditions, the manager, who was the speaker asked the cleaner to clean his/her office. The degree of obligation affected the application of NCI, especially in the demands made by the British. NCI was consumed by S6 in
the amount of 36.7%. The same technique was applied in S2 and S3 with a percentage of 9.2% and 13.3% respectively. The shared feature in all these settings was the high degree of obligation. The demand was enforcing in nature, and there was a chance of the appearance being jeopardized, which is why the spokesman had to respect the listener by depending on suggestions. In the end, the greatest partiality for NCI emerged in the settings where the association between the members was unsatisfactory, vague and where the intensity of obligation was of an extreme nature.

5. Conclusion
In this research, I studied the evaluated concepts of evasiveness and civility in the dialogue between the Saudi Arabian speakers, the British English speakers and the Saudi Arabians who had been residing in the UK for the past two years. This study helped me understand many facts. The main thing I discovered was that the British favoured traditional evasiveness. They were mostly observed using traditional evasiveness, even when interacting with their juniors. The only setting when the British chose the straightforward technique was when the association between the spokesman and the listener was very friendly (-Distance), and there was no need to force a command. Within the British English group, there was an association between the traditional evasiveness and graciousness, because it gave a particular type of value to every person as everyone had the right to be free from obligation. This conclusion agreed with the other research that revealed that the traditional evasiveness was the most favoured technique amongst the Anglo-Saxon communities (e.g., Blum-Kulka et al. 1989; Reiter 2000; Yu 2011). On the other hand, it was discovered that the Saudi groups 1 and 2 only applied traditional
evasiveness where either the juniors were interacting with their managers or where the setting involved interaction between informers of similar positions and detachedness, irrespective of the amount of obligation. The conclusion was seconded by Scollon and Scollon’s ([1995] 2001) hierarchy and the reverent civility setting. In associations that were hierarchical in nature, the assistance accepted and admired the communal disparities between them and their subordinate and opted to apply the individuality civility techniques that revealed admiration and accentuated the liberty of actions performed by a person. In case of (-Power), (+Distance) associations, the individuality civility techniques were consumed by both the speakers to diminish the possibilities of hazards and to evade losing respect. The conclusion exposed the existence of an adverse relationship between the indirectness and social distance in (-Power), (+Distance) associations. The less acquainted the speakers were with each other; the more there was a possibility for them to make oblique demands. Thirdly, it was discovered that direct demand was favoured more by the Saudi groups 1 and 2, in circumstances where the managers were interacting with their juniors and friends, irrespective of the intensity of what they demanded from them. Here, it may be contended, that Brown and Levinson’s (1878 and 1987) and Leech’s (1983) expectations and concepts maintained that the more oblique the request was, the more genteel it sounded. The outcomes of this research denote that the honesty in the Saudi Arabic setting was the most predictable attitude in a unity civility setting (-Power, -Distance). This is in harmony with the other research according to which the openness in some dialects and societies should not be deliberated as rude, instead it should be considered as a technique in which association, intimacy, companionship and association is conveyed (e.g., Economidou-Kogetsidis 2002; Wierzbicka 2003; Al-Marrani and
Sazalie 2010). Fourthly, Saudi group 2 expressed a greater capacity to apply numerous techniques in the same settings like in circumstances 2, 4, 5, 6; the reactions of the members involved numerous techniques like direct techniques, conventional indirect techniques and non-conventional direct strategies. The Saudi group 2 thus resembled Saudi group 1 more than it did the British. In future studies in this realm, I would like to enlarge the sample to contain enough female and male participants to see if there is any correlation with genders in the context of change request strategies.
References


