

ANGLIA RUSKIN UNIVERSITY

FACULTY OF ARTS, LAW AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

FACTORS AFFECTING THE DEVELOPMENT OF L2 PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE: A
SAUDI- CHINESE COMPARISON OF APOLOGY STRATEGIES

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A thesis in partial fulfilment of the requirements of Anglia Ruskin University for the degree of
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ABSTRACT

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Successful use of L2 involves not only mastering the grammatical forms but also knowing how to apply them appropriately in a variety of social settings, which involves so-called ‘pragmatic competence’. The variables affecting L2 pragmatic competence are: L1 and culture interference, environment and type of exposure to L2, L2 linguistic competence, and L2 instruction (Bardovi-Harlig 2013).

This longitudinal study of eight Saudi and eight Chinese learners of English investigated various components of L2 pragmatic competence, with the aim to analyse the relative contributions of L1 and L1 culture, general linguistic proficiency, attitude to English language and culture, and length of stay in the UK to determining the level of pragmatic competence in English by means of several data collection instruments and over three stages. To measure the predictor variables, the participants completed language background and usage questionnaires, testing their attitudes to English language and culture. Secondly, they took a general language test (essay writing, interview, vocabulary test, grammar and listening tasks). The dependent variable, i.e. pragmatic competence, was assessed using a role play and written completion tasks focusing on apologising in English in a variety of situations, whereby the appropriate level of formality was also evaluated, together with the overall apology success. Their responses were coded qualitatively with regard to the apology strategies employed, while overall pragmatic success was rated by trained English NS judges, and statistical tests were conducted.

The challenges included recruitment and retention of suitable subjects, the recruitment and retention of interlocutors and assessors, and the logistics of coordinating numerous face-to-face tests.

The main findings revealed that L2 proficiency constitutes the most significant contributor to the development of L2 pragmatic competence, coupled with social familiarity and power. However,

attitude, L2 usage, and length of stay in the UK appear to be statistically insignificant contributors to that development.

Keywords: (apology strategies, EFL learners, familiarity, interlanguage pragmatics (ILP), longitudinal study, L2 pragmatic competence, mixed qualitative-quantitative analysis, politeness, power, proficiency.)

Dedication

To the souls of my late brother and his two little sons who will never be forgotten.

May Allah endow them with forgiveness.

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Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Full word/phrase
Admission	Admission of fact but not of responsibility
AdmissionI	Admission- first person
Appeaser	Appeaser- not related to offence
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ARU	Anglia Ruskin University
AUR	Apparently unrelated response
Blaming	Blaming the hearer
CA	Conversation Analytic
CCSARP	Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realisation Patterns
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
Concern	Concern for the hearer
D	Distance
DCT	Discourse Completion Task
Denial	Denial of responsibility
DR	Downgrading Responsibility
E	Equal
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
Emotional	Emotional expressions /exclamations
EOE	Expression of embarrassment
ESB	Explicit self-blame
ESL	English as a Second Language
Excuse	Excuse not first person
Explanation	Explanation not first person
FTA	Face Threatening Acts
FTOR	Further task-oriented remark
H	Hearer
H-L	High-Low
Humour	Humour
IDS	Identifications
IFID	Illocutionary Force Indicating Device
ILP	Interlanguage Pragmatics
Innocence	Innocence of the offence
Justification	Justification of hearer's response
KSA	Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language

L-H	Low-High
LOI	Lack of intent
Minimization	Minimization
NNS	Non-native speakers
NS	Native speaker(s)
OOR	Offer of repair- related to offence
P	Power/Participant/Page
PI	Pretended ignorance of the offence
Promise	Promise of forbearance
QTP	Querying the precondition
R	Imposition/ Request Speech Acts
S	Speaker/Situation
SD	Standard Deviation
Silence	Silence
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
Sorry	Sorry
TOR	Taking on Responsibility
UG	Upgrader
UG+N	Upgrader + number + sorry
UK	United Kingdom
WDCT	Written Discourse Completion Task

Declaration

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Chapter One: Introduction

1. Overview

This chapter mainly provides an introduction to the exploration of the concept of interlanguage pragmatics. More specifically, it defines L2 pragmatic competence and presents the statement of the problem, research objectives, questions, and hypotheses, as well as significance and limitations of the present study, together with the thesis structure, definitions of terms, and summary.

1.1 Background

L2 pragmatic competence and L2 development have been extensively researched over the last few decades. The concept of pragmatic competence is mainly related to communicative competence, which is the interlocutor's ability to be involved in meaningful interaction; to be able to convey a meaningful message in various socio-cultural contexts or settings and to comprehensibly understand a message from his/her addressee (Bardovi-Harlig, and Griffin, 2005, Bardovi-Harlig, 2012; and 2013). Therefore, the parameters of second language (L2) teaching and learning have been established to go beyond the mastery of language forms to also comprise the use and performance of L2 according to the different social situations in which language should be appropriately used. Indeed, Hymes (1972) emphasised that communicative and sociolinguistic competence are equally important as the linguistic competence introduced by Chomsky in the late 1950s and Nesmer (1971). An utterance should be appropriately used in order to reveal its social and cultural significance. As such it is imperative for second language learners to develop their communication strategies in order to appropriately communicate in authentic social contexts and situations. The socio-pragmatic competence of L2 learners is demonstrated through the appropriate use of social and cultural norms as expressed, for instance, in the speech acts of the target language. L2 learners should be trained to interact in a culturally accepted manner and use proper linguistic forms suitable to the context in which language is performed Ogierman (2009).

In other words, the development of L2 pragmatic competence is subjected to different factors. For example, Bardovi-Harlig (2013) introduced what she termed a "cocktail party" definition. She (2013:68) defined pragmatics as "how-to-say-what-to-whom-when". The cocktail definition indeed summarises the main factors affecting the development of L2 pragmatic

competence of non-native speakers, including various elements comprise, language competence, pragmatic knowledge comprehend meanings through language (e.g. speech acts, implicature, presupposition) and to produce their linguistic competence that helps them to grammatically and syntactically form proper speech acts forms; their awareness of the sociolinguistic rules governing, e.g. social power distance; and that of the native-speakers' cultural and social norms that govern the social settings or contexts in which conversations are held.

In the context of L2 studies, Kasper and Dahl (1991) used the term 'interlanguage pragmatics' to explain how L2 learners comprehend the L2 speech acts and how they acquire their L2 pragmatic knowledge in order to produce those speech acts. Kasper and Rose (2002) defined pragmatics as the investigation of how L2 learners use the target language particularly in making choices as to certain language forms in a given context. They also made reference to the obstacles that control and affect ESL learners' use of the target language like poor knowledge in theoretical linguistic rules. Those obstacles hamper the ESL learners' ability to socially interact and affect their conversation interlocutors. Kasper and Rose (ibid.) also discussed ways to manage conversation and organise discourse and the ESL sociolinguistic competence that governs the target language use. Interlanguage pragmatics-native speaker studies involved comparison of non-native (NNS) and (native speaker NS) linguistic forms. That is, the linguistic forms which both NS and NNS employ to realise the speech acts. Moreover, interlanguage pragmatics has been explored in terms of various cultural backgrounds of NNS (Kasper and Rose, 2002). Those different approaches have one common feature, i.e. that NNs are influenced in their L2 pragmatic output, along with other factors, by their L1 cultures. None of these studies, however, investigated the development of L2 pragmatic competence in light of two different NNS cultures (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013).

There are other relevant issues to the ILP studies than factors affecting the L2 pragmatic output of NNs. Among these the methodology of ILP data collection is very much relevant; whether authentic, natural speech or written data should be sought. For this purpose, L2 pragmatic data collection instruments vary between role plays and Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs). In this regard, Al Sulayyi (2016) relied on the DCT as a means of data collection in his analysis of the apology strategies used by the EFL Saudi learners. Although the validity and reliability of the DCT are verified, it does not provide natural speech data as participants are usually asked to imagine the situations and write down what they should say in such situations.

Therefore, there is a need, as Al-Ghatnai and Roever (2012) stated, to collect natural speech data. Although Al-Gahtani and Roever have provided a good model for investigating the request strategies used by EFL Saudi learners, one of their methodological limitations is the inability to collect data gender cooperating differences. This hindrance of norms and culture impeded my communication with Saudi females for the purpose of data collection. ILP studies are often conducted to look into the impacts of L1 cultures on the NNs' choices of pragmatic strategies, adopted semantic formulas, length of their strategies in relation to their L1 and L1 culture, and other debated issues like methods of data collection (natural speech and/or written data) and analysis (qualitatively and/or quantitatively).

In this context, it felt imperative to conduct a study with twofold purposes as specified below. The first purpose was to overcome Al Sulayyi's (2016) shortcoming of using DCT as an apology data collection instrument and to compensate for Al-Gahtani and Roever's (2012) inability to make a comparison between two different groups of non-native speakers. Therefore, the use of apology strategies of EFL Saudi learners was to be compared with that of some other EFL learners representing a different first language. This factor would help provide analytical cultural aspects. It is a merit which both Al Sulayyi's and Al-Gahtani and Roever's studies lack.

And secondly, since L2 pragmatic competence refers to (1) second language speakers' awareness of how properly, appropriately and politely to use the second language to achieve effective communication and interaction, and (2) their ability to do so, clearly the acquisition of pragmatic competence, in addition to acquisition of purely linguistic competence, is extremely important if second language learners are to use the language effectively in real world situations. This understanding has led in recent years to a plethora of studies on L2 pragmatics. In practice, perhaps as a way of reducing the complexity of pragmatics in general, these studies have tended to focus on the realisation of speech acts such as 'request' and 'apology' (Bardovi-Harlig, 2012 and 2018).

According to Bardovi-Harlig (2013) the variables that affect L2 pragmatic development are (1) interference from L1 and culture; (2) environment and type of exposure to L2; (3) L2 linguistic competence, and (4) L2 instruction. L1 interference affects the choice of linguistic forms while L1 culture affects how L2 learners use the L2 speech among other things. For example, Kogetsidis (2010) found that Greek speakers of English as a second language tended to

use more direct request forms than native speakers of English, and concluded that these were transferred from the L1 culture.

A variety of studies have shown that L1 influence on L2 pragmatic production can be greatly lessened if learners are offered an opportunity to stay longer in a native-speaking country (e.g. Schmidt, 1983; Kasper and Dahl, 1991; Ellis, 1992; Cohen and Shively, 2007). For example, Kondo (1997) found that Japanese learners of English became more American-like in their apology strategies after one year of residence in the United States. Linguistic competence, i.e. knowledge of the syntax and semantics of the L2, is highly correlated with the development of L2 pragmatic competence since it affects the linguistic choices available to ESL learners when using different speech acts (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1986; Takashahi and Dufon 1989; Maeshiba, Yoshinaga, Kasper, and Ross, 1996; and Bardovi-Harlig, 2013). This is attributed to the fact that having a large range of semantic and syntactic knowledge on the part of NNs provides them with a wide range of choices to use the L2 speech acts.

Finally, several studies have demonstrated a positive effect of using explicit instruction on the development of L2 learners' ability to use L2 speech acts effectively (see, e.g., Billmyer 1990; Tateyama et al. 1997; Rose and Ng Kwai-fun 2001; Takahashi 2001; Tateyama 2001 or Koike and Pearson 2005). In such studies, it was demonstrated that EFL learners learn L2 speech acts elements. They can rapidly develop their L2 fluency owing to explicit pragmatic instructions. In this concern, there is a difference between the forms focus and form focus. The former refers to using teaching methodologies to help EFL learners master individual L2 items like the plural morphemes s '-s, -es'. The latter, on the other hand, mainly refers to designed activities which make L2 learners aware of the intended L2 meaning of the L2 activity. For instance, Koike and Pearson (2005) claimed that the explicit and implicit instructions demonstrated no significant difference in developing the use of Spanish language suggestion strategies by English learners. Explicit pragmatic instructions led to improving the use of Spanish suggestion strategies by the English-speaking learners in the multiple choice exercises. The implicit pragmatic instruction was effective in developing the subjects' pragmatic production. This finding suggests that both types of instruction make an effective contribution to the development of L2 learners' pragmatic competence. However, they may differ based on the task nature which L2 learners need to fulfil.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

It is clear from literature review that there is an influential interrelation among the variables of L1 interference and L1 culture; L2 environment; L2 linguistic competence, and L2 instruction, on the one hand, and the development of L2 pragmatic competence, on the other. However, despite the fairly extensive literature on the topic, we are still short of evidence as to how these variables interact with one another in the development of L2 pragmatic competence. Therefore, Bardovi-Harlig (2013:154) suggests the need for studies that compare the development of L2 pragmatic competence in learners from typologically distinct first languages in order to separate the influence of the first language and culture from the development of pragmatic competence in general. Typological distinction among languages often affects the culture construction. For instance, although Arabs, Persians, and Jews have different first languages, they all have some common cultural backgrounds since Arabic, Persian and Hebrew belong to the same language family. In this respect, it was important to compare Saudi EFL learners' L2 pragmatic development to another EFL learner' group whose L1 is typologically different from Arabic, and the Chinese language fulfils that condition. Bardovi-Harlig (2013: 155) also emphasises a need for more longitudinal studies; and for studies that use more naturalistic data than the discourse completion tasks that have been used in most studies of L2 pragmatics Bardovi-Harlig (2013-156). The present study intends to address these gaps. The study aims to investigate how L2 pragmatic competence development differs between Saudi and Chinese learners of English in relation to their duration of stay in the UK ('time in the UK') and their L2 linguistic competence, as they are influenced by their first languages and cultures, as well as their perceptions of familiarity, social power, and imposition.

Indeed, the present study comes in a response to Bardovi-Harlig's call to fill in the literature gap and conduct a comparative study of two typologically different L1s. For that reason, participants were selected from both Saudi and Chinese EFL learners. The study took a longitudinal approach. It investigates questions related to the development of L2 pragmatics among Saudi and Chinese EFL learners in terms of using apology strategies. It accounts for the development of interlanguage pragmatics of Saudi EFL learners; analysing Saudi L2 pragmatics in comparison with that of Chinese EFL learners. It further describes the relationship between the Saudi and Chinese L2 pragmatics and certain variables, namely L1 culture, L2 proficiency levels, environment or time in the UK, exposure to L2, familiarity, social power, and imposition.

1.3 Conceptual Framework

The current study adopts two theoretical frameworks: that of Bardovi-Harlig's (2013) and the coding scheme of apology strategies. The suggested model of apology is a combination of strategies classified in different coding schemes, namely in Cohen and Olshtain (1981), Olshtain, and Cohen (1983), Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989), and Bergman & Kasper (1993) along with a new coding scheme proposed in Chapter four. First of all, the study is based on the conceptual framework delineated by Bardovi-Harlig (2013), with the factors affecting the development of L2 pragmatic competence depicted in Figure 1.1.

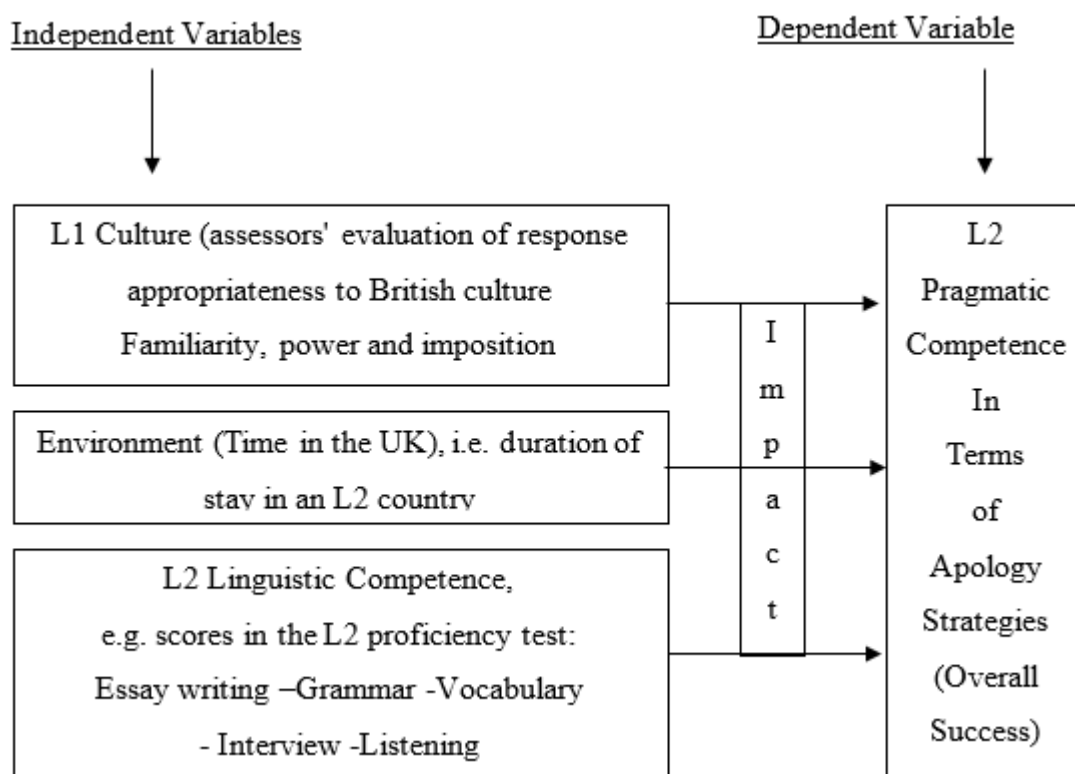


Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework for L2 pragmatic competence development adapted from Bardovi-Harlig (2013)

Secondly, the present study investigates the use of apology. The apology expressions are usually used to reflect the regret of a speaker for any of his/her wrong deeds; or those s/he wishes to correct; or the speaker the apology s/he receives from someone else. In the following situation for instance, Holmes (1989:196) explained how a neighbour dismisses the apology of a child who spills a drink on the carpet:

Child: Oh look I'm terribly sorry. I'll clean it up. Have you got a cloth?

Neighbour: Don't worry. I'll do it. It wasn't very much.

This situation is an illustration of taking responsibility on the part of the child who is willing to repair his/her wrong-doing by cleaning up the carpet. In other words, the child uses an apology strategy, i.e. assuming responsibility in order to express his/her regret over spilling a drink on his/her neighbour's carpet. When the child as a speaker gives an apology, the neighbour as a hearer assesses the offence's severity.

As for operational definitions, the current study adopts both Holmes' (1989) definition of apology and that of Bataineh (2005) for apology strategies. Holmes (1989: 196) clarified that an apology is “a speech act addressed to V's face-needs and intended to remedy an offence for which A takes responsibility, and thus to restore equilibrium between V and A (where A is the apologist, and V is the victim or person offended)”. In addition, Bataineh (2005:4) explained that apology strategies are “the methods used by individuals to perform the speech act of apology”. These strategies are embodied in taking on responsibility or denying responsibility for the offence.

The apology strategies proposed by Fraser (1981) include apology obligations of the offender, the offender's offer to apologise, offender requests to the offended hearer to accept his/her apology, expressions of regret, asking for forgiveness, acknowledging his/her responsibility, promising forbearance, and offering redress. Trosborg (1987) classified apology strategies into six categories, namely minimising offence, acknowledgment of the offence, types of explanation: implicit and explicit, offers of repair, promises of forbearance and expressions of concern. Bataineh et al. (2006) have proposed five categories of apology strategies: IFID, responsibility expressions, statements of account, offers of repair, and promises of forbearance. Brown and Attardo (2000), on the other hand, suggested apology expressions, explanations of the situation acknowledgement of, responsibility, offers of repair and promises of non-recurrence.

This study draws on the conceptual framework of the apology strategies as proposed by Blum-Kluka, House, and Kasper (1989), with some modifications by the researcher. In this regard, the current study adopts the following strategies:

- Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID);
- Emotional expressions /exclamations;
- Admission I - first person;
- Admission of fact;

- Explicit self-blame;
- Lack of intent;
- Justification of hearer's response;
- Expression of embarrassment;
- Concern of the hearer;
- Offer of repair- related to offence;
- Appeaser- not related to offence;
- Promise of forbearance;
- Explanation/excuse- not first person;
- Denial of responsibility;
- Minimisation;
- Blaming the hearer;
- Querying the precondition;
- Innocence or pretended ignorance of the offence ;
- Humour;
- Further- task oriented remark.

In addition, in the current study the following strategies have been created/modified:

- Sorry;
- Upgrader(UG) +number + sorry;
- Apparently unrelated response;
- Silence.

These strategies are reviewed in more detail in Chapter two and in Chapter four.

1.4 Research Questions

The main research question which the current study raises is:

1. To what extent is the development of pragmatic competence in English as a second language (L2) influenced by the first language and respective the cultures of the Arabic and Chinese L1 speakers, relative to the influence of their general level of linguistic competence in English?

Therefore, the other questions are as follows:

2. How do the Saudi and Chinese participants differ in their choice of apology strategies in terms of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory and their L1 cultures?

3. Are the Saudi and Chinese apology responses compatible with the British culture?
4. To what extent was the Saudi and Chinese participants' performance of apology speech act influenced by their attitudes towards learning English?
5. What is the impact of the Saudi and Chinese participants' L2 usage of English on their overall success in performing apology speech act?
6. Do Saudi/Arab and Chinese L1 cultures and languages influence the development of Saudi and Chinese L2 pragmatic competence?
7. What is the most significant contributor to the Saudi and Chinese participants' development of L2 pragmatic competence?

The results of multiple regression analyses are used to answer all the research questions from a quantitative point of view. The regressions analyses have been conducted to establish the relationships between each independent variable and the dependent variable (L2 pragmatic competence), while other independent variables being kept constant. Statistical significance has been determined at the 0.05 level.

1.5 Research Hypotheses

Based on the above research question, the following research hypothesis has been formed:
H1: First language (L1) will be more important than level of English proficiency, both in terms of overall pragmatic competence and in terms of the particular choice of strategies. This will be discussed in details in Chapter two.

Additionally, based on this H1, several null hypotheses (H0) have been formed:

- The H0: length of stay in the UK does not make a significant difference to the development of L2 pragmatic competence;
- H0: L2 pragmatic competence does not significantly developed among different levels of L2 linguistic competence (proficiency);
- H0: Arab and Chinese L1 cultures and languages do not make significant contribution to the development of L2 pragmatic competence of the Saudi and Chinese participants.

1.6 Aims of the Study

The main objective of the present study is to determine how L2 pragmatic competence can be developed in light of the investigated social variables. It specifically aims to:

- Determine the differences and similarities among the Saudi and Chinese participant in the use of apology strategies;
- Analyse the appropriateness of the apology strategies used to the British culture;
- Examine the effect of participants' L2 attitude and L2 usage on the development of their L2 pragmatic development;
- Clarify the influence of L2 learners' proficiency levels on the development of their L2 pragmatic competence;
- Analyse the influence of social familiarity, power, and imposition on the development of the apology strategies used by Saudi and Chinese EFL learners;
- Determine the influence of staying in an English-speaking country on the development of apology strategies used by Chinese and Saudi EFL learners;
- Identify the choice of semantic formulas used by Saudi and Chinese EFL learners to express the speech act of apology;
- Determine the most significant contributor to the development of the Saudi and Chinese participants' L2 pragmatic competence.

1.7 Significance and Contribution

The significance of the present study partially emanates from combining two theoretical conceptions on L2 pragmatics to form the conceptual framework, that is the conceptual framework based on Bardovi-Harlig's (2013) factors affecting the development of L2 pragmatic competence and the conceptual framework of the apology strategies.

The study is significant as it offers an in-depth analysis of the speech act of apology used by two different EFL groups representing two different first languages. It is unique in the sense that it examines the speech act used by EFL Saudi learners contrary to other similar studies conducted on EFL Arab learners like those of Umar (2004), Al-Marrani and Sazali (2010), and Al-Gahtani and Roever (2012). Those studies will be useful as the conclusions drawn from the present study can be compared to their findings. In addition to the studies conducted on the development of Chinese L2 pragmatic competence those of such cases as Wang (2001) which introduces key features for the analysis of the linguistic formulas used by the Chinese participants in both essay writing and WDCT written responses; and of Taguchi (2015) that provides insights into the Chinese culture and thus helps assess and interpret the Chinese responses in the present

study influenced by the L1 cultural norms. The present study differs from those studies in the sense that it relies on various data collection instruments as it combines both DCT and role play, on the one hand, and evaluates the participants' L2 linguistic competence covering various L2 linguistic skills on the other. In addition, data on the participants' L2 attitude and L2 usage of English learning have been collected. In other words, this study adopted multiple data collection techniques, allowing for collection of natural and authentic oral and written data.

The study also provides an elaborated analysis of social variables that include social distance (familiarity), social power, and imposition in the examined speech acts by the EFL Saudi and Chinese learners. Further, the study is of a special significance in a sense that it sets a model for the investigation of other pragmatic strategies used by EFL learners of different nationalities in particular in Arab or Asian. This study is also significant as it addressed social variables of familiarity (close, acquaintance, and stranger), social power (high-low, low-high and equal) in accordance with the imposition variable of severity of offence; mild or serious. It clarifies and explores how apology strategies used by EFL learners may differ according to the type of offense.

1.8 Limitations

The study is limited to the investigation of the development of the pragmatic strategies involved in the speech act of in apologising detected as in natural speech by Saudi and Chinese learners of English. The findings can only be used to explain the development of L2 pragmatic competence of both Saudi and Chinese EFL at the university level of education.

1.9 Thesis Structure

The thesis is divided into nine chapters. Chapter one serves as an introduction; it provides a background to the study, statement of the problem, research objectives, questions and hypotheses, as well as it addresses the study's significance and limitations. Chapter two offers a review of the previous studies on politeness and elaborates the concept of politeness in L1 with particular reference to Saudi, Chinese, and British speakers of English. Chapter three reviews studies on the relationship between L2 acquisition and L2 pragmatics. Chapter three also takes a critical look at ILP studies on the use of apology strategies among different NN speakers, including Saudi and Chinese EFL learners. Chapter four introduces the methodology of the

present study, the data collection instrument, and data analysis procedures. It explains in detail the construction and administration procedure of the 18-situation DCT, 8-situation role plays, the attitude and L2 usage background questionnaire, and the L2 proficiency test. The proficiency test consists of essay writing, grammar, vocabulary, interview, and listening. Chapter five discusses the choices of apology strategies made by the Saudi and Chinese participants. It also analyses the English native-speaking assessors' evaluation of the appropriateness of apology strategies employed by both groups of participants to the British culture. Chapter six analyses the participants' overall success (i.e. the scores of their apology responses to the DCT and role play situations) in terms of their L2 attitude and L2 usage. Chapter seven quantitatively analyses the development of participants' L2 pragmatic competence (referred to as 'overall success') in terms of the time spent in the UK and the components of the proficiency test over the three stages of data collection. Chapter eight provides the results of the multivariate regression analyses and univariate regression models of the development of participants' overall success. Chapter nine serves as a summary of the present study, pointing to its significant contribution to the ILP literature, and discusses its limitations. Chapter nine also provides the answers to the research questions of the present study above and puts forward recommendations for further research.

1.10 Definitions of Terms

The meaning of two key terms that will be used in the following chapters requires clarification: (i) overall success and (ii) formality:

- Overall success refers to the scores of apology strategies which the Saudi and Chinese participants obtained in fulfilling the 18-situation DCT and the 8-situation role plays.
- Formality refers to the scores assigned by the English native speaking assessors the participants' apology responses in the light of the British culture. The assessment is based on two different schemes for DCT and role play situations (see Chapter four).
- L2 usage is the scores which the participants obtained in the questionnaire items which depict how often they use of English' where at home, college, or with friends, etc.

1.11 Summary

This chapter has introduced the conceptual framework based on Bardovi-Harlig's (2013) factors affecting the development of L2 pragmatic competence and the classifications of apology

strategies proposed by Cohen and Olshtain (1981), Olshtain, and Cohen (1983), Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989), and Bergman & Kasper (1993). It has also briefly introduced apology strategies and presented the statement of the problem, research questions and hypotheses, as well as the main objectives of the study. The following chapter examines the development of politeness concept including the contributions by Lakoff (1973), Grice (1975), Leech (1983) and Brown and, in particular, Levinson's (1987) politeness theory. It explains the concept of politeness in the light of three L1 cultures: Arabic, Chinese, and British.

Chapter Two: Politeness Theories and Apology Strategies

2. Overview

This chapter reviews politeness theories and their development in relation to first languages (L1). Section 2.1 provides a general introduction to politeness theory. Respectively, section 2.1.1 introduces rule-based theories of politeness (Lakoff 1973; Grice 1975; Leech 1983; Gu 1990; and Danielewicz-Betz and Mamidi (2009). Section 2.1.2 discusses Brown and Levinson's politeness theory (1987) and the notion of face and Section 2.1.3 examines pragmatics and the speech act of apology. Section 2.2 reviews previously proposed apology strategies and their classification. This chapter also reviews previous studies on cultural variation in speech acts (section 2.3), contextual variables and British culture (section 2.3.1), contextual variables and Saudi culture (section 2.3.2) and contextual variables and Chinese culture (section 2.3.3). Existing literature on apology strategies employed by Saudi and Chinese learners of English is reviewed in section 2.4.

2.1 Development of Politeness Theory

Our current understanding of politeness is informed by the work of such theorists as Lakoff (1973), Grice (1975), and Leech (1983). These theories were proposed within pragmatics to account for pragmatic failures in language use. One cause of communication difficulty among speakers representing different cultures is attributed to the fact that various cultures may have different interpretations of politeness and which types of behaviour can be classified as polite and impolite. Indeed, the face concept, first proposed by Goffman (1967), was defined as an attempt to reduce failure in social interaction. Paying attention to the interlocutors' face and trying to keep a positive face for them are the main concerns behind politeness theories. Lakoff (1973) proposed that lexical and syntactic formulas can be used to express polite behaviour, and thus reduce failure in social interaction. In Lakoff's view, the face concept is based on socially agreed rules which were internalised over time in society to govern the use of speech acts. The speech acts are of different types like complaints, condolence, refusal, and request. They are importance in daily life communication. The present study focuses on investigating the speech act of apology. This is how the rules of pragmatics were formed without which people may misbehave or misunderstand each other. In this way, all society members are expected to be knowledgeable about these rules and maxims which are unconsciously processed in their minds and reflected in their behaviour.

Thus, politeness can be considered a structured response to stereotyped situations. For Lakoff and Ide (2005) what is more important than merely conveying information is how a message is worded and what its effects on the interlocutors' feeling are, since when a message is inappropriately conveyed it can lead to communication failure.

2.1.1 Rule-Based Theories of Politeness

There was some concern with what is currently referred to as pragmatic competence. Lakoff (1973:298) proposed three principles of politeness, namely (i) 'do not impose or be aloof'; (ii) 'give option or deference'; and (iii) 'make audience feel good'. The first principle; 'do not impose or be aloof' refers to the necessity of keeping a distance from the interlocutor based on factors like age, occupation and family relation. In such cases, messages should be formally expressed and conveyed. For example, a student should ask his/her professor's permission before entering the office by saying "May I come in?" This permission is necessary in order for the professor not to feel offended; it is also classified as an apology for the imposition. This commonly exists in the British, Chinese and Saudi cultures. It seems, however, that social distance is more important in native Western cultures. Both Saudi and Chinese cultures are based on collectivism where politeness rules give priority to age and social power (Gu, 1990; Qari, 2017). As such, in the student-professor example, both Saudi and Chinese students will take permission before entering the professor's room. It is my impression that this rule prevails among Arabs including Saudis as well. Its variance of applicability, according to the Saudi cultural viewpoint, may vary depending on familiarity. That is, how close the student is with the professor; what achievement level the student has; a distinguished student may share a different level of familiarity with the professor. In the British and Chinese cultures, this degree of familiarity cannot exist between a student and a professor. This degree of familiarity may exist just as it can in Saudi culture.

The second principle, "give option or deference"; means that interlocutors are required to show hesitancy, not insist on their requests and give options to the interlocutors to accept or refuse a request. For example, the declarative of request "I wonder if you could possibly help me" gives the hearer the option of accepting or refusing the request. This is a common aspect of politeness in, Saudi and Chinese cultures; although its use may differ in terms of familiarity and social power. In Saudi and Chinese cultures, requests

resemble commands in cases where the speaker outranks the hearer in terms of power (Gu, 1990; Qari, 2017). For example, a boss's request to one of his/her employees where the boss has higher social power compared to the employee can be considered as a command or order. However, this type of request differs from a friend's request to a friend where both interlocutors have equal social power. The difference between these types of request in the Saudi and Chinese cultures is related to social power; as both Saudi and Chinese cultures give priority to higher social power. Therefore, it is expected that both Saudi and Chinese participants would use polite responses in situations that represent social power distance. When a boss invites his/her employee to attend a party at his home, the Saudi and Chinese employee will feel obliged to accept the invitation based on the higher power of the boss. However, in the case of the British employee, he/she will not feel embarrassed to reject the invitation if he/she has another arrangement on that day. This is attributed to the fact that British societal structure is rather flat and flexible compared with Saudi and Chinese societies, where individuals should adhere to the common practices of their societies (Qari, 2017). In my experience, in Saudi culture, if the individual has high power, he/she will be decisive and will be formal when dealing with others because of being in power; but will do so in the frame of politeness.

Although deference exists in the British, Saudi and Chinese cultures, it differs in terms of familiarity and social power. Saudi and Chinese speakers always give priority to those of higher social power.

The third rule, "make audience feel good or camaraderie" refers to the courteous and friendly way in which the speaker should approach the hearer. This rule should be expressed informally to reflect solidarity. For example, if speaker A; a man, asks his friend whether his new necktie and shirt match: "Do they match?" then, speaker B replies, "Yes, they do". Speaker B says this out of courtesy, even though the necktie's colour does not match the shirt's colour, to show politeness and not to hurt speaker A's feelings (Margetan, 2014; Brown, 2015). According to my observations, this rule prevails in British and Chinese cultures. It also exists in Saudi culture, which emphasises the avoidance of criticising others as criticism can be viewed as an insult among Saudis. In Saudi culture it is also, based on the concept of face flattery and approbation principle (Danielewicz-Betz and Mamidi 2009; and Qari, 2017). This happens in both among strangers and acquainted people, unlike in the case of equal social power and close familiarity. However, it is important to note that in Saudi culture, this is very much different

when the speaker has higher power. This point of higher power was overlooked in Lakoff's model as individuals linguistically behave in accordance to internalised commonly shared assumptions (Song, 2012).

Lakoff's politeness principles are questioned by Tannen (1986), and Sifianou (1992), for two main reasons. The first reason is that they are not universal as they do not allow for cultural variation, and the second reason is that they are not useful in conversation analysis, according to Brown (1976). Many scholars have been critical of Lakoff's use of social rules in the analysis of politeness. Tannen (1986), for instance, criticised Lakoff because she did not provide appropriate definitions for these rules. Moreover, Tannen noted that Lakoff's definition of the term deference in the sense of giving options is not common across cultures. In Tannen's opinion, the term 'deference' can be differently interpreted from one culture to another because it culturally and conventionally implies various meanings. Essentially, researchers in the field questioned the universality of Lakoff's rules and the robustness of her definitions. Sifianou (1992) also criticised Lakoff's proposed social rules of conversation for not taking into account all situational, social, and cultural variables that affect conversation.

An alternative view of politeness is that developed by Grice (1975) and Leech (1983). According to this view, successful conversation is attributed to the interactants' cooperation to convey the intended meaning. This was embodied in the 'cooperative principles' proposed by Grice (1975). They include the maxims of (i) quantity, (ii) quality, (iii) relation and (IV) manner. Grice (1975) introduced a fundamental pragmatic concept known as the cooperative principle. This principle governs conversation because the interlocutors have a common objective to follow it successfully. The quantity maxim specifies that an interlocutor should provide adequate information to the hearer; whereas according to the quality maxim an interlocutor should truly contribute towards the successful fulfilment of the conversation. The relation maxim entails provision of a relevant contribution to the conversation topic; whereas the manner maxim specifies that the interlocutor should not use any obscure or ambiguous expressions and should instead be concise and to the point. Thus, the main characteristics of successful conversation are appropriateness, clarity, truthfulness, and relevancy. It also should be informative, according to Sadeghgholi and Niroomand (2016).

However, interlocutors deliberately violate some or all of Grice's maxims in their real-life daily interactions. In doing so, they convey a different meaning of their message. In such a case,

it is the hearer's task to understand the speaker's intention and the implied meaning of his/her utterances. Grice (2009:5) gave the following example to explain the violation of the relation maxim:

Speaker A: Are you coming to the birthday party this weekend?

Speaker B: I have to send my son to the clinic.

In this example, speaker A understood speaker B's intention and implied message that he/she would not be able to attend the birthday party even though speaker B did not answer speaker A's question. This kind of response, instead of using a direct refusal response like saying 'no' or 'I cannot' which may threaten the inviter's face, is considered a polite way of refusing the invitation according to Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory discussed below, because it reduces the potential threat to speaker A's face. One of the main drawbacks of Grice's maxims is that interlocutors do not necessarily follow some or all of them. This happens when a message is provided that differs from its literal meaning at the locutionary level (Austin, 1962).

Grice's maxims have been criticised because of the interactional variation inherent in different social settings, different interlocutors and different purposes of communication. The universality of Grice's maxims, for instances, are challenged by Keenan (1976) because they are culturally determined. For this reason, the present study does not use Grice's maxims and the notion of cooperation since they are not universally applicable to all cultures. For example, Grice's maxims and cooperative principle are irrelevant to the culture of Malagasy (native people of Madagascar) who culturally oppose information sharing because information is a source of prestige. They therefore flout the quantity maxim; avoid direct questions, and usually provide incomplete answers in order to prevent face loss (Keenan, 1976). Harnish (1976) added that Malagasy speakers do not show cooperation in conversation as they highly value the ownership of information.

I believe that the Saudis and Chinese vary in their perception of the cooperative principle and Grice's maxims. This variation on the part of the two cultures can be explained in terms of their varied perception of social familiarity and power. The problem of Grice's cooperative principle is compensated for in Brown and Levinson (1987) politeness principles both positive and negative because they allow for cultural variation across cultures. In short, Grice's maxims do not observe the interactional variation which results from the different social settings and different interlocutors. Thus, I did not adopt Grice's cooperative principle as it is not culturally

universal. As mentioned above, Grice's maxims and cooperative principle are, for instance, irrelevant to the culture of Malagasy which does not favour sharing of information (Keenan, 1976). Saudi and Chinese speakers may have different perception of Grice's maxims in terms of social familiarity and power.

Complementary to Grice's maxims, Leech's (1983) politeness principle tact, generosity, approbation, modesty, agreement, and sympathy is based on cost of the interlocutors and self-scales of the speaker. Leech's politeness principle fundamentally aims to minimise impolite expressions and maximise polite expressions. The tact maxim minimises cost and maximises the benefit to others; generosity minimises the self-benefit and maximised self-cost; approbation minimises the speaker's self-praise and maximises it to others; modesty minimises self-praise and maximises self-dispraise; agreement minimises disagreement with others and maximises agreement with others; and sympathy minimises antipathy of others and maximises sympathy.

Although Leech provided maxims of politeness which seemed to be universal, he also admitted that these maxims vary cross-culturally. Leech maxims may provide features of behavioural politeness, but many societies take into considerations factors like age, gender or social status when prescribing politeness rules (Watts, 2003). These factors affect the concept of politeness in certain cultures like the Saudi and Chinese. The politeness principle proposed by Leech is based on regulation (i.e. social rules which govern linguistic behaviour) and does not take into consideration aspects of morality and ethnicity (Song, 2012). This means that the interpretation of politeness in Leech's view is built on the devising rules and not on the moral or ethnic characteristics of a culture (i.e. Leech overlooked the influence of ethnicity on culture), for example, the Chinese culture. As Leech's maxims overlook the components of morality and ethnicity, they are not fully appropriate for Chinese culture. This can be attributed to the fact that Leech's maxims are descriptive while the Chinese culture is solely based on morality not description. That is, morality is the main source behind the Chinese culture which is based on moral rules rather than descriptive rules. That is, it based on social norms and values that give due respect to the elders, highlight the necessity of deference to others instead of being based on descriptive rules which are not real rules but inapplicable ones (Gu, 1990).

Description of politeness as acts of communication is the main feature of Leech's politeness principle instead of prescribing specific or certain collective behaviour as it should be the way in the Chinese culture. Leech conceives of politeness as a rule book for the speaker but

Gu (1990) argues that it is more of an agreement between interlocutors. For this reason, Gu amended Leech's politeness maxims in relation to how the Chinese perceive politeness. Gu proposed four maxims of politeness: self-denigration, address, tact and generosity. In the first maxim, the Chinese elevate the self of their interlocutors while denigrating their own. In the second maxim, the Chinese address their interlocutors according to their social relationship and power distance. Gu's third and fourth proposed maxims are similar to those of Leech, the Chinese in the third maxim maximise their interlocutors' benefit while minimising their cost. In the fourth maxim, the Chinese minimise their own benefit and maximise their self-cost. The generosity maxim proposed by Gu differs from that proposed by Leech in that it is not applicable on the conversational level but on the motivational level. The motivational level often involves the operational aspects of an illocutionary act and refers to the benefit and cost of the hearer, rather than the speaker (Gu, 1990).

The Saudi concept of politeness is classified under Brown and Levinson's (1987) positive politeness. An intensive explanation of how politeness is viewed and worked out under the Saudi culture was investigated by Danielewicz-Betz and Mamidi (2009). In this concern, the Saudis, employ positive face management by the reciprocal use of the strategies of face giving and face saving. Hence, this is manifested by observance of the maxims of agreement and generosity. The positive face concept, in Saudi culture, is based on three principles: avoidance, solidarity and approbation, and face flattery Danielewicz-Betz and Mamidi (2009). Avoidance refers to the indirect handling of conflicts. It aims to preserve social harmony and relationship. There are three means for realising avoidance, namely (1) evading the topic of potential conflict; (2) eluding apology through silence, incompetence, or difficult decisions; and (3) over-apology which is often insincere (Qari, 2017). Solidarity minimises the differences and maximises similarities among the speaker and the hearer. For examples, it emphasises cooperation, common fate and reciprocal trust. Approbation and face flattery minimise criticism and maximise the praise of the hearer. For example, Saudis realise face flattery by showing respect and appreciation of the hearer's ability and achievements, as stated by Danielewicz-Betz and Mamidi (2009). In short, Saudis fully employ the maxims of agreement and generosity under the management of positive face. Saudis avoid direct conflicts at any price; they highlight similarities instead of differences; and they tend to praise instead of criticising their interlocutors (Danielewicz-Betz and Mamidi, 2009:10).

Over-politeness can be considered a rude behaviour because it exceeds the limits on what is appropriate and inappropriate (Bousfield and Locher, 2008). On the contrary, Saudi over-politeness is as conforming to the norms of expected polite behaviour. The Saudi view of over-politeness is consistent with Culpeper's (2008) view that judgment of appropriateness, politeness and impoliteness is decided by the hearer according to his/her cultural norms. This is attributed to the fact that over-politeness in Saudi culture is not used to create mock politeness or sarcasm but rather to support polite behaviour.

2.1.2 Brown and Levinson and the Notion of Face

The analysis of the present study will rely on the three contextual variables of familiarity, social power and imposition as described by Brown and Levinson (1987). Gu (1990: 241-242) refuted the applicability of Brown and Levinson's notion of negative face to the Chinese. Gu claimed that politeness should be measured on the level of the whole society, which imposes normative constraints on each individual within it. That is, Gu objected to Brown and Levinson's term of 'wants' under the notion of negative face. Instead, Gu explained that Chinese society judges the individual's wants in light of the norms and values which the whole society agrees upon. The view of politeness which I adopt is that developed by Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987). Their approach is more appropriate for the present study because it allows to accommodate the differences between Saudi and Chinese politeness. In any case, Brown and Levinson's is by far the most influential theory of politeness (Song, 2012). The concept of face, was first described within the theory of behaviour proposed by Goffman (1967), as mentioned above, but it was in the work of Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) that it was fully developed and fleshed out. The face concept represents a positive social value in social interaction whereby the speaker (S) is not only committed to protecting his/her face but also that of the hearer (H). Based on the face concept, Brown and Levinson laid out the basis of their politeness theory, whereby face loss reflects feelings of embarrassment and humiliation. As such, in social interactions, the interlocutors may lose, enhance or maintain each other's face (Brown and Levinson, 1987; Song 2012). As for the Chinese, the notion of negative face imposes normative constraints on each individual in the society. Chinese society judges the individual's wants in light of the norms and values. In other words, what a Chinese individual wants can subject to the judgment of the Chinese cultural norms and values. Brown and Levinson's notion of politeness is

suitable for the present study because it allows the accommodation of differences between Saudi and Chinese politeness.

As to Brown and Levinson's concept of negative and positive face, they claim that positive face refers to "the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others," while the negative face is "the want of every competent adult member that his actions be unimpeded by others" (1987:61). I believe that Brown and Levinson's view of positive face is compatible with the Saudi politeness principles whereas their view of the negative face is suitable for the Chinese politeness principles as stated by Gu (1990). Chinese people differ from the Saudis in the sense that Saudis would avoid criticising others in light of positive face strategies. On the contrary, Chinese can indirectly criticise others, as emphasised by Gu (1990). Brown and Levinson's politeness theory has greatly contributed to our understanding of politeness because it is not based on strict rules of conversation, but rather on the concept that politeness mainly aims to reduce severity of offence for the hearer. It has been especially influential in the interpretation of the results of cross-cultural studies on various speech acts since, as a theory, it allows for variation across cultures. For then, politeness is concerned with protecting the positive and negative face of the hearer. This gives rise to two types of politeness: (i) positive politeness, which can be realised through the politeness strategies of sympathy, solidarity and rapport between the speaker and the hearer; and (ii) negative politeness, which refers to the speaker's intention not to obstruct the freedom of action on the part of the hearer. These notions are particularly relevant to the present study because they are appropriate for describing the speech act of apologising, based on the various strategies to be described below.

So, called Face Threatening Acts (FTA), according to Brown and Levinson's politeness theory (1987), which threaten both the positive and negative face of the speaker and the hearer. For instance, the speech act of apologising which is the main focus of the present study is a face threatening act because it threatens the face of the 'offender', who must decide whether to admit the committed 'offence' or not and if so, how or not to show sympathy towards the 'victim'. Indeed, perception of face threatening acts may differ from one culture to another. For example, arriving 20 minutes late to a social/work engagement could be considered a serious face threatening act in Western cultures. In Britain, for example, this would require an excuse and an apology. However, for Saudis, arriving 20 minutes late to an appointment is not a serious 'offence', therefore not a face threatening act. Saudis, however, usually admit that they are late

and try to minimise their offence by saying "being late twenty minutes does not matter" when the invitee is late 20 minutes, he/she should apologise to the inviter for being late. However, in Saudi culture this is not considered as a face threatening act because Saudis in general tend to show appreciation, face flattery, and avoid criticism particularly in public (Danielewicz-Betz and Mamidi, 2009).

It is the matter of perception of imposition that constitutes the main reason for which I will interpret the present study's findings in the light of politeness theory. It will also, be demonstrated how Saudi and Chinese participants differently perceive the imposition. It entails that Brown and Levinson's politeness assessment is based on individualism while Saudi and Chinese cultures are collectivist ones.

Indeed Brown and Levinson's variables of distance and power can be assessed on an individual basis, but that of imposition can be collectively assessed. For that reason I intend to evaluate how Chinese participants can assess degrees of imposition in terms of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory. Under normal circumstances the acts of offer, invitation, and promise are viewed as face-threatening acts for Chinese speakers. For example, a Chinese speaker insists on inviting a Chinese interlocutor to lunch and he/she will pay for it even though the accompanying person offers to pay. But in the British culture, this situation is considered a face threatening act. On the contrary, the Chinese person in this example believes that the Chinese speaker's behaviour is a polite one and the speaker's insistence is considered polite as well as it reveals the speaker's sincerity of invitation. In this example, there is no threat to the speaker's negative face (Gu, 1990, 242).

Following the work of (Hymes, 1986), Keenan (1976) and Hernish (1976) on the one hand and that of Gu (1990), Watts (2003) on the other, I have decided that Brown and Levinson's theory is more appropriate to the present study than Grice's and Leech's maxims; since it is related to the maintenance or loss of face concept according to social standards, allowing more easily for intercultural variation. In Brown and Levinson's approach, face threatening acts are described in relation to three universal social factors: social distance, social power and the degree of imposition. These factors are pertinent to the current study as they are the main variables of data analysis. Social distance refers to a symmetrical relation between close, acquainted or unacquainted speakers of the hearers. Social power is manifested in an asymmetrical relation between the speaker and the hearer, such as professor versus student (high-low) or student versus

professor (low-high) or friends and family members (equal). As for the degree of imposition, it refers to the degree of severity of offence: whether it is mild like stepping on somebody's toe or serious like crashing into a stranger's car.

Below there is a detailed description of each of the three social variables based on Brown and Levinson's politeness theory. Social distance describes the symmetrical relations between the speaker and the hearer. Meanwhile, social power describes the asymmetrical relations between the speaker and the hearer. In addition, imposition describes the degree of severity of offence. These variables will be manipulated in the present study to determine their role in L2 English pragmatic competence of speakers with different cultural backgrounds.

Distance (D) is balanced in nature as being a social element that reflects similarities and/or dissimilarities between the speaker and the hearer in performing certain situations. In most cases, distance is related to the frequent interaction or the type of interaction, whether it is a material or non-material interaction. Material interaction means interaction through physical resources at homes, schools, mosques, temples and churches. Non-material interaction occurs through thoughts, ideas, beliefs, values, norms and perception. Distance is mainly assessed based on the social closeness in which the positive face is mutually given and received. In other words, social distance may indicate positive politeness due to social closeness between the speaker and the hearer. When the speaker has higher social power than the hearer to whom he has social relation, there will be less need to minimise the face-threatening act, as in the case of like the President and his servant. For example, in the Discourse Completion Task (DCT) used to collect the data for the present study there are situations 'that allow to determine different levels of all degrees of distance (close, acquaintance, and stranger), see the DCT situations 5 and 6 in chapter four.

Power (P) of the hearer is defined according to Brown and Levinson (1987:77) as "the degree to which the hearer can impose his own plans and his own self-evaluation (face) at the expense of the speaker's plans and self-evaluation". Power refers to power relativity; it is an asymmetric element reflecting the imposition of the hearer's face (i.e. self-evaluation and plans) over those of the speaker. Power has two sources: being authorised or unauthorised and having material control or metaphysical control. Material control includes economic levels or physical force. For example, a rich man can have a material control over the porter of the building in which he lives in. Metaphysical control can be indicated by the actions performed by others. For

example, the faculty dean can have metaphysical control or power over a PhD candidate during the viva of his/her doctorate. An individual's power can be attributed to any of these sources or a combination of both. Although the social power could be high among interlocutors like the President and his servant, the familiarity could be close if they belong to the same family.

For examples, in the simple Discourse Completion Task, I determine the levels of power (H-L, L-H and equal). See the DCT situations 17 and 18 in chapter four.

Brown and Levinson (1987:77) provided a definition of imposition as "a culturally and situationally defined ranking of impositions by the degree to which they are considered to interfere with an agent's desire for self-determination or of approval". Imposition (R) is defined in relation to its cultural and situational degree of impact on the hearer's negative and positive face. Imposition varies in terms of culture (from culture to another) and in terms of situations (from situation to another). Imposition refers to the threat degree related to a certain perceived face-threatening act in a specific culture. Imposition is of two types, namely mild and serious. Mild imposition occurs when the offence causes little threat to the hearer's face, as in the 'book damage' situation. Imposition in the previous example is classified as a mild imposition. Serious imposition occurs when the offence poses a serious threat to the hearer's face, as in the 'car crash' situation. Brown and Levinson (1987) indicate that some face-threatening acts are intrinsic when the speaker shows lack of care to the positive face of the hearer. Such intrinsic acts occur when 'prohibited' or taboo topics are mentioned that are inappropriate in a given context. They also happen when controversial topics are raised, such as religion, freedom, race or politics.

Of particular relevance are the interlocutors' commitments and rights to perform the speech act; the interlocutors' physical or ritual reasons to abstain from performing the act; and their enjoyment of performing the act. The relationship between FTAs and positive face can be assessed in the amount of pain given to the H's face resulting from the contradiction between his/her self-image and the speaker's view. Performance of the face-threatening acts on the part of the speaker is based on three options: 'go bald on record', 'go on record' and 'go off record'. The first option means that the performance of the speech act lacks mitigation of its illocutionary force (Brown and Levinson, 1987). This includes in the present study the apologetic strategies of sorrow, e.g. "I'm sorry, it is my fault" and denial, e.g. "I did not do that, it is your fault", whereas the second option means using politeness markers such as the apologetic strategies, as in "Oh my God, I wish to apologise". The third option refers to reducing severity which is embodied in the

present study in the apologetic strategies of lack of intent or humour, e.g. “I did not mean it, I did not intend, are you OK? I promise not to do it again”.

While Brown and Levinson's politeness theory has dominated the theoretical framework of numerous speech act studies (Nuredden, 2008; Morkus, 2009; Kogetsidis, 2010, and Taguchi (2105), it has also been criticised for its focus on the hearer's face while neglecting the speaker's face (Song, 2012). Moreover, various studies have culturally challenged the universality of positive and negative politeness as claimed by Brown and Levinson in relation to languages such as Japanese (Matsumoto, 1988), (Hymes, 1986), Keenan (1976) and Chinese (Gu, 1990). Other studies do not support the claimed relationship between politeness and indirectness as proposed by Brown and Levinson (cf., e.g., Wierzbicka, 1985, 1991; Blum-Kulka, 1987; Wolfson, 1989). In spite of the criticism, Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness remains highly influential. An important aim of this thesis is to assess to what extent L2 English learning supports or refutes this approach to politeness. In short, the criticism of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory is based on its focus on the H's face while neglecting the S's face. Other studies have challenged the claimed universality of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory (1987). Those studies do not support the relationship between politeness and indirectness as claimed by the theory (Song, 2012).

In conclusion, based on Appendix L, it is noted that Grice's principles are applicable mainly to the successful fulfilment of conversation and how Sand H cooperate in the course of a conversation. On the other hand, Lakoff's and Leech's maxims offer politeness rules and tactics of managing the conversation. It could be claimed that the Saudi and Chinese politeness principles are derived from Leech's and Lakoff's maxims. They have such things in common as giving priority to seniority, social relationship or caring for the addressee. However, the present study adopts Brown and Levinson's politeness theory for the reason that it covers the three social variables of familiarity, power and imposition. The present study investigates whether the Saudi and Chinese participants have the same perception of the contextual variables specified in Brown and Levinson's politeness theory. Appendix L provides a summary of politeness maxims and principles: General, Chinese, and Saudi principles.

2.1.3 Pragmatics and the Speech Act of Apology

An utterance is a means of communication between the speaker and the hearer. That is, H performs an action in reaction to the S's utterance within the social context or a situation. There are various types of speech acts, such as expressions of condolence, invitations, refusal, request and apologies (Austin, 1962; Levinson, 1983; Searle, 1996; Yule, 1996). As one of the speech acts, apologies are defined in various ways (cf., e.g. Fraser, 1981; Holmes, 1989; Trosborg, 1995; Bataineh et al., 2005). These various definitions commonly stipulate the concept of compensation to the 'victim' (V) partly to maintain social harmony and partly to indicate politeness as well. Fraser (1981) indicated that apologies become necessary to remedy an offence that arises from the failure of fulfilling personal expectations. Trosborg (1995) emphasised that an apology is necessary to heal an encroachment of social politeness norms or an offence resulting from misuse of a linguistic expression. These two approaches to apology resemble that of Olshtain and Cohen (1983:20): "the act of apologising require[s] an action or an utterance which is intended to set things right".

Austin (1962) and Searle (1996) explained that apology is a means of settling a debt through the offender compensating the offended person. It is, according to Bataineh et al. (2005), a speech act that reflects the offender's guilty feeling and his/her desire to seek forgiveness from the offended person. Goffman (1971) considered apology as a means of restoring social harmony between the offender and offended interlocutor(s) because of its remedial nature. It helps establish a good relationship between the offender and the offended. The present study adopts Holmes's (1989) definition of apology since it is more direct, comprehensive and pertinent to the tested situations and scenarios in the present study. In this regard, Holmes (1989: 196) sees apology as "a speech act addressed to V's face-needs and intended to remedy an offence for which A takes responsibility, and thus to restore equilibrium between V and A (where A is the apologist, and V is the victim or person offended)".

2.2 Apology Strategies

This section reviews the similarities and dissimilarities between different coding schemes of apology strategies. This review was essential for constructing a model of classifying apology strategies which was adopted in the current study. Apology can be expressed in different ways. Apology strategies are classified based on cultural orientation. The coding schemes of apology

strategies view apology as an expressive speech act. The coding schemes are based on the acknowledgment or denial of the offence.

2.2.1 Classification of Apology Strategies

Many scholars have attempted to propose various and different ways of offering an apology (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1998). The classification of apology strategies is basically culturally oriented. Different apology coding schemes agree on the expression of apology as a sort of expressive speech act. However, they differ in the coding of apology expressions. Olshtain and Cohen (1981, 1983) differentiate between situations where the offenders acknowledge the need to apologise and the other situations where they do need to do so. Most of the categories of apology strategies discussed are deemed relevant to the present study as they provide the basis for a framework with which to analyse the strategies employed by the participants in the written DCT and the role play situations.

2.2.1.1 Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID)

Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1998) define Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID) as an apology strategy which explicitly expresses regret by using means like ‘sorry’, ‘forgive me’, ‘excuse me’, ‘I regret’, and so on. IFIDs highlight the speaker’s need to seek forgiveness by overtly expressing his/her regret over an action that violates the hearer. The first apology strategy is significant to this study because it is one of the most commonly used apology strategies not only among the non-native Speaker (NNS) but also among native speakers (NS). It is uncontroversial that one kind of strategy involves the expression of regret: "I'm sorry", and another is the offer of apology: "I apologise". Other uncontroversial strategies are the request for forgiveness: "forgive me" and the expression of an excuse: "excuse me" (Cohen and Olshtain, 1981; Olshtain and Cohen, 1983). These strategies of apology expressions were differently coded by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) and gathered under the more general banner of Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID). In addition, Cohen and Olshtain (1981: 119) devised a stylistic appropriateness IFID strategy, for example “I wish to apologise”. Blum-Kulka and Kasper (1989: 290) classified emotional expressions and exclamations under IFID like “Oh/ Oh no/ Oh Lord/God”. Moreover, Nureddeen (2008:302) indicated that IFID may occur in initial and final positions, for example "I am sorry, I left it at home but will bring it tomorrow, I am very sorry".

Further improvement to the combined expressions of apology was carried out by including the coding of emotional and exclamation expressions; intensifiers, double intensifiers and concern for the H's feelings (Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper, 1989). Their classification is thus clearer and more comprehensive, allowing the coding of some expressions not covered by Cohen and Olshtain (1981) and Olshtain and Cohen (1983).

2.2.1.2 Upgrader

In the upgrader and apology strategy, the upgrader refers to words that add to the power of the apologetic expressions, like “so, very, and terribly”. In this regard, Bergman and Kasper (1993:88) provided an illustrative example where a student fails his/her examination because the professor misplaces his/her examination paper. Upon finding out that the student failed because of his/her fault, the professor apologises by saying “I’m terribly sorry. I don’t know where I put it”. Initially, it was termed as intensification of apology according to the code schemes proposed by Cohen and Olshtain (1981: 119), Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984: 208), Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989:291), Bergman and Kasper (1993:85), and Nureddeen (2008:303). Intensification is of two different types: (1) by using adverbials, for example “I’m very sorry”; (2) by using repetition (or double intensifier), for example “I’m terribly, terribly sorry”. Instead of using the term 'intensifier' (Cohen and Olshtain 1981); Blum-Kulka and Olshtain 1984; Blum-Kulka and Kasper (1989), this study adopts Bergman and Kasper's (1993) and Nureddeen's (2008) term of 'upgrader'. In Chapter four, I argue for further division of this category.

2.2.1.3 Taking on Responsibility

In the apology strategy of taking responsibility, the apologisee exerts efforts to make up for his/her fault by taking verbal and non-verbal actions. This strategy can be divided into eight sub-categories, namely, expressions of self-blame, expressions of lack of intent, and expressions of admission of fact (Cohen and Olshtain 1981). Regarding the first sub-category of taking on responsibility (i.e. expression of self-blame), Bergman and Kasper (1993:88) give the following example: the waiter offends a customer and exerts efforts to repair his fault by blaming himself and saying “How stupid of me to do that”. In the second sub-category (i.e. expression of lack of intent) Bergman and Kasper (1993:88) use the example where “at a restaurant, a waiter spills food on a customer’s clothes”. The waiter apologises by clarifying that the offence occurred

unintentionally as he says “I did not mean to do that”. As for the third type of strategy (i.e. expression of admission of fact), Bergman and Kasper’s (1993:88) example is where “a professor has not yet graded a term paper that a student was supposed to pick up”. As an apologetic expression the professor admits the fact and says “I haven’t graded it yet”. Fourth, Blum-Kulka and Kasper (1989: 292) and Nureddeen (2008: 302) provided examples of the strategy of ‘justify the hearer’, ‘you’re right to be angry’, and ‘you have the right to blame me’. In short, taking responsibility can be expressed in different strategies like self-blame, lack of intent, admission of fact, and justification of offence.

Fifth, Blum-Kulka and Kasper (1989:292) and Nureddeen (2008: 302) respectively gave examples of the expression of embarrassment “I feel awful about it” and “I do not know where to hide my face”. Sixth, there is almost unanimous agreement on the strategy of concern for the hearer, as Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989:291), Bergman and Kasper (1993: 86) and others provide examples such as “I hope it did not upset you”, “Are you alright?”, etc. Seventh, there are two strategies that seem synonymous but they really have two different meanings (i.e. excuse and explanation or justification). Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) coded them as either explicit or implicit explanation. They give an example of the explicit explanation as “the bus was late 10 minutes” and for implicit explanation they provide “Traffic is always so heavy in the morning”. Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989) and Nureddeen (2008) provide similar examples of explanation to those given by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain. (1984), such as “The traffic was terrible” and “My tutor kept me late”. On the other hand, I believe that when an offence occurs because of some reasons out of the offenders' control, like “There was a lot of traffic”, this should be classified as an excuse. Explanation should be limited to explanations under the offenders' control such as when offenders give as a reason for being late for an interview the fact that they had to meet with their family members.

Eighth, it was distinguished between two strategies of taking on responsibility, namely ‘admission of fact’ (e.g. “I have forgotten to bring your coffee”; Bergman and Kasper, 1993) was coded as ‘admission 1’- the first person; whereas responses like “The car was crashed coded” were as ‘admission’. As for ‘admission I’ strategy, I believe there should be a distinction made between simply admitting the offence occurrence and the use of the first pronoun ‘I’ to admit being guilty of the offence occurrence. Many linguists classify admission of the offence based on stating the fact of the offence occurrence. For instance, in replying to the damaged car

situation, the participant may say "The car was crashed". This response is considered as an admission of the offence occurrence but it does not imply explicit responsibility on the part of the offender for the offence. On the contrary, when the responder uses 'admission I' expressions, as in "I crashed the car", there is a stronger admission of the offender's responsibility for the offence occurrence. Thus, the use of 'admission I' strategy is more effective in expressing apology than the use of 'admission' strategy. The 'admission I' strategy can be viewed as a genuine expression of apology, as compared to the 'admission' strategy which may be considered as simply a routinized form of apology. Therefore, it was decided to include the 'admission I' strategy in the classification of the apology strategies applied to the present study.

2.2.1.4 Downgrading Responsibility or Severity of the Offence

The apology strategy of downgrading responsibility or severity of the offence refers to the speaker's utterance to reduce his/her accountability for the offence. It is expressed by various strategies such as excuse, justification, claiming ignorance, and problematizing a precondition, which sounds synonymous to the strategy of querying the precondition devised by Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989:293); denial, and reducing the severity of the offence. To give an example of an excuse, a manager claims that her watch had stopped as an excuse for being late for a meeting in her office. As for justification, speaker A meets his friend B but he has to leave for a meeting, so he says "I was suddenly called to a meeting, I have to go now". For claiming ignorance, speaker A invites all his friends including his close friend, speaker B, to a party. However, B does not go to A's house and instead claims ignorance about the party by saying "I didn't know that you were expecting me". An example of problematizing a precondition may be where speaker A is to meet his friend for coffee at 11. However, he does not show up until 12 o'clock. He claims that they were not to meet before 12 o'clock and says, "We were not supposed to meet before 12". As for denial, Bergman and Kasper (1993:88) give the following example: At an airport, a customs official messes up a traveller's suitcase. He says, "I didn't do it, I do not know where the suitcase is".

These strategies include excuses, denial, and problematizing a precondition. Bergman and Kasper give various examples of denying the responsibility of the offence. The denial of the customs official's responsibility for the fault leads to blaming someone else. There are other sub-strategies which can be classified under denial. Olshtain and Cohen (1983) and Blum-Kulka,

House and Kasper (1989), and Nuredden (2008) agree on the classifications of these sub-strategies as 'not accepting the blame' (e.g. "It was not my fault"); 'blaming the victim for bringing the offence upon himself/herself' (e.g. "It is your own fault"; "denial of the need to apologise" (e.g. "There was no need for you to get insulted"; 'pretending to be offended' (e.g. "I'm the one to be offended"); 'blame another party' (e.g. "The bus stopped suddenly"). As an example for reducing the severity of the offence, which is also coded as minimisation (see, e.g., Bergman and Kasper, 1993; Nuredden, 2008), a manager comes late to attend a meeting; he attempts to reduce the severity of his fault by saying "I'm only 10 minutes late".

2.2.1.5 Offers of Repair

In offers of repair strategy, the offender, according to Cohen and Olshtain (1981), attempts to repair damage resulting from his/her fault. This repair can have a literal sense or may come in the form of payment to compensate the victim of that fault when actual repair is impossible. In this context, for example, speaker A has damaged the car which he had borrowed from his friend B. Speaker A apologises by saying "I will pay for the damage".

2.2.1.6 Verbal Redress

The last apology strategy is the verbal redress, which simply means showing concern for the victim of the offence. For example, Speakers A and B are at the coffee shop. Speaker A spills speaker B's coffee accidentally. Then, A says, "Let me buy you another drink". Furthermore, different apology coding schemes agree on the strategies of 'taking responsibility' (Olshtain and Cohen, 1983; Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper 1989; Bergman and Kasper, 1993). To them, Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989) added 'expressions of embarrassment', such as "I feel awful". This is similarly applicable to the coding of other apology strategies. These strategies are 'querying the precondition', further-task oriented remark and 'pretending innocence or ignorance', humour, appeaser (e.g. "please"), and lexical and phrases downgraders.

All such strategies are influential in the analysis of the participants' responses in the present study. In contrast to the coding scheme of Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989), that of Bergman and Kasper (1993) included the essential apology strategy of reducing severity recoded as minimisation, and later included in Nuredden's (2008) coding scheme. There are different coding schemes of taking on the responsibility as an acknowledgement of responsibility by

Cohen and Olshtain (1981) and assuming responsibility by Bergman and Kasper (1993). For more information about these classifications, see Appendix M Classification of Apology Strategies Categories.

2.3 Cultural Variation in Speech Acts

Communication patterns vary from one language to another due to differences in cultural norms and values. Thus, it is necessary to stress the importance of understanding cultural differences in the assessment of patterns of language use. This is also apparent in the domain of speech acts, hence the creation of the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realisation Project (CCSARP); (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984). There are pragmatic basics which are universally common among various speech communities. These pragmatic universals enable members of the same speech act community to indirectly communicate their pragmatic end and use various patterns of linguistic actions to express those speech acts within the limits of certain contextual constraints (Blum-Kulka, 1991). Universally, all speech communities have the fundamental sets of speech acts, as described by Searle (1976), namely, representatives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations. Similarly, various speech acts like requests, suggestions, invitations, refusals, apologies, complaints, compliments or thanks are all used in all speech communities with different or common perception.

The realisation of these speech acts can be achieved through a set of L1 culturally oriented strategies without which the speech act realisation cannot be achieved (Olshtain and Cohen, 1983). These L1 culturally oriented strategies exist in the realisation of apology, for instance, in various speech communities like the English, French, German, and Hebrew social settings (Olshtain, 1989), Thai (Bergman & Kasper, 1993), Japanese (Maeshiba et al., 1996) or in the Sudanese setting (Nureddeen, 2008). In the same way, there are cultural direct and indirect conventions to express requests in different L1 cultural settings like English, French, Hebrew, and Spanish (Blum-Kulka, 1989), Chinese (Zhang, 1995), and Saudi cultural setting (Al-Gahtany, 2012). The realisation of these speech acts is closely entwined with culturally based socio-pragmatic conventions. For instance, the expression of request by using the ability form 'can you?' does not exist in the Polish speech community (Wierzbicka, 1985). In addition, the realisation of speech acts varies among various speech communities because of different perception of Brown and Levinson's contextual variables of social distance, power and

imposition, which are mainly culturally oriented. For the realisation of the apology speech acts, for instance, imposition is weighted according to the offender's willingness to apologise and the possibility of accepting his/her apology (House, 1989; Olshtain, 1989). As for requests strategies of request are determined in relation to legitimacy and possibility of compliance in the speech communities of Argentina, Israel, Germany and Japan (Blum-Kulka and House, 1989; Morosawa, 1990).

2.3.1 Contextual Variables and British Culture

British culture is classified as lower power distance in which there is no gap between the poor and the rich based on equality (Qari, 2017). It is an equality-based culture where all people are equal in the sense that each individual does his/her duty in the society (Qari, *ibid.*). This concept of power distance has a great influence on the politeness concept in the British society. For example, a British employee can make a comment against his British employer. This act of criticising the employer is widely accepted in the British society on the contrary to other societies like Saudi (Qari, 2017) and Chinese (Gu, 1990). That is why for instance, it is not an offense to address the university teaching staff at a British university by their first name since using the lecturer's first name is not a sign of disrespect. Moreover, the British, regardless of their status, opt to use indirect request strategies as a form of politeness based on their conceptualisation of politeness. Lower-power-distance societies like the British one emphasise individualism. Individualism reinforces the individual's role against that of the group and how individuals of the same society are integrated together (Hofstede, 1991; Merkin, 2015).

British individualism contrasts with the Saudi and Chinese collectivism. The difference between individualistic and collectivistic cultures strongly affects the communicative social behaviour of the cultures in question (Gudykunst, 2003: 78). It is the collectivistic and not the individualistic cultures that are more related to Brown and Levinson's differentiation between negative and positive types of politeness. Collectivism tends to adopt positive politeness whereas individualism adopts negative politeness (Brown and Levinson, 1987). The British society is intrinsically negative politeness oriented and observes the principle of 'deference' (Scollon and Scollon 1983, 2001; Ogiermann, 2009: 2). Individualistic cultures do not avoid communication; rather they positively confront conflicts (Ting-Toomey, 2005). The British usually adopt indirect speech act strategies and they use fewer direct request strategies. Example of indirectness used by

the British were introduced by Umar (2004), e.g. “Can you help me?”, “would you help me?” or “May you help me?”. Similarly, Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989) reported that Argentinean Spanish speakers used more direct request compared to their British counterparts. As to apology, the British tend to use unconventional apologetic formulas based on intensification of their apology (Marquez-Reiter, 2000).

The British do not tend to give direct refusal in the form of 'no' because it can hurt others' feelings. Therefore, they usually follow three steps for saying 'no', according to Carter (2017). The first step is to provide a justification or a concrete reason for an invitation refusal, for instance. If a British person normally goes out twice a week and then he/she is asked to do it for the third time, he/she will be prepared to say “I only meet people during the workday for lunch or coffee two times per week”. The second step is called “I'm already booked strategy” which can be fulfilled in different ways, such as: 1. Vague and effective, e.g. “Thank you for asking, but that isn't going to work out for me”; 2. Expressing gratitude, e.g. “Thank you so much for your enthusiasm and support! I'm sorry; I'm not able to help you at this time”; 3. Giving a future promise, e.g. “None of those dates work for me, but I would love to see you. Send me some more dates.” Or shifting the responsibility to someone else, e.g. "I promised my coach (therapist, husband, etc.) I wouldn't take on any more projects right now. I'm working on creating more balance in my life”. The third step is referred to as 'do not look back strategy'. For example, the British can think of the benefits gained from declining an invitation, such as having a rest instead of going to the party.

2.3.2 Contextual Variables and Saudi Culture

The concept of face appears to be central to the Saudi notion of politeness. Saudi culture appears to have some face saving strategies which do not exist in the Western cultures. For examples, Saudis usually exchange congratulations after acts like; hair cutting, beard shaving, shower taking, performance of pilgrimage and minor pilgrimage, as well as after fasting or performance of prayers. Failing to express congratulation on such occasions can be classified as impolite. These are face threatening acts because such occasions call for congratulations in Arab cultures and specifically in Saudi Arabia. So people normally expect to be congratulated on these occasions and failure to do so threatens the positive face. In these cases, this means that you are not concerned with people's feelings; a matter that can cause them to be embarrassed. This can be

captured within Brown and Levinson's framework because the action of congratulation saves the H's positive face. The centrality of face to Saudi culture is also apparent in the fact that it is almost impossible to say 'no'. Saudis tend to protect their integrity as individuals and the positive faces of the speakers. Therefore, they seldom use 'no' to express refusal. They tend instead to say 'yes' which does not mean agreement but rather 'possibly' (Danielewicz-Betz and Mamidi, 2009).

In Saudi culture, politeness is a culturally defined concept and is based on the face concept. For Saudis, politeness is manifested in showing intolerance towards criticism and preserving positive face at any price. Thus, being critical to other individuals' ideas or giving a blunt refusal to their requests are impolite acts that threaten people's positive face. Instead, expression of goodwill and polite flattery are encouraging acts in the Saudi culture. Thus, it is a polite norm to start communication with questions about health and family, and criticism should be avoided regardless of the social power because in Saudi culture criticism is an equivalent to insult. As such, before making any negative remarks, Saudis often mention good characteristics first, and they should criticise in an indirect way while asserting high respect for the individual being criticised. As such, Saudi culture does not accept the concept of constructive criticism; instead it emphasises the use of words of appreciation and respect. This is evident in their expression of praise and appreciation in workplace emails (Danielewicz-Betz and Mamidi, 2009).

A model of Saudi pragmatic politeness was proposed by Danielewicz-Betz and Mamidi (2009) on mainly referring to over-politeness principles. The model was based on the modification of Lakoff's (1973) pragmatic competence rules; Grice's (1975) and Leech's (1983) principles in a way that focuses on the over-politeness rules in order to suit Saudi culture. This proposed model accommodates Brown and Levinson's notion of positive face. The modification was inevitable because Saudis' linguistic and socio-pragmatic behaviour follows certain conversation rules closely aligned with strategies of face management. Their over-polite behaviour is demonstrated in praising, giving compliments, expressing positive opinions, exerting friendship and generosity. Saudis' over-politeness can also be detected in their avoidance of contradiction, confrontation and criticism, particularly in public, and avoidance of expressing negative opinions. Saudi cultural norms totally disapprove impolite utterances which threaten the hearer's positive face. The over-politeness rules embodied in the Saudi culture are as follows (Danielewicz-Betz and Mamidi, *ibid.*):

1. Do not show fake politeness

2. Avoid imposing your opinion
3. Avoid contradiction and confrontation
4. Avoid criticising, correcting or questioning other people's competence
5. Never say 'No' but express positive opinion instead based on the 'Inshallah' (God willing) principle
6. Be friendly, generous and give compliments

In Saudi culture, the strategies of face management are mainly concerned with positive face; whereas negative face has no role in the collectivistic and fatalism oriented Saudi culture (Danielewicz-Betz and Mamidi, *ibid.*). This is attributed to the fact that negative face exists in independent and individualistic cultures where individuals have privacy and believe in control of their fates. That is, no interference occurs in an individual's privacy and he/she is free to make a decision. In Saudi culture, face saving rule is attributed to the ethical behaviour which determines appropriateness. On the contrary, face loss poses threats to Saudis' dignity, leading them to deny statements that oppose their claims. In addition, Saudi culture employs the norms of polite flattery and indirectness where Saudis always express their good intentions instead of criticising others. The concept of politeness in Saudi culture is compatible with the face concept. Saudis also tend to avoid blunt refusal of requests. In this regard, Saudis usually avoid the direct use of 'No' which is mainly a face threatening act. They rather apply the affirmative response of 'Inshallah'. In this regards, Saudis use 'Inshallah' in an opposite way from its original meaning.

Danielewicz-Betz (2016) discusses various pragmatic functions of 'Inshallah', such as indirect refusal: in an example where the aunt wants her niece to stop doing something annoying and the niece instead of saying 'no' says 'Inshallah' while rolling her eyes away from her aunt in an indication of disagreement (Danielewicz-Betz, 2016:31). The employee, in an example of indirect postponement, does not directly say that he cannot meet the deadline for a report. Instead, he uses 'Inshallah' indicating that he will do his best but if the report is incomplete it is related to God's will which does not help him in completing the report. Based on my observations, this indicates the religious-oriented way of thinking not only among Saudis but among Arab Muslims in general, including Jordanians and Egyptians working in Saudi Arabia.

When executing a threat, 'Inshallah' is used sarcastically to indicate intention of carrying out an exaggerated and unserious threat. So in Danielewicz-Betz's (2016:31) example the older brother uses 'Inshallah' towards his younger brother:

"Older brother (during a fight): If you ever touch my things again, I will kill you.

Younger brother: Pfft, consider them touched and broken.

Older brother: 'Inshallah they are'. *Smiles sarcastically*.

'Inshallah' can further be used in a sarcastic tone to show disbelief or disagreement, e.g. when the son sarcastically expresses his disagreement with his father's opinion that the economy will be flourishing by using the religious expression 'Inshallah' (Danielewicz-Betz, 2016:31-32):

Father: This economy is getting flushed down the toilet.

Adult son: They sure know how to mess up a perfectly good thing.

Father: Well, the new plan looks promising. Maybe they'll be worth their words.

Moreover, Saudi culture, which is partially power oriented, places emphasis on the order of social hierarchy as subordinate people at work, in offices or at the university, for instance, should obey and pay due respect to those who are in higher positions. For example, if a Saudi employee makes a critical comment directed this at her Saudi employer in public, the employee will be fired sooner or later as a punishment of his/her socially un accepted behaviour. At Saudi universities, it is unacceptable to address the teaching staff by using their first names because it may indicate disrespect to the staff. Therefore, unsurprisingly, in social interaction in the Saudi society, superiors' requests are imperatively formed as direct orders and instructions. In this regard, Tawalbeh and Al-Oqaili (2012) showed that in high-low situations Saudis tended to use direct request strategies whichever the request weight may be. In addition, the Saudi society compared to other Arab societies is more collectivistic (Hofstede, 1991, 53-54). In other words, Saudis are committed to the cultural norms and values of their society. Collectivists like Saudis usually feel disassociated when they communicate with foreigners. Especially, Saudis may take longer to warm up when talking to people of different cultural background, as opposed to interacting with other Arab nationals, even though it could be their first meeting.

People in collectivistic cultures tend to avoid communication when perceiving a conflict; they rather passively withdraw from a conflict to save their face in order not to cause embarrassment (Wang, 2006; Walker, 2014). Therefore, studies on politeness in Arab culture (Umar 2006; Nureddeen 2008) have revealed that Arabs usually adopt strategies of positive politeness compared to their counterparts of different cultural backgrounds. Arabs usually use direct speech act strategies when they are in a higher power than their interlocutors. They tend to use indirect speech acts strategies when they are in lower positions compared to their

interlocutors. In positive politeness societies like Saudi society and other Arab societies, interlocutors comfortably talk to each other; they may hug or hold hands (among males), which is a normal practice. These are considered as indicators of intimacy and close social relationship and are classified as positive politeness since they all reinforce social harmony and rapport among the Saudis. Thus, they are consistent with the Saudi politeness principles proposed by Danielewicz-Betz and Mamidi, 2009.

Saudi and Arab in general, speech act behaviour (as in inviting, offering, greeting) is always marked as exaggerated. This exaggeration may be considered impolite from a European perspective, but it is a sign of politeness also when it comes to the Chinese, as explained earlier (Mills et al. 2015). The strategy of exaggeration while performing a speech act is described by Brown and Levinson (1987: 102) as 'exaggerate interest, approval, and sympathy with H'. Furthermore, Saudis prefer the use of direct speech act strategies. For instance, compared to indirect request strategies adopted by American speakers of English, Saudis use direct request strategies in situations of equal social power and close social relationship among friends. The use of direct request strategies by Saudis is not viewed as impolite but rather polite behaviour as it indicates close social relationship and camaraderie (Tawalbeh and Al-Oqaily, 2012). As mentioned earlier, apology is regarded as a face threatening act, so in a positive politeness oriented society like Saudi, people tend to avoid providing verbal apology, but rather they may give food as a gesture of apologising (Ogiermann, 2009b). Such an apologetic behaviour was explained by Nureddeen (2008) in relation to Brown and Levinson's term 'opting out'. As such Saudis pay much attention to preserving their positive face; they may avoid apologising even though the act poses little threat to their face (Al-Qahtani, 2009). Saudis also adopt direct and positive politeness strategies when their interlocutors are equal or lower in power. When the interlocutors have higher power, Saudis show great deference to the hearer (Qahtani 2009; Morkus 2009; Jebahi 2011).

2.3.3 Contextual Variables and Chinese Culture

In Chinese, many of the observations made by (Gu, 1990) can be translated into the notion of face. The Chinese believe in politeness in a sanctioned way where the individual should elevate himself or herself to the expected respect, warm-based attitudes, humility, and improvement of behaviour (Gu, 1990, 1993; Song, 2012). Instead of Leech's politeness principle,

Gu proposed that Chinese politeness should be measured in terms of the viewpoints of social norms and not of psychological needs. Chinese cultural views of politeness are both normative and instrumental. Face losing may occur among Chinese speakers when they do not meet the social standards representing the expectations or the wants of Chinese society (Gu, 1990: 242). Brown and Levinson (1987) classified Chinese culture under the negative face concept. However, Gu (1990), as explained earlier, objected to this classification because in the Chinese culture the notion of negative face is normative (i.e. agreed upon norms by Chinese society) but for Brown and Levinson it refers to the wants. Gu explained that protection of negative face in the Chinese culture subjects to social criteria, but Brown and Levinson referred to the negative face protection in terms of what the individuals want.

There have only been a few previous studies on apology strategies used by the Chinese and Saudis in relation to their L1s; Xiang 2007; and Al Sulayyi, 2016. Hence, there is a research gap in how apology is perceived and realised in the Chinese and Saudi cultures. A review study of the development of Chinese pragmatics was conducted by Taguchi (2105), addressing various aspects such as studying abroad, politeness and pragmatic instruction. The main aspect reviewed by Taguchi in this context was how the Chinese pragmatics can be explained according to Brown and Levinson's politeness theory, a topic of direct relevance to this thesis. Taguchi (2105) reported that face plays an essential role in Chinese politeness. Chinese speakers tend to protect each other's face and their speech acts performance is mainly based on face protection. The inviting speech act, for instance, depends on mitigations like "only" as in "It is only a casual dinner" in order to protect the inviter's face and lessen the imposition on the part of the invitee. As such, when the invitee refuses the invitation, he/she gives reasons, thus indicating care for the inviter in order to protect the inviter's face as well. This finding is very significant to the present study, which mainly focuses on the concept of face in its adoption of the politeness theory as its theoretical framework. Chinese people do not like to contradict others and therefore one of their cultural habits is to say "yes" for "no" based on their cultural principle of "contrary-to-face-value communication" (e.g. Mao, 1996: 259). Another dimension of Chinese culture is embodied in their polite behaviour which is attributed to their perception of power status, self-esteem and estimation of others and the social familiarity indicating the social relationship among people (Pan, 2000:5). These cultural dimensions are collectively embodied values and norms in the Chinese culture which individuals should observe and follow. Furthermore, Chinese employ

strategies of politeness in accordance to formal or informal social contexts (Kadar and Pan, 2011). This dimension is universal in the sense that Chinese people are culturally committed to apply politeness in their interactional communication. This is important to the present study as its theoretical framework is based on the concept of face. The Chinese usually observe their collective sociocultural norms and values. Social contexts strongly influence the adopted Chinese politeness strategies.

The contrary-to-face Chinese cultural value and their perception of the familiarity and power social variables can help justify the choice of the Chinese participants' apologetic strategies and will account for variation of responses according to different situations and scenarios of various social familiarity and power scenarios in the present study. In addition, Chinese cultural heritage challenges the negative face views. Chinese speakers do not communicate in an independent and autonomous manner; neither do they communicate in an isolation of their social norms and traditions (Yu, 2003:20). In this regard, the Chinese communication patterns are based on the principle of Confucianism. That is, all the community members should associate themselves with their society as a whole in order to realise the concept of a homogeneous community. This is regarded as one of the features distinguishing the Chinese culture from other cultures. Hence, Chinese culture is a uniquely systemised culture, which all members of the Chinese community adhere to, whether internally at home or when dealing with foreigners.

This finding, I believe, is significant to my thesis as it reflects the Chinese adherence to their cultural values, which in turn controls their pragmatic responses. The Chinese cultural values like other Asian (Korean, Japanese, Malaysian, etc.) values are sacred to the members of the Chinese community because these values usually shape the personal traits of the Chinese people. Therefore, they represent useful guidelines for the interpretation of the present study's results. This intellectual tradition contradicts the principle of individualism embraced by Western communities. Therefore, Chinese culture is controversial in the light of Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness. Although Chinese culture shares the objectives of politeness theory, it adopts different processes of politeness. Chinese culture instils politeness as a social norm existing in Chinese society in contrary to the politeness theory which describes politeness formula among the community members in accordance with social power, distance and imposition (Lin, 2014: 642). I therefore believe that it is interesting in this regard to interpret the

results of the Chinese responses in the present study either in the simple Discourse Completion Task (DCT) or the open role plays within the framework of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory in order to decide whether or not such findings are problematic for that theory.

2.4 Apology Strategies Employed by Saudi and Chinese Learners of English

2.4.1 Saudi Apology Strategies

Differences between Saudi teachers and British native speakers of English in expressing apology were investigated by Al Sulayyi (2016). The study questioned such differences from a cultural perspective. I believe that this study is methodologically significant to the present study. While Al Sulayyi (2016) elicited data of apology strategies from DCT only, the current study data collection instruments were not only restricted to DCT but also extended to open role plays and interviews. Hence, the present study is distinguished from that of Al Sulayyi (2016) in its various instruments of data collection, offering a broader scope of data analysis compared to Al Sulayyi (*ibid.*). Another important methodological difference between these studies exists in the coding schemes of the apology strategies. The present study offers different coding scheme from that adopted in Al Sulayyi's study.

As to the differences in use of apology strategies between Saudi teachers and the British native speakers, Al Sulayyi (*ibid.*) concluded that IFID is the apology strategy mostly used by the Saudi respondents, followed by downgrading responsibility, upgrader, offer of repair, taking on responsibility, and then verbal redress. Downgrading strategies are the most frequently used strategies by native speakers in general, followed by IFID, taking on responsibility, upgrader, offer of repair and verbal redress which comes last. The NS tended to use an IFID strategy (53%) less than their Saudi counterparts (79%) in expressing t apology. Whereas the IFID strategy is the most frequently used apology strategy by the Saudi respondents, it comes second for native speakers. The mean score of using an IFID strategy by the native speakers is 15.9 compared to 23.8 for the Saudi respondents (Al Sulayyi, *ibid.*).

This finding is significant to the expected descriptive results of the use of apology strategies by the Saudi participants in the present study. A comparison between Al Sulayyi's (*ibid.*) findings (not only the above mentioned one but also the following ones) and those expected of the present study is crucial in order to provide a thorough description of how Saudis express apology in accordance to their L1 culture. This finding is significant to the analysis of the

current study data because the present study aims at verifying the use of IFID strategies among Saudi participants through the frequency analysis.

The usage of apology strategies by both Saudi and British respondents discussed above is similar to the results of Abu-Humei's study (2013) where respondents adopted an upgrader strategy combined with other strategies like IFID followed by explanation and/or justification. The native speakers have a higher percentage of using upgrader strategies (36.3%) than their Saudi counterparts (34%). It is remarkable that the native speakers are keener on adopting 'taking on responsibility' (TOR) strategies than their Saudi counterparts. Whereas TOR strategies hold a third place among apology strategies adopted by native speakers, they rank fifth among apology strategies employed by the Saudis. In the first instance, this prevalence can be attributed to the language ability that enables the native speakers to vary their strategies between self-blame, lack of intent, and admission of fact.

This finding is significant to the present study in the sense that it helps compare its finding not only to Al Sulayyi's (2016) findings but also to those reported by Abu-Humei (2013). I predict that the present study participants were able to develop better language proficiency because of their stay in the UK, compared to the Saudi participants of the 2016 study. Thus, they will be demonstrating the use of more forms expressing TOR in an almost equal way to the native speakers. In contrast, the high TOR percentage for Saudi respondents occurred in situations that reflect low-high power between the offender and the victim regardless of their social acquaintance. I hypothesise that Saudi participants will have high frequency of using TOR in the situations of low-high power. Because of language proficiency, the British used varied apology strategies compared to Saudis. There is a prediction in the current study that Saudi participants are able to use more apology strategies compared to Saudis in the 2016 study because of their stay in the UK.

These findings resembled those of a study undertaken by Murad (2012) in which the Arab students showed the highest percentage of taking responsibility for their offences towards their lecturers. The results of Saudi respondents also reflected the influence of their culture on choosing the appropriate apology strategy. This outcome was similar to that reported by Farashaiyan and Amirkhiz (2011). Furthermore, it is the type of social distance that affects the adoption of the downgrading responsibility (DR) strategy by native speakers; a matter that reflects the cultural impact of British society with its norms and values. That is, the British

adopted this strategy whenever there was close social distance with the victims. The result of using offers of repair is attributed to Arab values and norms that assert offers of compensation on the part of the offender to the victim in order to mitigate guilt towards the victim (Nureddeen 2008; Abu-Humei 2013). In terms of severity of offence, it was found that the types of social distance rather than the level of power were responsible for the adoption of offers of repair strategies by both the Saudis and native speakers. That is, respondents of both groups are more likely to adopt this strategy when they have close social relationships, which is a reflection of their cultural background. This finding indicates cultural similarity between Saudi and British participants. The selection of this strategy aims at maintaining close social relations between the offenders and the victims of offence.

In terms of severity of offence, English native speakers are found to have the highest percentage of using verbal redress strategies when there is a distant social relation and equal power between the apologisee and the victim. The Saudi and British respondents were similar in using the verbal redress strategy when equal power and distant social relations exist, but they differ in using it in other situations of other levels of social power and distance indicating cultural contradiction between the Saudis and the British. This result was in contrast to that reported by Bergman and Kasper (1993). This finding of using 'offer of repair' and 'verbal redress' is significantly pertinent to the present study in the sense that it culturally accounts for the adoption of such apology strategies by Saudis and will help describe the influence of social power and distance on the Saudi used expressions of apology. I believe that Al Sulayyi's (2016) study is theoretically significant to the ILP literature in general and to the present study in particular since it discusses the topic of Saudi expression of apology strategies.

2.4.2 Chinese Apology Strategies

Different use of apology strategies between British and Mandarin Chinese speakers of English was investigated by Xiang (2007) in the light of their cross-cultural differences. This study's main aim was to account for the differences between Chinese and British participants in using apology strategies. In my opinion, Xiang's study is significant to his thesis because it delineated how the Chinese chose and used apology expressions. Furthermore, Xiang accounted for the reason why non-native speakers of English perceive apology strategies differently from the English native speakers because of their cultural backgrounds. In contrast to the English,

Chinese used direct apology strategies due to the high efficiency of imposition because the Chinese society is a hierarchical one. The implicit apology strategies adopted by the Mandarin Chinese are highly affected by social distance and power. The Chinese, in contrast to the British, view apology as a 'face-losing' act. This explains why the Chinese find it easier to express their apologies by using the English word 'sorry' without any psychological effect reflected on their faces than when saying it in their mother tongue. This means that it would be easier for the Chinese participants to use the apology strategy 'sorry' when responding to the DCT and open role play situations. In this way, the Chinese differ from the British in using distinct apology strategies. This study is important to the current study because it describes how the Chinese choose and use apology expressions. Contrary to the British, the Chinese view apology as a 'face-losing' act. Therefore, it is easy for them to express apology by saying 'sorry' in English.

This implies that the Chinese have less perception of the word 'sorry' when they say it in English, but the greatest perception of this word, which leads to face loss, when they say it in L1. That is, for Chinese it is easy to say 'sorry' in English rather than expressed in the Chinese language. These points to a cultural difference between the British and the Chinese, as saying 'sorry' in English culture is a normal matter, while to the Chinese it may lead to misunderstanding. In contrast to the individualist-oriented British culture, the apology strategies used by the Chinese reflect their collectivist culture (Xiang, 2007). In this regard, Xiang (2007:278) quoted the apology conceptualisation of one of the Chinese participants:

"If you've really done something wrong, something quite serious, you would apologise. Apology actually relates to face, your face and you feel you are losing face when you say sorry. Chinese people pay a lot of attention to face. If you apologise, it means you've done something wrong and you've made a mistake. In terms of two people's relationship, you would feel you owe the other person something. From a psychological perspective, you feel regret. From the perspective of face, you feel embarrassed and you feel you've lost face".

I believe that Xiang's (2007) findings are theoretically significant to the application of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory when explaining the Chinese adoption of implicit apology strategies and to the real life applications. Furthermore, the cultural difference of using the apologetic expression of 'sorry' motivated me to distinguish in the present study's coding scheme between 'sorry' as a category by itself and 'I'm sorry' as an IFID since the mere use of 'sorry' reveals indifference and sounds dismissing on the part of the offender. Shortly, there are

cultural differences between the British and the Chinese in saying 'sorry'. The use of apology strategies by the Chinese reflects their collectivist culture. This is theoretically important to applying Brown and Levinson's politeness theory. There is a difference between coding 'sorry' as a strategy by itself and classifying it under IFID strategies.

2.5 Summary

Chapter two has reviewed the development of politeness theories in first language (L1), particularly the principles/maxims of Lakoff (1973), Grice (1975), Leech (1983), Gu (1990), and Brown and Levinson, as well as the notion of face, Brown and Levinson's concept of negative and positive face, face threatening acts,, Danielewicz-Betz and Mamidi (2009) Saudi principles and L1 culture, including familiarity, social power and imposition. A discussion of politeness maxims and principles general, Chinese and Saudi principles has also been provided. I have accounted for the decision of choosing Brown and Levinson's politeness theory as a theoretical framework for the current study. Whereas the British L1 culture is classified as an individualism-oriented one, both the Chinese and Saudi L1 cultures are viewed as collectivistic societies.

This chapter has contrasted and compared apology strategies and classifications of apology strategies, including illocutionary force indicating device (IFID), upgrader, taking on responsibility, downgrading responsibility or severity of the offence, offers of repair, verbal redress, providing a summary of the previous research on apology strategies. It has reviewed the cultural variation in speech acts; the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Patterns (CCSARP), contextual variables in the British culture, contextual variables in the Chinese culture, contextual variables in the Saudi culture, as well as reviewed literature on the Chinese and Saudi apology strategies, Chinese used apology strategies, and Saudi used apology strategies.

Chapter Three will explore the relationship between theories of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), L2 Pragmatics, and Interlanguage Pragmatics. It will review existing studies on the apology strategies of the Chinese and Saudi speakers of English.

Chapter Three: Politeness and Apologies in L2 Pragmatics

3. Overview

In Chapter two, I introduced politeness and considered ways of classifying apology strategies. In this chapter, I shift my focus to the relationship between theories of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and the study of pragmatics, and the functions of pragmatics in SLA. Chapter three comprises of four sections. Section one, which deals with theoretical approaches, is divided into four sub-sections covering the major approaches: (i) theoretical frameworks for the study of L2 pragmatics acquisition (adapted from Brown and Levinson's 1987 politeness theory discussed in Chapter two); (ii) cross-cultural pragmatics or transcultural pragmatics (see, e.g., Cohen and Olshtain, 1983); (iii) intercultural pragmatics (e.g. Keszkes, 2014), and (iv) interlanguage pragmatics (e.g. Barron, 2003). Section two discusses the influential factors affecting L2 pragmatic competence, such as: (i) L2 proficiency (e.g. Xinkun (2006); (ii) environment (e.g. Schauer, 2009), and (iii) L2 pragmatic instruction (e.g. Bardovi-Harlig and Vellenga, 2012). Section three reviews the impact of L1 cultural transfer on L2 pragmatic output and is further divided into three sub-sections: (i) studies on cultures other than Saudi and Chinese (e.g. Nureddeen, 2008); (ii) studies on Saudi L1 transfer and culture (e.g. Qari, 2017); and (iii) studies on Chinese L1 transfer and culture (e.g. Xiang, 2007). Section four reviews some significant studies on the influence of attitude and usage of English learning on the adoption of L2 pragmatic norms.

3.1 Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and L2 Pragmatics Theories

The study of pragmatics in relation to SLA has largely been focused on accounting for what Thomas (1983) calls 'pragmatic failures'. These can arise due to a lack of awareness of the social norms and sociocultural conventions governing L2 use. The understanding of speech acts entails sound comprehension of verbal and non-verbal cues, but the expression of speech acts should also be compatible with the social rules of formality, politeness, and directness, according to social contexts (Taguchi and Roever, 2017). The pragmatic context encompasses various features such as how related the interlocutors to each other are their roles, the social setting (where the situation occurs), and previous discourse.

The function of pragmatics can be defined from a SLA perspective. Pragmatics refers to two distinct aspects of SLA: (i) the acquisition of linguistic forms and (ii) the use of L2

knowledge for communicative purposes. The linguistic form refers to conventional expressions like 'I'd love to', 'my pleasure', 'would you mind if', and 'could'. The L2 knowledge for communicative purposes is known as ILP. While the use of ILP is interactive in nature, second language acquisition is not necessarily. SLA studies have focused on how non-native speakers acquire and use L2 pragmatic knowledge (Kasper and Rose, 1999; and Bardovi-Harlig, 2018). Knowledge of linguistic forms and how to use them in various social contexts is one of the components of L2 pragmatic competence. The linguistic forms help perform a given speech act. In direct speech acts, the meaning is obvious, so it is in imperatives. However, in indirect speech acts, there is no direct relation between the literal meaning and what is actually meant by the utterance. For example, the direct imperative request in "Give me the pen" differs from the indirect interrogatory request "Can you give me the pen?". The indirect request does not question the ability of giving the pen, but is rather asking for the pen indirectly. The appropriate use of language should be subject to the determinants of social familiarity and power which govern the linguistic choices during communication. For instance, the production of FTAs like apology and request requires making appropriate choice of linguistic forms, which in turn depends on the social familiarity and power relations. For instance, these relations affect the directness of the speech act and the use of mitigators such as 'so, terribly, very plus sorry' (Langer, 2011 and Zufferey, 2016).

Just as there has been a change in how pragmatics is viewed, there has also been a change in the definition of pragmatics in the context of L2 over time. Initially, it was viewed as relating to deixis, conversational implicatures, speech acts, presuppositions, and the structure of conversation (Levinson, 1983). The focus on these elements described by Levinson was changed as some of these elements were rarely studied. Conversely, in the realm of ILP, there has been a focus primarily on speech acts, implicatures and the structure of conversation. Meanwhile, deixis and presupposition have been seldom studied from an ILP perspective. Another change in pragmatics was the SLA view of it. Second language Acquisition views pragmatics from a cognitive perspective, as a way of adding another dimension to the understanding of pragmatics.

Conversation management and organisation are used in the present study in the light of the Saudi and Chinese's choices to express apology in replying to the role play situations. These situations contain various social aspects of familiarity, power and imposition. In addition, the present study looks into L1 influence on L2 pragmatic output of the Saudi and Chinese

respondents' apology responses. The factor of L1 influence on L2 pragmatic transfer was discussed in various studies which affirmed its vital role in affecting the L2 pragmatic output as shown in (Kasper, 1992; Kasper and Bulka, 1993; and Bardovi-Harlig, 2013). There are various views of pragmatics related to discourse and conversation management, and sociolinguistics (Mey, 1993; Crystal, 1997 and Bardovi-Harlig, 2013). Second language pragmatics is a branch of second language acquisition. It is viewed in relation to discourse and conversation management and organisation (Mey, 1993: 315; Crystal 1997:301). That is, how language users view language, what choices they make in using the language, which problems they face in using the language, and how the way they use the language affect their interlocutors. The sociolinguistic aspects studied under ILP include the management of conversation, the organisation of discourse, and the choice of address forms (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013). In spite of the fact that pragmatics nowadays is regarded as an independent field, as it was originally associated with sociolinguistics. Studies in L2 pragmatics were initially published in sociolinguistics and TESOL periodicals in the 1980s. In such studies, Schmidt (1983), for example, handled the use of speech acts from the perspective of sociolinguistic competence. The cognitive ways L2 learners comprehend, acquire, and produce L2 pragmatic knowledge relate L2 pragmatics to psycholinguistics, that is L2 pragmatic output is based on how L2 learners understand and perform linguistic actions in L2. This understanding reveals the influence of L1 linguistic knowledge on the L2 pragmatic output, which can be characterised with L1 linguistic features known as L1 pragmatic transfer (Kasper, 1992). It is a demonstration of how people view language, as well as the choice they make of language in conversation.

The EFL learners' pragmatic competence is viewed in the present study in terms of the ability of Saudi and Chinese participants to utilise apology strategies in different social situations. Thus, I draw on Bella (2012) regarding their proper apology production, and evaluate their production taking such factors affecting L2 acquisition into consideration as environment (Kasper and Schmidt 1996; Bardovi-Harlig 1999; Kasper and Rose 1999), as explained below. ILP is mainly concerned with the verification of the ESL and EFL learners' pragmatic competence, which refers to their ability to use different language functions in various contexts and situations. In other words, this field mainly focuses on the pragmatic performance and proper use of speech acts (Bella, 2012). The focus of ILP is on using the second language. For this purpose, ILP studies compare L2 learners' pragmatic output to that of native speakers, particularly in relation to speech

acts. For example, several studies have dealt with pragmatics from an L2 acquisition perspective (Kasper and Schmidt 1996; Bardovi-Harlig 1999; Kasper and Rose 1999; and Taguchi, 2015). These studies have addressed such L2 acquisition issues as comparing L1 acquisition to that of L2, comparing pragmatics to other areas of linguistics, and individual factors, including how instruction and environment affect L2 pragmatic production.

Kasper and Rose (2002) reported on a prominent study of pragmatics in relation to L2 acquisition, asserting that L2 learners should be aware and conscious of the complex layers of interaction that exist in language use and the significance of the social context in which it is used. Such awareness is essential for the acquisition of L2 pragmatics. This type of consciousness and awareness is tested in the present study in relation to the Saudi and Chinese participants' developmental use of apology strategies and the influence of social variables on their L2 pragmatic competence development. Here, the ILP is used as a code of verification to measure the ESL and EFL learners' pragmatic competence.

3.1.1 Theoretical Frameworks for the Study of L2 Pragmatics Acquisition

Theories of L2 learning served as guidance for early studies on L2 pragmatics. Those studies were based on Grice's maxims to investigate how L2 learners comprehend implicatures (e.g. Boutun, 1992); Brown and Levinson's politeness theory to investigate how L2 learners acquire politeness strategies (e.g. Olshtain and Blum-Kulka, 1985); and speech act theory to examine the pragma-linguistic and socio-pragmatic features of L2 learners' communicative production of speech acts (e.g. Achiba, 2002). All these studies were based on cross-sectional formats; revealing absence of any developmental theory (i.e. they did not investigate acquisition of L2 pragmatic competence on longitudinal basis at different stages). This eventually led to the emergence of longitudinal studies, which examined L2 learners' knowledge of pragmatics at different stages (Schmidt, 1983; Takahashi and Dufon, 1989, and Ellis 1992). Methodologically, L2 pragmatic studies initially relied on L2 learning theories. There are three main theoretical approaches to the study of L2 pragmatics: (i) cross-cultural; (ii) intercultural and (iii) interlanguage pragmatics. In this section, these selective language theories are chosen, based on their relevance to this research, and they are reviewed below.

3.1.2 Cross-cultural pragmatics or transcultural pragmatics

A model for cross-cultural pragmatic studies through the Cross Cultural Study of the Speech Act Realisation Patterns (CCSARP) was created (see Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984). It was theoretically significant as it laid out the basis for the coding scheme of apology strategies, which are the focus of this thesis. The present study verifies the external validity of the apology strategies coding scheme proposed by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984). As such, it examines the significant contribution of the CCSARP to the theoretical frameworks of cross-cultural studies. Since English is a global language, most pragmatic studies have focused on the way native speakers of English use the speech act of apology (e.g. Holmes, 1990; Tamanaha, 2003, Cohen and Shively 2007; Al-Zumor, 2011; Abu-Humei, 2013).

CCSARP model is used in the present study to code different apology speech acts. I have reviewed and compared various coding schemes (see Chapter two) to determine similarities and differences among them and then to devise the model of apology strategies used in the present study. Such new strategies as 'silence', 'sorry' and 'apparently unrelated response' were devised by the researcher and used for coding the Saudi and Chinese' responses to the DCT and role play situations (see Chapter four). Cross-cultural studies are interested in how social variables influence pragmatics. What is the effect of 'social context' on utterances and verbal communication (as measured by the most widely discussed and tested variables; social distance, power, and imposition)? These social variables are the most influential and significant contributors affecting the linguistic choices learners make when they employ indirect patterns of speech acts (Brown and Levinson, 1978).

Although these studies compared L1 behaviour, we can infer from the publications on ILP that there are substantial differences across various L1s for the purpose of separation of L1s from L2s. This is the framework that I adopt in the present study. This framework is highly dependent on the contextual variables of which different L1 speakers (like the Saudi and Chinese participants of the present study) may have different perceptions. Social context is vital to the interpretation of verbal communication (e.g. Blum-Kulka, 1997; Kasper and Rose, 2001). The influence of social and contextual variables on the choice of indirect and/or direct speech acts employed in different social situations is manifest. Based on the influential model of politeness proposed by Brown and Levinson (1978; 1987) (as introduced in Chapter 2), social distance (D), social power (P), and imposition of the request speech acts (R) are the most significant and influential social variables which determine ESL learners' linguistic choices of speech acts.

Face-threatening acts and indirect speech acts are exploited in the present study to measure how Saudi and Chinese' apology expressions were influenced by the the social distance, power and imposition. These social variables usually affect the directness of the speech act, as shown in Blum-Kulka and House, (1989) and Trosborg (1995; and Kogetsidis, 2010). They also affect the choice of linguistic forms as indicated by Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989). As such, the apology output of the Saudi and Chinese participants are being examined taking those three social variables into consideration. The influence of the social variables dwells on choosing the linguistic forms and the adoption of direct/indirect strategies in realising the contextually determined speech acts. In this regard, Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989) explain that cross-cultural pragmatic studies are mainly concerned with the pragmatic and linguistic strategies through which speech acts occur. The question is whether those strategies are available in all languages; how speakers differ in their linguistic choices because of the contextual factors, and which strategies vary across different cultures. As for the types of ILP studies, Kasper and Schmidt (1996) differentiated between two types of ILP studies: cross-sectional and longitudinal studies. As for the scope of ILP studies, it is divided into three types: cross-sectional studies, longitudinal studies, and studies on pragmatic transfer (Cai and Wang, 2013).

Cross-sectional versus longitudinal studies are two different types of ILP studies. The present study does not take the cross-sectional pattern into consideration and instead adopts the longitudinal model in order to fit the three stages of data collection and the research design of collecting data on three different occasions to judge the participants' development of L2 pragmatic competence. Nowadays, there are three types of studies in this field (i) cross-sectional studies, (ii) longitudinal studies, and (iii) studies on pragmatic transfer (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013; Cai and Wang, 2013). Cross-cultural studies focus on pragmatic and linguistic strategies used by L2 learners to realise different speech acts. The three types of ILP studies and studies on pragmatic transfer are discussed below. (i) Cross-sectional studies usually investigate how ESL learners of different proficiency levels use realisation strategies of different speech acts. For example, there was an examination of the strategies which Japanese ESL learners applied to perform the request speech acts (Takahashi and Dufon, 1989). Moreover, the use of refusal strategies by Japanese ESL learners was examined by Takashahi and Beebe (1987) and Robinson (1992). Whereas Maeshiba et al. (1996) investigated how Japanese ESL learners used apology

strategies. Trosborg (1987) looked into how the same speech acts are used by Danish learners of English.

The speech acts of people across cultures are examined to assess ESL learners' proficiency. The non-native realisation strategies of speech acts may use native-like speech act strategies adopted by the native speakers in spite of their proficiency levels. Indeed there are different views on the influence of proficiency level on L2 pragmatic output like these of Schmidt (1983), Takahashi and Dufon (1989), and Ellis (1992). In the present study, I intended to measure the influence of Saudi and Chinese participants' proficiency levels, embodied in their L2 linguistic competence, on their realisation of the apology speech act. This aim can be well fulfilled in a longitudinal study rather than a cross-sectional study.

All the studies mentioned above studies shared one finding, namely that non-native speakers could attain the same realisation strategies of different speech acts as their native counterparts, regardless of their proficiency levels. A chronological consideration of studies shows a development of the types of pragmatic studies from cross-sectional to longitudinal studies. Cross-sectional studies often examine the influence of L2 learners' proficiency levels on the realisation of different speech acts like refusal or apology. L2 learners can achieve satisfactory realisation of a given speech acts regardless of their L2 proficiency levels.(ii) As for longitudinal studies, pragmatic development was accounted for based on either L2 proficiency levels or length of stay in English-speaking countries. Japanese and Hebrew non-native speakers of English, for instance, developed direct strategies of the request due to their L2 proficiency levels (Takahashi and Dufon, 1989); while, the length of stay in an L2 native-speaking country led to development of L2 pragmatic competence (Olshtainand and Blum-Kulka, 1985; and Bardovi-Harlig, 2018). Knowledge of L2 pragmatics can be developed due to interactive communication with the native speakers. Schmidt (1983) reported that Wes (Japanese learner of English) tended to misuse the gerund form '-ing' as a request marker, as in "Please never taking this suitcase" and "Please, never thinking"(Schmidt, 2003: 152). Finally, Wes could use correct imperatives like "Ok, if you have time please send me the two hand-bags, but if you are too busy, forget it (Schmidt, 2003: 154). This example is significant because it shows that L2 pragmatic output can be successfully developed. Ellis (1992) observed one Pakistani and one Portuguese boy for one year and three months, respectively. The two boys were able to develop their L2 pragmatic production of request strategies; initially they used incomplete sentences to express directives like 'me no'. This

kind of interactive model offers a skill-testing approach for the non-native speakers of the English language.

An example of pragmatic development and pragmatic transfer was also provided Ellis (1992). Ellis found that L2 pragmatic output of request can be developed since L1-linguistics affected responses can be changed and developed over a period of time. This finding prompted my examination of apology responses of the Saudi and Chinese participants over three stages of data collection to determine the extent to which those responses are developed. I found that, gradually, their use of incomplete directives reduced over time; they also developed their use of direct and indirect request imperatives. Ellis (1992:16-17) gave such examples of pragmatic development use of request strategies "Can you pass me my pencil?" "Can I borrow your pen sir?" Thus, longitudinal studies usually reveal how the formulaic expressions adopted by L2 learners can develop over a period of time. The findings of this study lead us to expect a process of development of the formulaic expressions of apology used by the Saudi or Chinese participants. Evidently, longitudinal studies can be conducted on either L2 proficiency levels or the length of stay in English-speaking countries, where both can impact the development of L2 pragmatic competence and acquisition of a range of formulaic expressions over the time.

(iii) Pragmatic transfer refers to the use of L1 norms when communicating with native speakers of the L2. That is, L1 culture and pragmatic knowledge influence the understanding and production of L2 pragmatics. Pragmatic transfer often affects L2 learners' choice of linguistic forms and their assessment of the social distance, power, and imposition size between the speaker and the hearer. The effect of L1 pragmatic transfer can lead to socio-pragmatic failure in communicating with native speakers (Thomas, 1984; Bardovi-Harlig and Harford, 1990; Kasper, 1992). The duration of stay in an English speaking country and L2 proficiency levels as variables contribute to the development of L2 pragmatic knowledge. Some NNs may resort to their L1 norms for the purpose of communication in English. This is known as L1 pragmatic transfer.

3.1.3 Intercultural Pragmatics

Intercultural pragmatics includes studies on the communication between speakers of different L1s and cultures using a common language such as English. Intercultural pragmatics is similar to cross-cultural studies in that both emphasise the reciprocal roles of culture and language. That is, the role played by culture in determining how language is used and how

language use shapes culture as well (Taguchi and Roever, 2017). Cross-cultural pragmatics differs from intercultural pragmatics in that it studies the role of cultural norms and values in the process of communication among different language groups. For example, it is clarified how pragmatic strategies differ between Saudi and Chinese people because of their views on and practices of social power, familiarity and imposition. Knapp (2011) gave an example of cross-cultural miscommunication arising in this respect. An Indian student, fluent in English, wanted to appeal against his exclusion from a study group, so he decided, based on his L1 norms, to talk to the lecturer instead of talking to the fellow students. This attributed to the fact that in the Indian culture, the lecturer should exert authority over his/her students. This reveals misunderstanding of English cultural norms of interaction where the Indian student should appeal to his classmates and not to the lecturer. The main challenge of intercultural pragmatics is that NNs of different L1s and cultural norms typically use a common language for the purpose of communication. For communicative purposes in a multicultural setting, a common language is chosen to bridge the gap of communication barriers among speakers of different backgrounds.

The similarity between intercultural and cross-cultural studies exists in acknowledging the mutual role of language and culture. However, cross-cultural studies differ in that they study the impact of culture on communication among language communities. In the 1970s, Gumperz (1979) illustrated the intercultural pragmatics through a film about interethnic communication. It showed intercultural misunderstandings between people from South Asia and the British. In one example, an Indian applied for a library position in English, but he failed the interview, as he was not familiar with the British cultural norms. He did not provide direct answers to the questions posed by the interviewer. Nowadays, with the spread of international networks and multilingualism, intercultural communication has become one of the common aspects of daily-life activities. Therefore, pragmatics models should be modified to account for linguistic behaviour in relation to multilingual competence in multilingual environment (Kesckes, 2014). Standards of communicative pragmatics rely on the aspects shared by speakers and hearers, which cross-cultural studies cannot handle in the same way as intercultural pragmatics does.

These common aspects include intention, cooperation, beliefs, and knowledge. If these are absent in intercultural pragmatics, the interlocutors try to co-construct them in order to establish a temporary common background to avoid misunderstanding and miscommunication. As such, intercultural communication is based on the notion of intersubjectivity where language used in

communication may exceed the linguistic knowledge and frames of cultures. The intercultural studies show that the interlocutors negotiate communicative norms, communicative styles, and cultural norms, classified as polite and direct speech acts. In other words, either the interlocutors interpret utterances based on their knowledge and culture, or they may create new communicative standards. Overall, Gumperz (ibid.) provided examples of interculturally rooted misunderstanding through interethnic communication. Cross-cultural studies cannot encounter for standards of communicative pragmatics as the intercultural studies do due to the fact that intercultural studies investigate the common aspects shared by speakers and hearers. Avoidance of miscommunication in intercultural studies is related to establishing common backgrounds between the speakers and hearers.

3.1.4 Interlanguage Pragmatics

The use and acquisition of pragmatics, which is the essence of ILP, can be divided into six subcategories (Barron 2012):

- (i) How pragmatic competence is operationalized;
- (ii) How pragmatic competence is developed;
- (iii) Interlanguage transfer;
- (iv) The effect of grammatical competence on pragmatic competence;
- (v) The effect of routines on pragmatics use and acquisition;
- (vi) The effect of context on pragmatics use and acquisition.

Barron identified potential influences under the theme of L2 pragmatics use and acquisition, namely the investigated variables of this study: (i) L1 transfer, (ii) L1 culture, (iii) L2 linguistic competence, (iv) familiarity, social power and imposition, (v) environment, and (vi) instructions. She further divided L2 pragmatics pedagogy into the examination of ESL learners' pragmatic knowledge; determination of the social factors affecting ESL learners' pragmatic competence, and the teaching of NS pragmatic norms to ESL learners (Barron, 2012). In short, regardless to the L2 instructions, these factors should be addressed in the present study because they represent the independent variables whose influence on the development of the participants apology responses will be analysed and discussed.

In the present study, I examine the influence of these subcategories on the development of the Saudi and Chinese participants' L2 pragmatic competence. De Paiva (2006) found that the

social variables affect the choice of semantic formulas of Brazilian Portuguese learners. This effect will be examined in the present study to determine the influence of the three social variables on the Saudi and Chinese's choice of apology semantic formulas. Six subcategories of ILP studies were identified by Barron (2003). These subcategories highlight the impact of L1 culture and transfer on the development of L2 pragmatics. Other subcategories include the influence of environment, instruction, social variables and L2 proficiency levels. The semantic formula used in realising request in the Brazilian Portuguese were investigated in light of types of request strategies and how those strategies are appropriate to the socio-pragmatic competence of social relationships, dominance, and the two different types of imposition; mild or serious (De Paiva, 2006). The contextual variables were assessed based on politeness aspects and the use of mitigators in the request semantic formulas adopted by the two groups of participants. Participants were divided into two groups: (1) native speakers of Brazilian and (2) Brazilian Portuguese learners. As such there are certain similarities between the current study and that of De Paiva (2006).

Interviews and role plays are effective instrument for measuring the effect of contextual variables on politeness, as reported by De Paiva (2006). There are methodological similarities between that study and the present study, whether in the instruments used or in the construction of these instruments. The similarities are also extended to the analysis approach of the relationship between social variables and politeness. These similarities are related to the dependence on the politeness aspects of analysing the contextual variables, on the one hand, and the use of some methodological instruments of data collection (interviews and role plays), on the other hand. In addition, similarity between these two studies is extended to the methods of data analysis in terms of using frequencies of the used request and apology strategies. Both studies altered certain common situations. As to the present study, these changes are explained in detail in Chapter four. De Paiva (2006) changed the use of a question like "Are you free tomorrow?" into a form of request in the 'car loan' 'scenario'. For instance, De Paiva (2006:124) provides the following example with its translation:

E2: Hi Gabriel everything alright?

S: Hi everything alright?

E: Gabriel I will need to move ah ahn my ahn computer

I think that you have a car

Eh are you ahn free tomorrow?

S: at what time do you need it?

Henceforth, De Paiva, (2006) examined the semantic formulas which Brazilian Portuguese used to realise the request speech act. Her examination was based on the influence of social variables and politeness. This study is similar to the present study in the modification of some common expressions to suit request, as the current study did in altering some scenarios to suit apology (for further details, see Chapter four). De Paiva' (2006) results suggest similarity between native and non-native participants in using request strategies whereby the request preparatory strategies are favoured. However, the distribution of request strategies vary between the two groups based on their cultural orientations. In spite of the use of similar request preparatory strategies by native speakers and learners, all learners with different proficiency levels did not use conventionalised expressions like "Would it be possible...?", which affected request certainty.

The cognitive factors of processing, perception and noticing should be incorporated in the ILP studies in order to account for pragma-linguistic and sociolinguistic constraints of realising L2 pragmatic speech acts. The developmental process of L2 pragmatics involves complex processes of interaction, and not merely accumulative factors. These include overproduction of routine expression, attention getters, and L2 learners' feedback. For instance, request strategies vary according to the social distance between native and non-native participants. That is, the greater the social distance, the less effort non-native speakers use to perform request. As a result, De Paiva' (2006) found similarity between Ns and NNs in using request strategies at the preparatory stages. However, variance of request strategies was attributed to cultural reasons. In the case of the Arabs ILP, it is interpreted in the sense of cultural differences. Al-Zumor (2011), has accounted, for instance, for the differences in estimating the same situation's severity because of the cultural differences between English and Arabic speakers. Al-Zumor (2011:28) has clarified how Arabic and English cultures differ and stated that, "the immunity of one's private self is much less part of the Arab culture. People are more publicly available to each other". This claim is supported by the very concrete offers of help in a situation like "bumping into a lady and hurting her". This exemplifies cultural differences in the perception of the private self and the public service to the community.

Interlanguage pragmatics often manifests the role played by L1 pragmatic transfer, as reported by Abu-Humei (2013). Iraqis' use of apology strategies is distinguished by Arabic transfer. This finding will be verified in the analysis of semantic formulas of apology strategies used by Saudi and Chinese participants. The ILP is also reported by Abu-Humei, as the Iraqis tend to add in their apology strategies terms of address before elaborating with a justification or explanation of their wrong doings. For example, Abu-Humei (2013:171) states that, “the Iraqi learners resort to interlanguage transfer in the following two sets of apology strategies: intensified IFID+ addressing term + justification/explanation + pleading for understanding + IFID, and IFID + addressing term + pleading for understanding + intensified IFID as these strategies are employed by Iraqi native speakers of the Iraqi dialect”. Significantly, the perception of offense severity differs among Arab and English NSs due to cultural differences. For example, self-privacy is less important in Arab communities, compared to the English society. In addition, the Iraqi tended to use terms of address as a sign of politeness when apologising for an offence. L1 pragmatic transfer was usually evident in Iraqis' apology in English, based on their Iraqi variety of Arabic.

In the present study, the analysis of apology strategies favoured by both Saudi and Chinese participants will determine their most frequently used apology strategies and the percentage of offence admission and denial. Likewise, Hussein et al. (1998) have compared the apology strategies adopted by Jordanian and American speakers of English. They found out that Jordanians employed various apology strategies like explicit and implicit denial of the offence occurrence, justification of offence or blaming other people for the offence. By contrast, American speakers of English are more likely to accept responsibility for the offence. Both Jordanians and Americans show common apologetic features like expression of regret, promises of forgiveness, and exerting concern for their interlocutors. Hussein et al. (ibid.) claimed that the failure of EFL Jordanians in adopting proper English apology strategies could be attributed to other factors besides the mother tongue transfer, such as their poor English proficiency levels and their failure to justify the occurrence of some offences. The findings of these studies can be used to explain and account for the apology strategies adopted by the Saudi participants in the present study. In brief, Jordanian speakers of English differ in their adopted apology strategies from the American NS. However, Jordanians tend to deny offence whether implicitly or explicitly; occasionally blaming others for the offence occurrence. On the contrary, American NS tend to

admit the responsibility for the offence occurrence by adopting IFID strategies. This finding can be compared to the findings of the present study pertinent to the Saudi apology strategies.

3.2 Factors Affecting L2 Pragmatic Competence

This section investigates factors that may affect the development of L2 pragmatic competence.

These factors are L2 proficiency, environment, and pragmatic instructions.

3.2.1 L2 Proficiency

One of the most important factors affecting L2 speakers' pragmatic ability is their basic proficiency in the L2 (Bardovi-Harling, 2018). Liu and Xinkun (2006) examined the impact of the Chinese language on L2 production, written essays by 105 Chinese EFL learners were collected and analysed according to the rules of contrastive rhetoric. Their findings indicated the influence of Chinese L1 culture and transfer into the English L2 writing output of the Chinese discourse pattern, mainly reliant on the style of indirectness. The relationship between linguistic proficiency and L1 pragmatic transfer was established. They both impeded the development of the Chinese EFL learners' L2 pragmatic competence when using the English refusal strategies. The poor proficiency level in English hampers the learner's attempts to fulfil the use of L2 refusal strategies, as found out by Tian (2014). To sum up, the influence of L2 proficiency levels on L2 pragmatic ability can be illustrated by the Chinese EFL learners with poor proficiency in English hampered by their L1 pragmatic transfer into the L2 pragmatic output. The entwined relationship between low proficiency levels and L1 transfer may serve as an explanation for the delayed development of L2 pragmatic competence.

This helps account for the linguistics formulas used by the Saudi and Chinese participants, based on L1 transfer and L2 linguistic competence. The Chinese usually give reasons, justifications, and explanations instead of directly expressing refusal independent of the level of social power, familiarity, and imposition. All things together, low L2 proficiency levels impede EFL learners' ability to use complex linguistic formulas. This evidence can explain the linguistic formulas adopted by the Saudi and Chinese participants of the present study in their responses to the DCT and in the role play situations. For example, the Chinese tend to use short linguistic formulas in their L2 pragmatic output as an indication of the Chinese L1 pragmatic transfer. Regardless of different levels of social variables, the Chinese tend to use explanation to account for the decline of invitation.

The impact of different proficiency levels among Saudi EFL learners on using preliminary request moves was examined by Al-Gahtani and Roever, (2012). Saudi EFL learners' challenge is evident in their low proficiency level that constrains their use of request strategies, as found by Al-Gahtani and Roever (ibid.). This finding is retested in the present study in terms of using apology strategies either in the DCT or in role play situations. The influence of English proficiency on the use of apology strategies will be also statistically verified by using linear regression analysis. Al-Gahtani and Roever (ibid.) also investigated how low proficiency level students organise their requests; and how L2 low proficiency levels impede the Saudi EFL learners from completing their request utterances successfully. Three groups of Saudi learners of the English language, studying in Australia, were compared to Australian native speakers in using the request strategies. The groups were divided based on their low, intermediate and advanced proficiency levels. All participants were taking English proficiency courses at the university. The researchers used a Saudi postgraduate student who has a native like fluency in English to act as a facilitator for the role plays. Instead of resorting to a Saudi with English native like accent, the present study preferred to have an English native speaker with linguistic expertise to act as an interlocutor in the role plays. This is one of the methodological differences between the present study and that of Al-Gahtani and Roever.

The role plays consisted of three main scenarios, namely bread, lecture notes, and cancelled classes. All the role plays were recorded. All situations were transcribed and then re-transcribed based on the conversation analysis conventions. In the end, low L2 proficiency levels impede the Saudi learners from using, organising, and completing the request speech act.

Al-Gahtani and Roever (ibid.) found that the low proficiency level impedes the Saudi participants 'use of preliminary moves of request. This finding is examined in the present study. The influence of low proficiency level on the use of apology strategies by the Saudi participants is verified. Descriptive analysis is provided for all the interactions included in the role plays, based on the three groups of different proficiency levels. The findings indicate that the use of preliminary moves of request varies according to L2 proficiency levels. For instance, the Saudi learners of low proficiency levels use such moves, while the use of preliminary moves was invariable by mid-proficiency level Saudi learners. Furthermore, the Saudi learners of high proficiency level frequently used preliminary moves. Al-Gahtani and Roever (ibid.) reported that the different levels of English proficiency are influential in affecting the use of request strategies

by the EFL Saudi learners. The Australian native speakers of English attributed this to the fact that all Saudi participants lagged behind the standard use of such strategies.

In his investigation of request strategies, Umar (2004) made a comparison between the EFL Arab advanced learners and the British native speakers. He concluded that there was a similarity between both Arabs and the British in the sense that they tended to use indirect request strategies whenever the interlocutors were of equal or high social power. However, the British outperformed their Arab counterparts in using tactful request expressions due to their linguistic superiority over the Arabs.

3.2.2 Environment

The second factor affecting L2 pragmatic competence is the environment. According to Bardovi-Harlig (2018) environment is an influential factor which determines the development of L2 pragmatic competence. The ILP longitudinal studies like those of Kasper and Rose (2002) and Taguchi (2010) are effective in investigating the development of L2 pragmatic competence. Yet, only a few ILP studies have longitudinally followed up the development of L2 pragmatic competence, including those of Schauer (2009) and Woodfield (2011). Several ILP studies like those of Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1968) or Felix-Brasdefer (2004) examined the development of L2 pragmatics in terms of L2 proficiency levels and the period of study abroad were cross-sectional in nature. In this regard, Ellis (1992) stressed the importance of L2 exposure by studying in an English native speaking country to overcome the limited opportunities of language learning available in the ESL learner's home country. Achiba (2003) reported a significant pragmatic development of her own child's, Yao, acquisition of request strategies over 17 months in Australia. Yao developed her formulaic forms of request to progressive request strategies. Whereas Yao was slow in developing the use of external modification, she made progress in using the internal modifiers. Similarly, Schauer (2004; 2009) investigated how nine German undergraduates developed their English request strategies over a year while studying abroad. To sum up, ILP studies are mainly concerned with the development of L2 pragmatic competence. Some studies traced that development in light of the impact of L2 environment, such as these of Ellis (1992) and Achiba (2003). Both studies reported positive impact of a stay in an English speaking country on the development of L2 pragmatic competence.

In another study on the development of L2 pragmatic competence, Woodfield (2011) reported the development of eight L2 learners, studying in the UK, in terms of their use of the English request strategies. The development was manifested in using modification devices. In addition, Warga and Scholmberger (2007) examined the development of French apology strategies by seven Austrian learners staying for nearly a year in Montreal. Warga and Scholmberger (ibid.) reaffirmed the importance of staying in a native L2 speaking country in realising a significant development of L2 pragmatic competence and attaining a native like pragmatic competence. In a longitudinal study, Code and Anderson (2001) examined the development of request strategies among 35 Japanese learners who stayed in Canada and New Zealand. For the purpose of data collection, the participants answered a WDCT. The results showed a significant reduction of direct apology strategies, as compared to the indirect ones once the participants became able to use native-like request strategies like "Would be so kind as to open the door" instead of "Open the door please". Thus, they developed their L2 pragmatic production of the request speech act and became aware of the appropriate norms of request used by the native speakers. Similarly, other studies like those of Code and Anderson (2001), Warga and Scholmberger (2007), and Woodfield (2011) confirm the influential effect of native environment on developing L2 pragmatic competence when it comes to request and apology strategies. The L2 pragmatic output can undergo significant development when staying in English speaking countries like the UK, Canada or New Zealand.

In addition, Kondo (1997) investigated the L2 pragmatic development of 45 Japanese learners studying in the United States. The data were collected by means of DCT. Through this data-collection strategy, Kondo found that the Japanese participants developed their apology strategies after one-year stay in the United States. They adopted more American-like apology formulas, which tend to explain the cause of the offence instead of merely to saying 'sorry'. That is, the participants moved from the initially-based L1 transfer apology strategies to native-like ones. In addition, Cohen and Shively (2007) studied the impact of study abroad on the realisation of the speech acts of request and apology. Participants were all university students (N=86) who spent one semester abroad in a Spanish- or a French-speaking country, and were randomly assigned to an experimental (E) group (N=42) or to a control (C) group (N=44). Gender as a social factor was not included in the analysis of data. Participants were from Spain (17), France

(7), Mexico (4), Chile (5), Argentina (1), Costa Rica (2), Ecuador (1), Guatemala (1), Cuba (1), Cameroon (1), Senegal (1), and Dominican Republic (1).

Cohen and Shively (*ibid.*) relied on a well-designed DCT that included five situations for apology and five situations for request with different social distance and power between the interlocutors. This study is important to the present study as it asserts the significant role of staying in an English speaking country over that of L2 instructions in developing the pragmatic competence of L2 learners.

The findings show a statistically significant difference in the participants' use of the examined speech acts after studying one semester long abroad. There was also no statistically significant difference between the performance of those participants who received L2 pragmatic instruction and those who did not, even though the performance of the former was higher than that of the latter. As to the characteristics of the semantic formula development over the period of study abroad, Cohen and Shively (*ibid.*) indicated that the native speakers of Spanish outperformed the non-native speakers in using the query preparatory with verbal downgrading strategies in expressing request. As to apology, the performance of non-native speakers was quite similar to that of the native speakers. In essence, the study of Cohen and Shively is important to the current study as it affirms the significant role of environment being one of the investigated independent variables, which can affect the development of apology strategies of both Saudi and Chinese participants. One of the most important findings of Cohen and Shively is that NNS can attain native levels of using apology strategies when staying in a native speaking country.

3.2.3 L2 Pragmatic Instruction

Conventional expressions, which are called pragmatic routines like "No problem", "Nice to meet you", and "that'd be great", should be learnt at any learning stage since they reflect the societal knowledge of the speech community members and are essential for daily communication (House, 1996). However, ESL learners- even advanced learners- may not feel comfortable using some of these conventional expressions, while other ESL learners may not control the correct way to use them. Conventional expressions can be taught in sequence, whereby formulaic sequences refer to the pragmatic instructions used by EFL instructors to teach the conventional expressions to EFL learners. These formulaic sequences can either be incidental or focused. This poses a question on the role of pragmatic instructions to help ESL learners

improve their use of conventional expressions (Bardovi-Harlig and Vellenga, 2012). In this regard, there is potentiality of teaching L2 pragmatic features to ESL learners (Rose, 2000). Using the noticing activities can help improve the ESL learners' awareness of the repeated conventional expression in speech. This, of course, enhances their understanding of how to use them in interactive situations (Bardovi-Harlig and Vellenga, 2012). ESL learners tend to use different conventional expressions from those resorted to by native speakers in similar contexts (Bardovi-Harlig, 2009).

ESL learners' preferred use of a single-form expression to the use of instructed expressions is reported by Bardovi-Harlig and Vellenga (2012). In the present study, there is no verification of the importance of L2 instructions on the development of L2 pragmatic competence. The primary reason for reviewing the L2 pragmatic instruction in this chapter is that it is one of the factors affecting L2 pragmatic competence. However, this point might be raised in the recommendations of the present study. ESL learners prefer to generalise the expressions of thanking "Thanks" and "Thank you" to the one taught in the pragmatic instruction, namely "That'd be great". That is, the participants preferred to use a single-form expression, which is known in second language acquisition as one-to-one principle. In other words, ESL learners tend to develop one expression per each pragmatic function in the early stages of pragmatic development (Bardovi-Harlig and Vellenga, 2012). The participants of Bardovi-Harlig and Vellenga could not fully generalise the pragmatic instructions taught to them to other conventional expressions that were not included in the L2 pragmatic instructions, which they studied. In short, conventional expressions can be taught to EFL learners since they are essential for daily communication. This raises a question of the effectiveness of L2 pragmatic instruction in developing L2 pragmatic competence. ESL learners can obtain better understanding of the use of conventional expressions through the noticing activities. Not only do noticing activities provide better understanding of the language use in the classroom, but also promote the self-development of language use (Ozdemir, 2011). In the initial stages of L2 pragmatic development, L2 learners can develop the use of one conventional expression for each pragmatic function.

In Bardovi-Harlig and Vellenga' study, there was significant improvement in the use of the conventional expressions following instructions on their usage. Group A participants showed significant improvement in using the conventional expressions instructed to Group B. On the contrary, the participants of both groups A and B failed to improve their use of the conventional

expressions instructed to Group A. The researchers found that the use of meta-pragmatic noticing activities, along with the contextualised examples, led to the improvement in using some conventional expressions; particularly those which are consistent with the participants' interlanguage grammar. However, the analysis of the participants' production indicated that they did not attempt to use even the contextually suitable conventional expressions for which grammar was not acquired by means of the participants' interlanguage grammar. In spite of the constraints imposed by the learners' poor grammar knowledge, and how transparent the conventional expressions were, the L2 pragmatic instructions proved vital in improving the participants' recognition of conventional expressions.

Bardovi-Harlig and Vellenga focused on including production activities, although they placed meta-pragmatic focus on the L2 pragmatics input. They tended to use excerpts from television transcripts instead of TV clips when they introduced their L2 pragmatic input. The written model, on contrary to the oral one, did not provide the learners with the desired model of pragmatic production as it lacked the advantages of the oral production model, namely those of stress, patterns of intonation, rhythm and proper ways of word pronunciation (Bardovi-Harlig et al., 2012). To sum up, L2 pragmatic instructions are effective for the improvement of L2 learners' recognition of conventional expressions, regardless of the L2 learners' poor knowledge of L2 grammar. This improvement may especially occur when conventional expressions are consistent with those of L2 learners' ILP grammar. There are two models for L2 pragmatic instruction: oral and written. The oral model is recommended due to its advantages, including providing the proper ways of pronunciation, stress, rhythm and intonation patterns (Bardovi-Harlig, 2018). This study indicated the importance of L2 pragmatic instruction in developing L2 pragmatic competence. Thus, this study is useful for the possible recommendations of the present study.

3.3 Previous Studies on L1 Transfer and Culture

This section handles studies on the L1 transfer and L1 culture in general and on Saudi and Chinese ILP in particular.

3.3.1 Studies on Cultures other than Saudi and Chinese

The literature on cross-cultural and ILP studies indicates that such studies raise questions on how social variables affect the production of L2 pragmatics; the effect of 'social context' on utterances and verbal communication; the most widely discussed and tested variables; and the

perception and assessment of the social variables of social distance, power, and imposition. According to Brown and Levinson (1978; 1987), the social variables in terms of social distance and imposition are the most influential and significant contributors affecting the linguistic choices made by ESL learners when they employ indirect patterns of speech acts. Blum-Kulka (1997) and Kasper and Rose (2001) reported that the social context is vital in interpreting the utterances in verbal communication and understanding the production of language. Several studies (those of Becker et al., 1989; Blum-Kulka and House, 1989; Trosborg, 1995; Le Pair, 1996; Fukushima, 1996, 2000; Ballesteros Martin, 2001, 2002; Kwong, 2004) asserted the high impact of social and contextual variables on the choice of indirect and/or direct speech acts employed in different social situations.

The model of politeness proposed by Brown and Levinson (1978; 1987) covers the three contextual variables, i.e. social distance (D), social power (P), and imposition, which constitute the essential topic of the present study. Brown and Levinson (*ibid.*) reported that face threatening acts increase due to higher degree of these three contextual variables. The present study examines the Saudi and Chinese apology responses to the DCT and in role play situations in light of these three contextual variables. Statistical linear regression analysis is applied to examine the influence of these three contextual variables on the apology responses of all the participants. Based on the influential model of politeness proposed by Brown and Levinson, social distance (D), social power (P), and imposition of the request speech acts (R) appear to be the most significant and influential social variables determining the ESL learners' linguistic choices of speech acts. These three variables are of additive fashion. That is, the higher the degree of social power, social distance and imposition, the higher the face-threatening act and the choice of indirect speech acts. In other words, these social variables are positively correlated with the speakers' choices of indirect speech acts. In brief, the most widely discussed topic in cross-cultural and ILP studies is the effect of social context on communication. The social context usually has influence on the choice of direct and indirect speech acts. Brown and Levinson (1987) claimed that people affiliating with different speech communities have different ways of perceiving the social situations and other social factors related to those situations.

Contextual variables, as reported by Kogetsidis (2010), are to influence the directness of request speech act, as perception of politeness differs from one culture to another. In the present study, the perception of apology as an FTA is compared in the context of Saudi and Chinese

cultures. Statistically, a positive correlation between the contextual variables and the participants' responses is computed. There is a positive correlation between the three contextual variables and the directness of the speech acts. In her examination of how 100 Greek ESL learners perceive request strategies in comparison to 92 native speakers of English, Kogetsidis (2010) made an important claim that politeness might differ among different cultures while the assessment of the contextual social variables does not. This study is of a particular importance to the present study as it indicates the correlation between the social variables of familiarity, social power and imposition on the use of request strategies. Kogetsidis (ibid.) came to the conclusion that variation in using the request strategies between the ESL Greek participants and the English native speakers is highly affected by the social variables of social distance (familiarity), social power, and imposition. In addition, the ESL Greek participants adopted more direct request strategies than the English native speakers, e.g. in the assignment situation where the native speakers tended to adopt more indirect request formulas. Furthermore, the analysis of the request strategies that employed ten situations which differed in their social contexts and variable indicated that there was a high level of cross-cultural agreement between the ESL Greek participants and the native speakers of English. That is, higher levels of direct request strategies were permitted in some situations than others according to the cultures of both groups.

Cultural variations lead to different perceptions of politeness as found by Kogetsidis (2010). In the present study, I examine the culturally different perception of apology strategies among Saudi and Chinese participants to verify the assumption that the perception of FTA speech acts vary culturally among speakers of different cultural backgrounds. The agreement across the two cultures of both groups was explained by Kogetsidis, based on the 'standard nature of the situations', as the direct request formula was used in situations like 'bank loan, ticket and restaurant'. Kogetsidis' study affirmed the correlation between contextual variables and the use of request strategies. This study is important to the present study which examines the influence of contextual variables, among other factors, on the development of L2 pragmatic production. Kogetsidis (ibid.) found high levels of cross-cultural agreement between the ESL Greek speakers and the English NS in using the request strategies. However, in my opinion, this was attributed to a relative similarity between these two European cultures.

In addition, Kogetsidis (2010) also found some levels of varied use of direct request strategies among the two compared and examined groups. This finding is explained by the

following example: ESL Greek participants tended to use more indirect request strategies compared to their native-speaker counterparts in the tuition fees situations. According to Kogetsidis, this variation was attributed to the different perception of those situations by the two examined group. Kogetsidis argued that the social variables explained the differences between the ESL Greek participants and the English native speakers; they were indeed influential on the participants' production of the request strategies. Furthermore, this finding represents, according to Kogetsidis, a support to the findings of Brown and Levinson (1978; 1987) as social variables are considered the most important and influential to the speech acts production. Kogetsidis attributed that variation to a more complex picture of sociolinguistic variables that includes other elements and constraints controlling the request speech acts.

In the present study, this influence of social variables is examined based on two perspectives, namely ILP and statistical analysis perspectives. The Saudi and Chinese apology responses are compared in light of these social variables. Apology strategies in Arabic were examined by Nureddeen (2008), with the data collected from 110 Sudanese graduates (55 males and 55 females) and analysed in terms of offence severity, social distance, and power. Nureddeen asserted the importance of L2 pragmatic competence for the L2 performance, which should be acquired according to L2 culture, value, and pragmatic rules that govern communication among the native speakers of a given language. That is, the choice of L2 pragmatic strategies should be consistent with the social cultural norms and values of the L2 community. Nureddeen (*ibid.*) found that the use of IFID strategies varies according to the social distance of the speaker and hearer.

IFID strategies were the most frequently used apology strategies by Sudanese speakers as reported by Nureddeen (2008). The present study investigates the use of apology strategies by the Saudi and Chinese participants in terms of the dummy variables which constitute the different levels of the social variables of distance, power, and imposition. For example, Nureddeen (2008:288) stated that the highest frequency of using IFID strategies is in distant relation situations while the lowest frequency was supplied for the car damage situation (47 and the failed student situation (30%). Significantly more IFIDS were provided for the following situations: wrong office (95%), damaged magazine (64%), and borrowed book (62%). The Sudanese usually start and end their apology expressions with IFID strategies while using other strategies in between. The final IFID strategies are employed by the Sudanese to express their sincere

apologies in connection to serious offence situations and to express their sympathy toward their hearers. In general, awareness of L2 cultural norms and values is essential for the development of L2 pragmatic competence. Levels of social distance affect the use of IFID to express apology among Sudanese. The highest use of IFID is associated with distant social relationship between the interlocutors, while the lowest use of IFID occurred among close social distance interlocutors. An illustration of how Sudanese used apology strategies is useful for the current study in terms of apology strategies employed by the Saudi participants.

3.3.2 Studies on Saudi L1 Transfer and Culture

The production of request and apology strategies by 120 Saudi EFL learners was compared to that of 40 native speakers by using DCT questionnaires, based on the politeness perspective (Qari, 2017). Significant differences in the mean scores of the strategies uses were found between the Saudi and British groups. Culturally, Saudis tend to favour direct strategies, contrary to the British who are systematically indirect in using request and apology strategies. The Saudi L2 pragmatic output was marked by the use of excessive modifiers, including religious softeners and prayers (religious wishes). The use of direct pragmatic strategies by the Saudi participants does not imply impoliteness, as stated by Brown and Levinson (1987). In other words, the expression of politeness differs between the Saudi and British participants. The Saudi expressed politeness through direct pragmatic strategies, softened by modifiers, while the British used syntactic and linguistic devices to realise politeness. Examples of request syntactic downgrades used by the British participants are: (1) "Could you do the cleaning up?" (interrogative), (2) "I wonder if you would not mind dropping me home" (negation), and (3) "I wanted to ask for a postponement" (past tense).

Direct request and apology strategies used by Saudi participants differed from those employed by the British native speakers, as reported by Qari (2017). In the present study, the degree of directness in apology strategies by Saudi and Chinese participants is compared on the basis of the cultural perspective, and then compared to the British culture in terms of appropriateness. Examples of direct request and apology by Saudi participants include: (1) "Give me the salt by Allah," (2) "Hand me the salt may Allah grant your health", and (3) B "bring the salt may Allah not humiliate you" (Qari, 2017: 151). As a result, Saudis differ from the British NS in expressing request and apology due to the cultural differences. Saudis rely on using

excessive modifiers like religious softeners and prayers. However, the British NS realise politeness by using linguistic devices. Saudis also differ from the British NS in terms of resorting to direct request and apology strategies. To indicate politeness, Saudis use politeness markers like 'please' and alerters like "my dear mum", "if you are so kind". They also use religious softeners like "May Allah keep you alive and well", "May Allah keep you happy" or "by Allah". Both Saudi males and females favoured the use of direct request strategies, as opposed to indirect request strategies used by the British males and females. Saudi males did not make requests from their mothers based on the religious and culture that they should be responsible to meet their mothers request and not to ask from them. As to apology, Saudi examples are: (1) IFID can be used once, twice or three times as an indication of strong sincere regret.

IFID strategies were expressed by Saudis through the use of regret expressions like "sorry" and "I'm sorry", as reported by Qari (2017). In the present study, I have a different coding scheme for the IFID strategies. I differentiate between "sorry" as an independent strategy and "I'm sorry" as an IFID strategy. Therefore, "sorry" in the present study is not counted as an IFID strategy, contrary to its classification in other studies like that of Qari (ibid.).

Intensifiers were used by Saudis to express regret like "I'm really/terribly sorry". The other apology strategies frequently used by the Saudi participants were acceptance of responsibility and offer of repair. Saudis used religious modifiers with offers of repair like "God willing, promise, I'll buy even a better ring". Saudis occasionally provided options for the victims like "Either I give you the money or buy you a new one". Furthermore, Saudis used two similar ways of accepting responsibility: (1) admission like "The ring was lost" and (2) admission using the pronoun 'I' like "I lost the ring". The Saudi females and males tended to offer repair more than their British counterparts. For example, some British when responding to the "car damage" situation provided details of insurance while others offered to fix the car. It was demonstrated that Saudi apology is often affected by social distance and power, but not the severity of offence. For example, in close social relationships like that between sisters, Saudis do not typically apologise for the offence. Saudis attain politeness with politeness markers and alerters (please, excuse me). Thus, Saudis differ from the British NS in using direct request strategies.

The most frequently used semantic formula of apology by Saudis was admission of responsibility plus offer of repair, as found by Qari (2017). This finding will be tested in the present study in the section on the choice of semantic formulas by Saudi participants. Apparently,

social distance and power have greater influence of Saudi expression of apology than imposition may have. For example, Qari (2017:201) provides a sister's response to the loss of her sister's ring: "Listen, your ring was lost but I'm good for it because there is no shame between me and my sister" and "I'm not sorry for losing it I also gave her much of my stuff already". This type of response is culturally based because in Saudi culture, the eldest sister or brother is not to blame by their younger siblings. In addition, Saudi brothers or sisters are used to sharing their belongings with one other, including jewellery, clothes, accessories, etc. Qari found that Saudi participants used direct requests even with those who have higher power. This finding comes in contradiction with the generalisation that Arabs only use direct request when their interlocutors are lower in power. Saudis were found to employ the behaviour of positive politeness in accordance with Brown and Levinson's FTAs, such as hugging the hearer, using religious softeners, asserting deep relationship. To emphasise this point, Saudi siblings do not need to apologise to each other for any offence as it is a cultural norm in the KSA. Qari contradicts the general concept that the Saudi use direct request strategies only with those of lower social power. On the contrary, Saudis adopt positive politeness behaviour in accordance to Brown and Levinson's FTA.

IFID strategies were most frequently used by Saudis to save the positive face of the interlocutors, as found by Qari (2017). This finding is examined in the present study to confirm or refute Qari's finding. In addition, the use of elaborate explanation by Saudis, as reported by Qari, is also investigated in the present study. For the Saudi, exaggeration is a means of expressing their care for the hearers. The Saudi and British participants were similar in their preference for IFID in order to indicate regret. However, Saudis differ from the British in justifying the occurrence of the offence. They provide detailed explanation (e.g., "I put the book on the table yesterday to remind myself to bring it with me to the class today"). Whereas, the British provide vague explanation (e.g. that something important happened, as in "I was held up", "Something came up" for reasons X and Y) (see Qari, 2017:286). Qari accounted for the discrepancy between the Saudi and the British on the cultural value basis as both groups represented different social cultures, collectivistic and individualistic. For example, the British were overt, explicit and confident; while the Saudis, particularly males, were reserved and less confident in parental situations. Saudis are very careful when dealing with parents because of the religious teachings that order them to fully obey their parents.

In a short, Saudis adopt the positive politeness explained by Brown and Levinson (1987). As such, they save the positive face of their hearers. The perception of politeness differs among Saudi and British speakers. For example, Saudis prefer to provide detail explanation while the British provide vague explanation. The Saudi concept of politeness is based on collectivism, while that of the British is based on individualism. In the Saudi society, where hierarchy is observed, both social distance and power are highly marked. As such, Saudi students, for instance, observe certain rules of politeness when writing to academic superiors. They usually address the lecturers using their titles, they start their writing with thanking and appreciating the lecturer's role before proceeding with the main topic. Saudi students usually end their emails with a closing that conveys respect. The features of opening and closing emails used by Saudi students vary between formality and informality. Phrases like "Good luck" and "Thank you" are considered as formal closing while "Best wishes", "Have a nice day/weekend" are forms of informal closing. The use of such features emphasises the principle of deference in the Saudi community, governed by the social distance and power (Hariri, 2017).

Thus, the use of salutation term "Dear..." by Saudi students addressing their lecturers can be interpreted as deference and/or solidarity. The term deference is interpreted as solidarity according to Brown and Levinson (1987), which refers to positive politeness. Using the term "Dear...", Saudi students do not proceed directly to the topic but show concern for the addressee's face in an attempt of building rapport with their addressee (Hariri, 2017:165-166). In sum, the Saudi society tends to give priority to social distance and power due to the observation of hierarchy. Saudis address their lectures by using their titles and cannot use their first names for this purpose. Saudis adopt formal and informal aspects in email openings and closings due to the rule of deference which governs the Saudi community. Saudis are committed to the rule of deference to protect the interlocutors' positive face and build rapport with them (Hariri, 2017).

Higher social power has influences on the selection of apology strategies by Saudi students in relation to their lecturers. Hariri (2017: 284) provides the following examples:

- (1) "We apologise for the delay of the ticket arrival from the ministry".
- (2) "We apologise for the delay in sending the tickets".
- (3) "I apologise for the delay in because your message did not arrive until today".
- (4) "Sorry for the delay in replying to you, but I only received your message today".

Saudis were said to select IFID apology strategies, followed by elaboration in order to show concern for those of higher power. This comes in line with preserving the positive face of the hearer and Brown and Levinson's positive politeness. The Saudi students used the semantic formula "I wish from you to forgive me" when apologising to their superiors. In this concern, they combined the request phrase "I wish from you" with the IFID strategy "forgive me". Other strategies of apology followed by Saudi students are as follows (Hariri, 2017:289):

(5)"I wish from you doctor to accept my apology and to give me a chance".

(6)"I hope you will accept my apology and give me another chance".

In the above examples, the students used the addressee's title (example 5) and appealed to their acceptance of the apology (example 6). This represents a polite semantic formula, which is compatible with the hierarchal Saudi culture that gives priority to those in higher status and affirms conformity with Brown and Levinson's notion of positive politeness. To sum up, the higher level of social power affects the Saudi students' selection of apology strategies when addressing their lecturers. The choice of semantic formulas is affected by the Saudi perception of social power. The content of such semantic formulas consists of one of the IFID strategies, accompanied by detailed explanation of the offence occurrence. The Saudi apologetic behaviour is compatible with Brown and Levinson's notion of positive politeness.

3.3.3 Studies on Chinese L1 Transfer and Culture

The difference in apology strategies between the British and the Mandarin Chinese speakers of English in light of their cross-cultural differences were examined by Xiang (2007). Xiang accounted for the reason why non-native speakers of English differently perceive apology strategies from the English native speakers because of their cultural backgrounds. Contrary to the English, the Chinese use direct apology strategies due to high effect of imposition. On the other hand, the implicit apology strategies adopted by the Mandarin Chinese are highly affected by social distance and power. The Chinese, in contrast to the British, view apology as a 'face-losing' act. As mentioned before, this explains why the Chinese find it easier to express their apologies by using the English word 'sorry' without any psychological effect reflected on their faces, which is not the case when they say the word in their mother tongue. This is an indicator of a cultural difference between the British and the Chinese, as saying 'sorry' in English culture is a normal matter while to the Chinese it may lead to misunderstanding. In contrast to the individualist-

oriented British culture, the apology strategies used by the Chinese reflect their collectivist culture.

This study by Xiang (*ibid.*) can account for the formulaic expressions, whether direct or indirect apology strategies, as adopted by the Saudi and Chinese participants of the present study in terms of the cultural differences between the Saudi and Chinese affecting their perceptions of the social variables of familiarity, social power, and imposition. Specifically, the differences between the Chinese and British NS in expressing apology are related to cultural differences which explain why the Chinese and British NS view and perceive apology strategies differently. For the Chinese, contrary to the British, apology is a face-losing act. As such, the Chinese prefer to express apology by using the English word 'sorry'. This English expression does not reflect the same psychological effect on the Chinese speakers' faces as the use of the Chinese expression by their mother tongue. Xiang's study is useful to the present study as it helps explain the apologetic formulaic expressions used by the Chinese participants.

3.4 L2 Attitude and Usage

L2 proficiency in terms of the aptitude, attitude, and motivation is examined by Clément and Kruidenier (1985). The data were collected from a large number of participants totalling 1180 pupils enrolled in grades 7, 9, and 11 in Canada. The participants were asked to respond in French to the designed questionnaire which covered 21 variables. Clément and Kruidenier asserted that L2 communicative competence requires socio-motivational components that include linguistic and non-linguistic aspects. Language aptitude is equally influential to communicative competence, so are the mechanisms of motivation. The results of Clément and Kruidenier's study were pertinent to the verification of their suggested model of L2 proficiency. The most relevant finding was related to the importance of attitude in shaping self-confidence. Attitude and motivation are essential in predicting the rating of both learner's and teacher's L2 proficient ability. Although motive and aptitude are significant determinants of linguistic proficiency, aptitude was more favoured than motivation by the participants. Clément and Kruidenier asserted the influence of having frequent contact with NS on the increase of the level of linguistic proficiency and the ratings of self-confidence.

Yet another study examined NNS' perception of and attitudes to L2 pragma-linguistic behaviour and norms (Hinkel, 1996). For this purpose the data were collected from 240 NNS of

different cultural backgrounds, including Arabs, Chinese, Japanese, Koreans, and Indonesians, who responded to a 29-item questionnaire on the L2 politeness. The NNS' responses were compared to those of American NS. L2 attitude was found to be interrelated with the proficiency levels of EFL learners. Successful EFL learners adopted both L2 linguistic and cultural aspects. The EFL learners' L2 higher achievements were often related to positive attitudes towards the L2 community and culture. The L1 norms of polite behaviour can impede the EFL learners' perception of L2 pragmatic behaviour. Thus, some EFL staying in a L2 community may not adopt the L2 socio-cultural norms and may fail to follow the L2 pragmatic behaviour because of their desire to follow the contradictory pragmatic behaviour to their L1 pragmatic behaviour. It was found that the Arab and Indonesian participants demonstrated weak agreement with the item "the rules of the speech accepted in the USA are very complex", whereas Korean and Japanese did not with this item. All the participants, with the exception of Arabs, agreed to apologise to the instructor if they missed a class. The Arabs also did not join the small majority of participants who marginally agreed to use the expression "Let's have lunch some time". Some participants did not agree with the favoured formulaic expression by Arabs "No, thank you" in response to the food offered. Arabs usually believe that it is a polite behaviour to reject the offered food before thanking the inviter. The participants expressed a critical view of such L2 pragmatic behaviour and compared it to their L1 accepted behaviour. Therefore, they did not show willingness to adopt the L2 norms of polite behaviour as expressed in speech acts. Although participants were aware of the importance of adopting L2 politeness norms, they did not adhere to the L2 pragma-linguistic norms. NNS participants were found to have low evaluation and perception of L2 pragma-linguistic behaviour in comparison to their L1 highly evaluated socio-cultural norms.

This pointed to the fact that the EFL learners' linguistic behaviour does not match their positive attitude to L2 learning (LoCastro, 2001). In LoCastro's (2001) study, the EFL learners' attitudes were investigated in the perspective of individual differences and their willingness to adopt the L2 pragmatic norms. In this regard, there was sensitivity between the EFL learners' willingness to adopt L2 pragmatic norms and their attitudes towards the L2 community (Kasper and Schmidt, 1996). Indeed, LoCastro (2001) stated that there are no extensive studies on the influence of attitude on pragmatic development. The data collection of LoCastro's study relied on four courses on L2 pragmatic norms taught to 43 Japanese EFL undergraduates who were

required to act in role plays to illustrate language use and pragmatic strategies. The participants were asked as well to respond to an attitude-motivation questionnaire. They indicated their displeasure when listening to Japanese accented English speaker although it was easy for them to understand and follow his accent. Most of the participants expressed their wish to follow the accent of the Canadian speaker, some of them wanted to imitate the accent of the American speaker, and only one participant was satisfied with the Japanese accent of English. It was also found that the Japanese participants expressed positive attitudes and orientations towards learning English. For example, 74% of the Japanese participants acknowledged the importance of learning English in order to be able to "work abroad" or "stay in an English-speaking country (LoCastro, 2001:77)". In addition, all the participants stated that they liked to learn to speak English fluently. The majority (91%) viewed English as an international language. More than half of the Japanese participants strongly agreed with the item that they wanted their children to learn English. The findings asserted that the Japanese participants had positive attitudes to learning English in order to develop their careers, live, work or study abroad. Therefore, it was expected that the Japanese participants would seek L2 pragmatic proficiency as well. However, the positive attitudes of the Japanese participants to learning English did not necessarily indicate their willingness to adopt L2 pragmatic behaviour. The Japanese participants were keen on maintaining their Japanese identity and viewed the English language proficiency as a threat to their national identity. In this regard, some participants expressed pride in being Japanese and would not abandon their Japanese characteristics even if they became fluent speakers of English LoCastro (ibid).

3.5 Summary

Chapter three reviewed the relationship between L2 pragmatics and SLA. Theoretical approaches to the investigation of L2 pragmatic development were discussed as well. The three types of L2 pragmatic studies were addressed. This chapter has shed some lights on the influence of certain factors which affect the development of L2 pragmatic competence. It was emphasised that L2 proficiency, environment, and L2 pragmatic instructions play a vital role in developing L2 pragmatic competence. The review also included the effect of EFL learners' attitude and usage on their willingness to adopt L2 pragmatic norms. This is important to the present study as the expected results can be compared to the findings derived from previous studies. Chapter four will

focus on the methodology adopted to conduct the present study, such as sampling procedure, data collection instruments; the pilot study, and the main study.

Chapter Four: Methodology of Data Collection and Analysis

4. Overview

This chapter introduces the methodology of the present study; it is divided into twelve sections. Section one introduces the data collection instruments used to assess pragmatic competence. It is divided into four sub-sections: (1) Introduction, which refers to the main instruments of data collection in pragmatics and Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP); (2) the Discourse Completion Task (DCT), which discusses the advantages and disadvantages of the simple DCT; (3) Open role plays, also addressing their advantages and disadvantages plays; and (4) Conclusion, justifying the choice of both written DCT and open role plays to collect the data for the present study. Section two displays the research design. It consists of two main sub-sections. Each sub section explains the design of the data collection instruments: written DCT and open role plays. Pragmatic competence is assessed by using two different instruments: a written Discourse Completion Task (henceforth DCT) and open role plays with an English native speaker interlocutor. Eslami and Mirzaei (2014) assert that both written DCT and open role play help describe the participant's selected formulas to express a certain speech act. That is, the linguistic choices of participants can be analysed, based on their oral or written responses to the situations included in the open role plays and the written DCT. Section three discusses the validity and reliability of the data instruments.

Section four explains the L2 usage and attitude towards learning English in sociolinguistics with a background questionnaire. It is used to provide data about the extent to which participants use English, and their attitudes towards it. Section five elaborates on the instruments used to assess linguistic competence. In terms of general linguistic competence, the instruments are selected with the aim of producing a global assessment of the participants' competence, including knowledge of grammar and lexis, as well as all four language skills: speaking, reading, writing, and listening. To facilitate this assessment, the study makes use of five tests: essay writing, interview, vocabulary, and two multiple-choice tests covering grammar and listening. These language tests are selected for the purpose of this study because of their validity and reliability in assessing the linguistic competence of EFL learners. Section six provides details on the ethical considerations deemed necessary to carry out the present study. These considerations are consistent with the policies of British universities, including Anglia Ruskin University (ARU) and section seven details the methodical challenges.

Section eight clarifies the procedures adopted to carry out both the pilot and main study, where the procedures for each instrument of data collection are clearly stated. Section nine explains both sampling procedures for the selection of participants, namely random and snowball samplings of the main study. Each sampling procedure is justified for the selection of the Saudi and Chinese participants. In general, the study has a longitudinal design. The aim was to recruit overseas students when they newly arrived in Cambridge, in the UK, and to test their general linguistic and pragmatic abilities in L2 English soon after their arrival and after then over 12-month stay in the country. The purpose is to investigate how the development of pragmatic competence is related to the development of general linguistic competence, and how this development interacts, if at all, with sociolinguistic factors, including cultural background. The students were recruited whose first language is either Arabic (ideally from Saudi Arabia) or Chinese (ideally from mainland China; Mandarin), and they were tested on three to four occasions for both general linguistic competence and for pragmatic competence, specifically for the ability to use appropriate apology strategies.

Section ten elaborates on the data analysis by chapters. It introduces the qualitative analysis of choice of apology strategies in chapter five. It is divided into four sub-sections: (1) a new devised coding scheme for apology strategies, (2) the classification system for apology strategies, and (3) the classification system for apology strategies. This is followed by the quantitative data analysis covering attitude, usage and L1 culture for chapter six. Furthermore, the quantitative data analysis for the duration of stay in UK and proficiency is provided for chapter seven. The last sub-section is devoted to the quantitative data analysis of the development of pragmatic competence, namely multivariate analysis and univariate linear models for chapter eight.

4.1 Data Collection Instruments Used to Assess Pragmatic Competence

This section reviews different instruments used for the purpose of data collection in ILP studies.

4.1.1 Introduction

In the field of Second Language pragmatics and Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP), there are different methods that vary in their degree of authenticity (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013). The most commonly used methods are Discourse Completion Tasks (DCT), on the one hand, and role plays on the other hand (Xiang, 2007; Kogetsidis, 2010). Since each method has its advantages and disadvantages, it is necessary to use both methods for the present study: the DCT allows for the

collection of more data than would be feasible through role plays alone, and role plays allow for the collection of more authentic data. The following sections introduce the two methods in detail, discussing the respective advantages and disadvantages, and showing how both methods complement each other.

4.1.2 The Discourse Completion Task (DCT)

A DCT consists of situated incomplete dialogues, which the participants have to complete by using a specific speech act. For example, they are presented with a situation in which they forgot to return lecture notes to a classmate. The DCT was introduced by Blum Kulka (1982) to compare how first and second language speakers perform particular speech acts. Today, the DCT is the most popular data collection method in cross-cultural and ILP studies and has been widely used to measure EFL learners' pragmatic awareness (Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford 2016: 10). DCTs allow controlling of social variables so that responses can be easily compared among different cultures and across different linguistic backgrounds (Beckwith and Dewaele, 2008). The participants then have to account for the reasons that made them forget to bring the lecture notes, for example. There are two basic types of DCT: oral DCT and written DCT. In the oral DCT, the instructor reads the situation aloud and the participant is required to respond orally. By contrast, in the written DCT, the participant reads the situation and responds by writing down his/her response. Within the written DCTs, one can distinguish between a simple DCT where the response corresponds to just one conversational turn, and a free DCT where the participants can write down longer sequences, including several turns by them and their conversation partner in a specific situation.

However, the subjects' proficiency level constitutes a major problem in using the written DCT to measure ILP. Low-proficiency level learners may find it difficult to comprehend and respond to the DCT situations, in contrast to the high L2 proficiency level learners (Kasper and Schmidt 1996: 156). The translation of the DCT for the purpose of this study into Arabic and Chinese was made in response to the recommendation of Brislin, Lonner and Thorndike (1973), who asserted the importance of having equally and fully translated versions of the main instruments of data collection. The translated versions of the DCT help avoid negative impact on the results of cross-cultural research due to translation/comprehension problems. In this regard, I believe that a mother-tongue translated model of the DCT can partially compensate for the DCT

proficiency level drawback. However, it may not compensate for the inability to respond in writing unless the responses are in the first languages. I did not ask participants to respond in their L1 because the very point of my study is the assessment of pragmatic competence in their L2, namely English.

4.1.2.1 Advantages of the Simple DCT

In defending the advantages of the simple DCT, Kasper and Rose (2002:96) explain that “when carefully designed, WDCTs [simple DCTs] provide useful information about speakers' pragma-linguistic knowledge of the strategies and linguistic forms by which communicative acts can be implemented and about their socio-pragmatic knowledge of the context factors under which particular strategic and linguistic choices are appropriate”. DCTs allow for a large amount of data to be collected quickly and easily and they also help researcher control their variables while realising high standardisation. In addition, DCTs allow researchers to compare the participants' responses to each other (Al-Gahtani and Roever, 2012). In DCTs, respondents tend to give appropriate responses because they are under less pressure than in role plays (Yuan, 2001:100) because while writing they may take some time to think of their but in the role plays they are required to give immediate responses.

4.1.2.2 Disadvantages of the Simple DCT

Despite the advantages and usefulness of DCT, they have also been criticised, especially regarding the validity of data collected. For example, Geluykens (2007) points out that, unlike real discourse, DCT only allows the participant one attempt to say something appropriate and does not encounter for the development of the discourse in a spontaneous situation. DCT is also criticised for not recording any interaction. It is also unclear to what extent a written task is appropriate for eliciting spoken language and, overall, DCTs elicit what participants think they would say in any given situation, rather than what they would actually say (Yuan, 2001). Boredom on the part of the participants can arise from the many repetitive tasks they have to complete. Therefore, other disadvantages dwell in the fact that respondents may feel bored and become unfocussed in the face of numerous DCT questions, and, in addition, DCT does not indicate the number of turns, speech sequence, elaboration, repetition; and non-verbal reaction features; Cohen, (1996); Felix-Brasdefer, (2010); Golato, (2003). As Golato, (2003: 91) states,

"compared with data collection instruments routinely used in conversation analytic (CA) studies, DCTs are inappropriate for studying actual language use". In fact, the complexity of conversation analysis as an analytical tool would require even more time consuming evaluation than free DCT (Have, 2004). In addition, some of the disadvantages of using DCT are offset by additional usage of role plays.

4.1.3 Role Plays

Role plays are of two types: closed role plays, and open role plays. Closed role plays are similar to the oral DCT in the sense that the participants respond orally to a prompt in one turn only. That is, closed role plays neither allow interaction nor negotiation of meanings or different turn-takings when realising particular speech acts. On the other hand, in the open role plays the participants are required to perform the role play scenarios with the instructor negotiating different turn-takings in a similar way to the real-life interactional situations. As the present study aims to measure the development of L2 pragmatic competence by focussing on the speech act of apology, interactional data were elicited via the instrument of role plays, which allows turn taking and sequences of speech.

4.1.3.1 Advantages of the Role Plays

L2 learners go through certain processes while performing role plays. These performance processes entail processing their interlocutors' speech, comprehending the meaning contained in their speech, and assembling utterances based on the L2 linguistic competence, covering lexical, grammatical, and phonological aspects. However, also interlocutors' utterances should come within the parameters of L2 pragmatic appropriateness (i.e. to be appropriate to L2 cultural values and norms). This is because they involve a closer approximation to speech data (collected data of the interlocutors' utterance) in a controlled setting, role plays have also been intensively used in L2 pragmatic studies. Examples of studies that used the role play as an instrument of data collection include those of Trosborg (1995), Bardovi-Harlig and Griffin (2005), and Al-Gahtani and Roever (2013). In addition, role plays help to elicit natural speech and to measure participants' ability to follow up, pursue, and produce sequentially developed speech. They are used to collect spontaneous speech data in a controlled setting. Other advantages include simulation of social interaction in such scenarios where participants act and perform in described

situations. Role play collected data assists in examining such discourse features as intonation, pauses, sequences, and overlapping (Margalef-Boada, 1993).

4.1.3.2 Disadvantages of the Role Plays

The process of data collection via role plays is time-consuming, as it requires transcription besides the administration of the role play itself which takes long. The data elicited from role plays has been criticised as being not natural enough. Thus, participants may consider some of the role plays situations as unrealistic (Kasper and Dahl, 1991; Cohen and Olshtain, 1993; Tran, 2003c, 2004c). Further, role plays limit the control of social variables (Yuan, 2001: 375). It is especially difficult to control the social variables of social relations and power between the interlocutors. Role plays also do not ensure sufficient production of the speech act being investigated. Through the description of the situations implied in the DCT design, a researcher can control the contextual variables more than in the case of the role plays. This situational description usually affects the choice of learners' forms when responding to given situations. In this way, researchers can also collect a large amount of data within a short period of time (Martínez-Florand & Usó-Juan, 2011:53).

4.1.4 Conclusion

To realise the aims of the present study, collection of a sufficient amount of data carefully controlled for social variables was required, on the one hand, and on the other hand, natural, interactional, real life, sequentially developed data were to be elicited. The decision was therefore made to use simple DCT along with open role plays. This allows for the triangulation of the DCT written data with more ecologically valid spoken data.

4.2 The Design of the Simple DCT and Open Role Plays

The present study focuses on the production and development of apology acts in English because apologising is commonly used in daily life interactions and it is a FTA which requires observation of the politeness rules. In addition, apology is a complex speech act in the sense that it implies an awareness that a fault happened and caused damage to one party in the interaction; since if an offender does not perceive the damage caused, he/she might decide not to apologise. In this case, several factors affect the offenders' decision, such as their personality traits, their

social relationship with the victim; and anticipated results of their decision (Palanques, 2015). I decided against the oral DCT for my investigation since it is more time consuming to administer and evaluate and therefore does not allow one to collect a large amount data in a relatively fast manner, unlike the written DCT. In addition, I chose the simple DCT instead of the free DCT because of the ease of evaluation. It is less complex to evaluate a one-turn response in the simple DCT rather than the multiple-turn response in the free DCT.

4.2.1 The Design of the Simple DCT

In the present study, the simple DCT contains descriptions of eighteen situations in which participants were required to apologise to someone. The variables of interest are the social and cultural variables of power and distance or familiarity (cf. Kogetsidis 2010), as well as the degree of imposition caused by the relevant offence. The degree of imposition assesses the severity of the offence and the extent to which the offence threatens the offended person's face. The eighteen situations represent all possible combinations of the different levels of these three factors, as shown in table 4.2. In ten of the cases (situations 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 13, 14, 15, 16, and 18), the situations were adapted from those used in previous studies, including Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984), Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989), Nureddeen (2008), Kogetsidis (2010), Al-Sobh (2013), and Al Sulayyi (2016). In the remaining cases (situations 1, 2, 5, 6, 10, 11, 12, and 17) where it was hard to find previously used examples that fitted the required combinations of familiarity, power, and imposition, appropriate situations were devised. I chose the situations which I judged appropriate for the representation of all three social variables of familiarity, power and imposition.

Social distance (familiarity) was distinguished according to the type of social association; i.e. how participants are socially related to each other. Three levels were used: 'close', 'acquaintance', and 'stranger'. Close social distance denotes that both interlocutors have close social relation; acquaintance means that they are acquainted but do not consider themselves to be close, and stranger implies that they do not know each other. Power refers to the authority which the speaker may have over the hearer: the speaker could be in a lower position than the hearer (low-high), a higher position (high-low) or both of them could be of equal position (E). Power was classified into three levels, based on the authority which one interlocutor has over the other. For the degree of imposition, a binary classification, 'serious' or 'mild', was used. As such, the

offence severity or the imposition of all designed situations was classified either as mild or serious. Below the situations were adapted for two main reasons: (1) The original situation did not cover all social variables; (2) The original situation did not work perfectly for the UK target culture. All adaptations were extensively discussed with an educated speaker of British English. To illustrate the first reason, the adaptation of a situation derived from Blum-Kulka and Olshtain's (1984) is discussed with examples, as shown below. For an illustration of the second reason, see the discussion of the example by Tamanaha (2003: 68). Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) did not cover all three variables used in the present study, but only social distance and status. Table 4.1 illustrates a request situation adapted for the purpose of the present study.

Table 4.1: Example of original and adapted situations in the DCT

Original situation	Adapted situation	Source
'Lecture notes' (S5): 'a student asks another student to lend her some lecture notes' (social distance; -SD, Dominance, X=Y)	'Lecture notes': (S3): 'Your classmate lent you their lecture notes, and you forgot to return them. Now it is the day before the exam and they are very upset because they needed the notes to revise. You want to apologise to your classmate for not returning their lecture notes in time for them to be able to prepare for the exam'. What do you say? (close familiarity, equal power, serious imposition)	Blum-Kulka, Olshtain (1984: 14)

Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989) investigated social distance and social power among other sociolinguistic variables like gender, education, and power (termed as 'dominance'). The present study compensates for the lack of imposition as an independent variable in (1) the study by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984), and (2) in the study by Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989). Situation (3) is included in the present study there, contrasting with situation (5) with regard to the degree of imposition. The situations were chosen in order to fit the

requirements of the current study. Table 4.2 gives an overview of the situations and the corresponding variable combinations, as well as the source for the situations.

Table 4.2: The variables underlying the construction of the situations

No.	Situation title	Familiarity	Power	Imposition	Source
1	Missing deadline	Close	L-H	serious	current study
2	Seminar preparation	Close	L-H	mild	current study
3	Lecture notes	Close	E	serious	Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984: 14)
4	Coffee	Close	E	mild	Nureddeen (2008: 297)
5	Promotion	Close	H-L	serious	current study
6	Team coach	Close	H-L	mild	current study
7	Tuition fees	acquaintance	L-H	serious	Kogetsidis (2010: 2268)
8	First day	acquaintance	L-H	mild	Al-Sobh (2013: 152)
9	Offended colleague	acquaintance	E	serious	Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984: 212)
10	Letter	acquaintance	E	mild	current study
11	New assistant	acquaintance	H-L	serious	current study
12	Marking	acquaintance	H-L	mild	current study
13	Hot soup	Stranger	L-H	serious	Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984: 212)
14	Job interview	Stranger	L-H	mild	Nureddeen (2008: 301)
15	Injured foot	Stranger	E	serious	Nureddeen (2008: 300)
16	Crowded train	Stranger	E	mild	Al-Sobh (2013: 153)
17	Evidence	Stranger	H-L	serious	current study
18	Interview	Stranger	H-L	mild	Al-Sobh (2013: 152)

Four versions of the simple DCT have been designed. For the English version of the simple DCT see Appendix A. This version is annotated with the universal social factors: social distance, social power, and the degree of imposition. The English and Arabic version of the simple DCT is enclosed in Appendix A1, and the English and Chinese version of the simple DCT in Appendix A2, both without the social factors annotated.

4.2.2 The Design of the Open Role Plays

As to the design of the open role plays, the eight situations are summarised in Table 4.3. Because of the time-consuming nature of conducting the open role plays, only two levels of familiarity (close and not close) and power (L-H, and E) were examined. With the degree of imposition being either 'serious' or 'mild', there were eight possible combinations of variables. Most of the scenarios (2, 3, 5, 7, and 8) were based on the DCT used in other studies, including those of Reiter (2000:60), Tamanaha (2003:213), Nureddeen (2008:297), Al-Sobah (2013:152), and Al Sulayyi (2016:73). The remaining three scenarios (1, 4 and 6) were devised for the purpose of this study. Just as the DCT, the role plays were adapted either to encounter for all the variables or to make the situation more appropriate to British culture. The changes were made in discussion with an educated native speaker. This latter reason is illustrated here by the adaption of one of Tamanaha's (2003) scenarios. Tamanaha (ibid.) investigated the two speech acts of apology and complaint under the aspects of the three social variables: social distance, power, and imposition. Tamanaha used six different role plays with three scenarios for each speech act. The limited number of scenarios was governed by the time constraints. Moreover, Tamanaha exceeded the act of apology to include the remedial moves after accepting the apology; as well as collected sequential speech. Tamanaha's setting of the 'No Show' situation was changed to, as depicted in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Examples of original and adapted situations in role plays

Original situation	Adapted situation	Source
<p>‘No Show’(S2):</p> <p>‘You promised to go to see a movie with your close friend, but you completely forgot about it. You went to the theatre two hours after the time you promised to meet her, but she was not there. You feel very sorry about it. Now you go to her house and apologise to her’ (close familiarity, equal power, mild imposition).</p>	<p>‘Late for an appointment’(S7):</p> <p>‘You are waiting for your friend at a restaurant. Start the role play at the point when they arrive, 15 minutes late’.</p> <p>The other participant would have received these instructions: ‘You are meeting your friend for lunch at a restaurant, and you are 15 minutes late because of a traffic jam’</p> <p>(<u>close</u> familiarity, equal power, mild imposition).</p>	<p><u>Tamanaha</u> (2003: 92) ‘No Show’ situation</p>

The overall purpose was to elicit natural speech and to measure the participants’ ability to follow up, pursue, and produce sequentially developed speech.

Table 4.4: Description of the 8-scenario role plays

No.	Title	Familiarity	Power	Imposition	Source
1	Forgetting coffee	Close	L-H	mild	current study
2	Heavy bag	not close	E	serious	<u>Nureddeen (2008: 297)</u>
3	Crash car	Close	E	serious	<u>Nureddeen (2008: 297)</u>
4	Stand on someone's toe	not close	E	mild	current study
5	Wrong room	not close	L-H	mild	<u>Nureddeen (2008: 297)</u> <u>Al-Sobah (2013: 152)</u> <u>Al Sulayyi (2016: 82)</u>
6	Delete files	not close	L-H	serious	current study
7	Late for an appointment	Close	E	mild	<u>Tamanaha (2003: 92)</u>
8	Oil in car	Close	L-H	serious	Reiter (2000: 60)

4.3 Validity and Reliability of Data Instruments

There are two main concerns of the effectiveness of the data elicitation instruments, namely validity and reliability. The adopted situations were chosen because they meet the condition of reliability and validity stated in other various studies, as shown in the table 2 provided by Youn (2007: 92-93). In this regard, Youn (ibid.) summarised the reliability and validity of the pragmatic competence instrument tests. Validity has two types: internal and external. Internal validity is more suitable to experimental studies investigating the cause and effect relationship, like that between the independent variables (L2 proficiency, duration in the UK, L1 culture, familiarity, power, and imposition) and the development of L2 pragmatic competence of the Saudi and Chinese participants of the present study. Situations and scenarios are internally valid whenever they measure what they intend to measure. Since for the purpose of the present study socio-linguistic and language competence information was collected as well, all

of these factors were controlled. This allowed the assessment of the validity of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables in the current analysis.

In this case, the situations and scenarios measured the only apology strategies employed, and no other speech act strategies (compliment, complaint, request, etc.). They also measured the intended contextual variables of familiarity, social power, and imposition. Therefore, it can be said that they were internally valid. As to the external validity, the present study is ecologically valid. That is, it is replicable and can be applied in different settings (e.g. some other groups of non-native speakers of English of different cultural backgrounds). Thus, based on the reviewed studies in Chapters two and three, the adopted methodology of the current study is assumed externally valid. The study combines different approaches, such as the longitudinal and ILP approaches in accordance with Kasper and Rose's (2002) pragmatic development path (i.e. to observe the development of a speech act realisation at various stages). The use of the simple DCT and open role plays for the data collection was justified, following a comprehensive comparison with other data collection instruments.

Reliability refers to the consistency of data collection instruments and the results. Reliability is of four types, all of which tested in the present study design. Firstly, the study allows for assessment of inter-rater reliability as comparison is made as to whether all the Saudi and Chinese participants gave consistent responses to different items of the data collection instruments. Secondly, the intra-rater reliability is also ensured in the present study because the participants were expected to give similar apologetic responses and the tests were repeated. Thirdly, the test-retest reliability deserve was because the participants were tested at different stages of data collection. Fourthly, the internal consistency reliability exists as well since different items contained in different instruments of data collection were specifically assigned to cover certain ideas. Furthermore, most situations and scenarios were used in various L2 pragmatics studies and L2 linguistic competence of the participants was assessed by adapting materials from internationally accredited reliable tests. Therefore, the instruments employed in the present study are deemed reliable.

4.4 Sociolinguistics Background Questionnaire (Usage and Attitude)

The background questionnaire enabled gathering of specific background information, which provided insights into the English usage and learning experiences of the participants.

Furthermore, it helped to interpret and analyse the collected data through other instruments. In the present study, the sociolinguistics background questionnaire was administered to: (1) collect descriptive data on the participants; (2) enhance the understanding of factors which affect the development of their L2 pragmatic competence; and (3) help explain the variation of L2 pragmatic changes among the participants. The sociolinguistics background questionnaire for both usage and attitude consisted of two parts; the first seeking personal and demo information about the participants' age, mother tongue, date of arrival in the UK, the purpose of their visit, whether they had been to an English-speaking country before ("If yes, please list all your visits to English-speaking countries with the name of country, your age on arrival, length of stay and purpose of visit"), how long they had been learning English, and the level of their current English class (pre-intermediate, intermediate, upper-intermediate or advanced).

The questions were adapted from the existing usage and attitude questionnaires (Gibson and Swan 2008: 21; Cahuana 2015:72) in order to suit the purpose of the current study and the structures of some items responses were changed to serve the present investigation. The changes were made in discussion with an educated native speaker. The second part of this questionnaire dealt with 44 items assessing the participants' sociolinguistic background for both usage of English and attitude. The sociolinguistic background questionnaire of teachers of IELTS was adapted from Gibson and Swan's questionnaire (2004), Cahuana's background questionnaire (English version; 2015), and that of Duan (2004). A single questionnaire that would encounter for all the requirements and topics was not found. For example, the wording of the original items was changed or words were added in order to fit in the present study (see Table 4.5).

Table 4.5: Examples of changed items of sociolinguistic and attitude background questionnaire

Original items	Changed	Source	Type: (personal/usage/attitude)
<p>11. How often do you speak Hanyu?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - daily - often - sometime - seldom - never <p>83. I would feel comfortable speaking where both Japanese and English speakers were present</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - strongly disagree - moderately disagree - slightly disagree - slightly agree - moderately agree - strongly agree 	<p>5. Do you feel more comfortable speaking Arabic/Chinese or English?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Arabic/Chinese 2. No preference 3. English 	<p><u>Duan</u> (2004: 55)</p> <p>Gardner, (2004)</p>	<p>Language use</p>
<p>10. My English class is really a waste of time</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - strongly disagree - moderately disagree - slightly disagree - slightly agree - moderately agree - strongly agree 	<p>28. Learning English is a waste of time</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - strongly agree - somewhat agree -somewhat disagree - strongly disagree 	<p>Gardner, (2004: 3)</p>	<p>Attitude</p>

The first half of the questionnaire consists of items 1-22 enquiring about the participants' actual and virtual usage of English, and the second half consists of items 23-44 and intends to assess their attitude towards the language based on the chosen responses from the provided scale. The assessment of attitude is necessary because of its contribution to the better understanding of the development of the participants' L2 pragmatic competence. The questions about usage and attitude are listed in Appendix C3; which gives an overview of the language use and the attitude items, as well as the scores used, accompanied by the source of the scores for the questions. The purpose of assessing attitude is to gain insight into the participants' feelings towards English as an international language and the importance of learning English, as well as to use the responses in accounting for their pragmatic L2 development. Attitude is measured by 22 items (questions 23-44 in the questionnaire) adapted from Gardner's (2004) Attitude and Motivation Test Battery. All items indicate some feelings about the English language and its learning process. The 22 usage items contain 4 negative statements (8, 11, 13, and 16) and the rest are positive statements. The participants ticked the response that best described their feelings. Responses measured were on a 4-point Likert scale, with the ranges shown in Appendix C3. The 22 items contained 11 negative statements (24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 31, 32, 33, 35, 43, and 44) and 11 positive statements (23, 29, 30, 34, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, and 42). The negative items are necessary since all attitude scales should measure both types of language learning attitudes: positive and negative (Gardner, 2004). Questions 27 and 44 have the same meaning as they both indicate statements of negative attitude in order to test the participants' practicality.

A short description of part II items is as follows:

- Questions 1 and 2 rate the participant's proficiency levels before arriving in the UK and after staying in the UK;
- Question 3 rates the extent of mixing up with friends belonging to the target language community;
- Questions 4 and 5 rate participants' feelings towards the culture of the English language;
- Questions 6 and 7 are about the importance of continuously learning English for themselves and their children;
- Questions 8, 9, 10, and 11 are about the use of English language at home, in university or classes;

- Questions 12 and 13 look at the nationality of friends that the participants have in the UK: Arab/Chinese or British;
- Question 14 deals with the participants' contacts with English native speakers while schooling at home;
- Question 15 deals with whether participants' upbringing involved English-speaking nannies. This item might be more applicable to Saudi participants than their Chinese counterparts;
- Question 16 is concerned with the reasons behind speaking English; this question is similar in meaning to question 38 to test the participants' practicality;
- Questions 17, 18, 19, 20, and 21 rate the participants' adaptation to the English media. Question 19 is equal in its meaning to question 21 to test the participants' practicality;
- Two tables are designed to determine the places where participants use English and Arabic/Chinese most (22).

4.5 Data collection Instruments Used to Assess Linguistic Competence

4.5.1 Introduction

Assessment of writing ability is not only restricted to knowledge of grammar but also knowledge of grammatical cohesion like anaphoric, cataphoric and exophoric references (Johnson, 2017:3). The assessment of L2 linguistic competence is vital to the present study. L2 linguistic competence is one of the independent variables that have been tested as a possible explanation of the development of the participants' development of L2 pragmatic competence. Therefore, the components of L2 linguistic competence were assessed: writing (essay), ability to verbally converse in English (interview), knowledge of English grammar (multiple-choice grammar test), vocabulary (vocabulary test) and listening test (multiple-choice listening test). This assessment indicates how participants can proceed with the performance of both the simple DCT and the open role plays. It can also be used to check for correlations between the participants' responses to the open role plays and simple DCTs and their level of language competence over the different stages of data collection.

4.5.2 Essay Writing

The essay-writing task was chosen due to the fact that it can indicate the participants' writing skills, which are necessary for responding to the simple DCT situations. It is also a

component of the participants' L2 linguistic competence that affects the development of their L2 pragmatic competence at the written level. Based on a discussion with a native speaker expert, a topic was selected that was pertinent to the main topic of the current study, namely that if cultural differences. In addition, the amount of writing should be adequate to judge the participants' writing ability. Thus, instead of asking the participants to write a paragraph or a short essay, 250 words were found to be reasonable enough to achieve the target of the writing task.

4.5.3 Interview

There are two types of interview: structured and semi-structured interviews. The former resembles surveys in that it is based on answers to questionnaire questions. The latter is qualitative in nature, whereby questions are prepared ahead and respondents are required to give detailed answers. In this type, the interviewer may ask other appropriate questions whenever necessary. A structured interview ensures consistency by keeping the phrasing and question order in accordance to the data collection process. However, semi-structured interviews may cover more combined general topics. Being open-ended, semi structured interviews give interviewers an opportunity to cover various topics. Moreover, they are often recorded. The use of structured interviews reflects researchers' developed understanding of the investigated topic. By contrast, researchers use semi-structured interviews when the aim is to develop understanding of the relevant studies related to the investigated topic. Structured interviews allow easy coding of data for the purpose of data analysis. However, semi-structured interviews consume more time for analysis, which requires reading notes, listening to recordings, transcribing etc. The major advantage of the semi-structured interviews is that they can bring up new ideas as opposed to the structured interviews.

Based on the above discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of the two types of interviews, the structured interview was chosen for the current study. This was done because of its impacts assessing the participants' speaking skills that play a great role in assessing the development of their L2 pragmatic competence. In other words, the participants' speaking skills are reflected in their responses to the role play scenarios and hence can affect the development of their L2 pragmatic competence over the different stages of data collection. The interview aims to assess the participants' linguistic errors, including those of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, together within appropriate sounds, stress, and intonation. It also aims to assess

the participants' ability to produce intelligible, spontaneous, and fluent speech. It consists of up to sixteen questions, depending on their linguistics level.

4.5.4 Multiple-Choice Grammar Test

The multiple-choice grammar test consists of 100 questions adopted from Allen's (2004) Oxford Placement Test 2. The multiple choice grammar test was chosen because it helps assess the grammatical competence of the participants in the present study. Their grammatical competence constitutes a great part of their L2 pragmatic competence. Discrete-point exercises like multiple choice exercises are considered as the most well-known tests that help determine the grammatical competence of L2 learners (Allen, 2004). In these exercises, L2 learners are required to demonstrate their knowledge on one point of grammar at a time; and the total performance on these individual points indicate the overall grammatical ability of L2 learners. Discrete-point exercises possess certain desirable characteristics such as ease of construction, being easy to administer, and easy to score (Heaton, 1975). According to Rivers and Temperley (1978), a discrete-point exercise has other advantages, namely (1) it forces learners to think over and over again of the various rules included in the exercise, (2) the great number of choices prevents learners from succeeding through guessing, except by fluke, and (3) even the fluke probability is reduced due to the fact that learners might think that they know at least some of the items, so they do not depend on pure guesswork for the complete exercise. The multiple-choice test includes one hundred sentences, each sentence has three probable choices, and the total score is 25 marks. Participants are required to tick the word which they think represents the correct answer. Multiple-choice exercises also include sentences covering tenses, such as the simple past and present tenses, the past and present perfect tenses, and the past progressive. It covers other grammar rules like the use of 'any' and 'some'; the comparative adjective forms; the conditional 'if'; the relative clauses, etc.

4.5.5 Vocabulary Test

The selected thirty items of the vocabulary test were adopted from Nation's (2012) vocabulary test, Victoria University of Wellington, available at <http://www.lextutor.ca/>. Nation's vocabulary size test contains a selection of 14,000 words with 140 multiple-choice questions including 10 items. These items represent each 1,000 family word level. The total score is

multiplied by 100 to calculate the vocabulary size of each learner. The vocabulary size test is intended to measure the English vocabulary size of both the L1 and L2 learners. It measures the written word form knowledge and meanings. The test can be used for instructional and research purposes. The instructional purposes help design syllabi, to also include vocabulary learning and extensive reading. On the other hand, the research purposes include measuring the total vocabulary size of both native speakers and ESL/EFL learners. Frequency order is the main basis on which the test items are arranged. However, at advanced levels the frequency order may frustrate learners. Thus, it would be better to mix the levels by including the higher frequency words in all levels. This order is likely to keep learners engaged in the whole test. To meet the reliability and validity criteria of a vocabulary test, Nation's (2012) test was chosen for the current study because it was validated and found to be reliable through a test of 200 Japanese students (Beglar, 2010). In addition, the individual comments of some native-speaker applied linguists involved in the assessment process were taken into considerations. A test-wise native speaker tried to choose the correct answer when the target word was replaced with a nonsense word.

In Beglar's (2010) study, the frequency levels of words were checked by administering the test through a range programme. The test was conducted on a sample of 200 Japanese students by using the Rasch-based analysis. The test reliability never changed independent of different circumstances. Beglar (2010) compared the performance of different proficiency levels male and female learners in the test, the 70-item version to 170-item version. The Rasch reliability coefficient was .96. As to the vocabulary test applied in the present study, Table 4.6 shows the selection of vocabulary questions from each 1000-word family, ranging from the first 1000-word family to the fourteenth 1000-word family. The selected questions for the purpose of the present study were 30 questions where participants were asked to circle the letter (a-d) with the closest meaning to the keyword in the question and the total score was 15 marks.

Table 4.6: Selection of vocabulary questions based on Nation's (2012) vocabulary size test

10 items from	140 multiple choice test Original number	Chosen number in this study's test
first 1000	5	1
	10	2
second 1000	14	3
	19	4
third 1000	23	5
	28	6
fourth 1000	32	7
	37	8
Fifth 1000	41	9
	46	10
	50	11
Sixth 1000	55	12
	59	13
Seventh 1000	64	14
	68	15
Eighth 1000	73	16
	77	17
Ninth 1000	82	18
	86	19
Tenth 1000	91	20
	95	21
	100	22
Eleventh 1000	104	23
	109	24
Twelfth 1000	113	25
	118	26
Thirteenth 1000	122	27
	127	28
Fourteenth 1000	131	29
	136	30

4.5.6 Multiple-Choice Listening Test

The current study adopted the listening test which was part of Allen's (2004) placement test. The test was chosen because of its reliability and validity. It is reliable, as it has been intensively used to determine the proficiency levels of L2 learners. It is internally and externally valid based on the factors of both internal and external validity explained earlier in this chapter (see 4.4 Validity and Reliability of Data Instruments). It was chosen because assessment of the participants' listening skills constitutes a great part in assessing their L2 linguistic competence, which is one of the independent variables whose effect on the development of L2 pragmatic competence is being examined. The listening test consisted of 100 items where participants were asked to choose the words they heard in a provided column. The column bore serial numbers for all the items and the total score was 25 marks. In fact, the tested words were minimal pairs (e.g. soup/soap, wine/vine, shirts/shorts, expendable/expandable, eight/late, pen/pan, race/rice, flight/fright, election/selection, chairman/German, joking/choking, prize/price, etc.) which play an important role in determining L2 learners' listening and speaking skills, on the one hand, and in distinguishing English native speakers from non-native speakers, on the other. Participants were asked to distinguish between phrases that had similar ways of pronunciation. Further examples include the ability to differentiate between the tested words in item nos. 58, 85, and 96, "respectively, "back in/ backing", "an ice cold/ a nice cold", and "Catalan/ cattle".

4.6 Ethical Considerations

In accordance with the principles of the Data Protection Act 1998 and the EU Directive 95/46 on Data Protection, all studies involving humans at the UK universities require ethical approval. I submitted an application for ethical approval to the Department of English and Media Research Ethics Panel. For the ethical approval, I had to prepare a participant information sheet and a participant consent form. The participants' information sheet included information about the study that is the research title, my affiliation, the research objectives, the schedule of the data collection sessions, and usefulness of the results. Further, it informed the potential participants that their participation did not expose them to any risk and they were free to withdraw from the study at any time without giving reasons. My contact email was also available to them for further information or any in case of complaints. On the consent form, the participants acknowledged that they had read the information sheet, understood their roles, and authorised the university to

use the data provided by them for the purpose of this research project. As part of my ethics application, I went through obligatory research ethics training at Anglia Ruskin University. Consent and participant information sheet are included in the appendices as Appendix I and Appendix II, respectively.

4.7 Methodological Challenges

There have been methodological challenges of how to appropriately use the research methods in applied linguistics in general and L2 pragmatics in particular. Such methodological challenges have been extensively debated (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013). Instruments of data collection have been part of this debate as different instruments have their advantages and disadvantages, as discussed earlier in this chapter. Thus, data collection instruments constituted, from the L2 pragmatic perspective, a great challenge for this study. As practically evident, the expansion of research methodology as to how to measure L2 pragmatic competence depends on the currently available reliable and valid research findings. The major challenges to this project were the recruitment and retention of suitable subjects and native-speaker assessors and interlocutors. For example, it was challengeable to recruit and retain native-speaker assessors and interlocutors with suitable and sufficient time availability for the required practices and procedures. In addition, the logistics of coordinating and keeping the participants committed to the project posed a challenge. An extensive amount of time and effort was devoted to the data collection, involving different stages and steps, such as scheduling of sessions for data collection. Throughout this process, various approaches were discussed carefully with an expert native speaker, particularly discussion on the practical challenges encountered when using a mixed methods approach.

After the work plan had been completed, one of the most difficult stages of this study was to recruit assessors. Meetings took place with about six potential assessors in different places in Cambridge. Some of them expressed their interest, while others rejected the offer due to commitment issues related to a three-stage data collection procedure; it would be hard for them to follow the work plan of data collection. After the completion of the pilot study, the decision was made to run all the tests and administer the questionnaire at once. This difficulty was related to the management of both assessors and participants. The task of finding suitable assessors working as language instructors at the university was challenging, as no replies were received to the emails requesting their cooperation. Then, language teachers working at the English

Language schools in Cambridge were targeted by emails to the school principals. Some principals directly refused to forward the request to their staff, as they did not wish their staff to be engaged in additional activities, others referred the matter to the English language teachers themselves. Finally meeting took place with some language teachers from Bell School, Studio Cambridge, and Cambridge Assessment, but they all declined the offer to assist in the study. Eventually a language instructor working at Cambridge University agreed to be involved in the study. Then, two of her colleagues were approached to become assessors, but they opted out since the engagement would span over more than one year. Finally, two language teachers from English School Centre agreed to take part in the project. However, one of them did not continue the work till the end. As a replacement, a language instructor working at one of the colleges in Cambridge, who had an extensive experience in the field, was found. She accepted the offer and became the interlocutor for the role plays.

4.8 Pilot Study

This section introduces the pilot study, its objectives and procedures of recruiting the participants. It sheds some light on the methodological problems which the current study went through in recruiting both the participants and the assessors.

4.8.1 Purpose of the Pilot Study

The pilot study was carried out for two main reasons: firstly, to test the logistics of the data collection procedure, so as to be able to make any necessary adjustments to help the main study run as smoothly as possible; secondly, to pre-test the instruments of data collection, namely the open role plays, simple DCT questionnaire, background sociolinguistic questionnaire and language tests (usage and attitude), as well as the language tests. The objectives of the pilot study in this respect were to: (1) assess the practicability and appropriateness of the pragmatic competence situations (role plays, DCT) and the language tests items in order to give indication whether the situations and items needed further refinement; (2) obtain assessors' views and suggestions on the situations and language items; (3) determine the level of difficulty or easiness of the items; and (4) assess the reliability of the data collection instruments (role plays, DCT, usage and attitude questionnaire, and language tests).

4.8.2 Recruitment and Participants of the Pilot Study and the Main Study

I found no difficulty engaging the Saudi participants because of my position as a consultant for the Saudi students in Cambridge. An announcement was made at the Saudi club in Cambridge of recruitment of Saudi participants for a doctoral study and many responses were received from the club members. It was difficult, on the other hand, to find suitable Chinese participants. For this purpose, more emails were sent to the English language schools in Cambridge. Some of these schools allowed take place meeting with their Chinese students and some denied the request. Most of the targeted Chinese students refused to take part in the pilot study because of the large number of questions they would have to answer. Even those who initially showed some interest were reluctant to participate, as they did not want to be videotaped. For this reason, the decision was taken to use audio recording rather than video. Eventually, seven Saudi students (all male) and seven Chinese students (4 male and 3 female) participated in the pilot study. In return for their participation, they were offered either £10 or a book token. Alternatively, provided they committed themselves to participate in the further stages, they would be rewarded with £20 for the second stage or one hour free English language tuition as one-to-one English language tutorial. For the third stage, £30 was offered to each participant.

4.8.3 Procedures of the Pilot Study and the Main Study

The original intention was to administer the data collection instruments in two separate sessions on consecutive days; one session in which the participants would undertake the written tests, and one in which they would undertake the oral components (interview and role play). This was to minimise any waiting time for individuals, while keeping the conditions as consistent as possible across participants, for reasons of experimental validity. However, because of the difficulty of recruiting and retaining the Chinese participants, it was decided to attempt to run all the tests in a single session, since this would require less commitment overall on their part. The session started with an introductory presentation, whereby the procedure was explained, including the fact that the role plays would be audio recorded.

In accordance with the ethics policy, the participants were given the opportunity to read the participant information and to ask questions prior to signing their consent forms. According to plan, the writing test was followed by the listening test, and the vocabulary test, all in the same room. I had made sure that the assessors perfectly understood all their instructions for the interview. Only after each interview, the interviewer also assessed the participant's writing, so as

not to be influenced by the writing in assessing the speaking. Appendix J shows the schedule for the pilot study session. As, for the main study, the same procedures were adopted as for the pilot study for the participant recruitment, as in carrying out the main study, and in the study conduct. Appendix K summarises the adopted steps of the participants' management during the administration of the tests.

4.8.3.1 General Procedures

This section describes the adopted steps of data collection procedures. The speaking and writing assessors, including the interlocutor in the role play were contacted and their availability was coordinated via Doodle. After confirming the dates and time with the assessors, emails were sent to all the participants inviting them to attend the data collection session, with a visit paid at their respective language schools to ensure their attendance at the weekend; upon the participants' arrival, created, with the participants' contact details, nationality, and ID numbers.

4.8.3.2 Simple DCT Procedure

Participants were instructed to note down what they would say in the DCT situations in real life. They were asked to write as much as they thought they would actually say in one-turn response. After all the data they (i.e. participants' responses) were collected, they were anonymised and randomised in order to make the rating of the data as objective as possible. The English native speaker rated the participants' performance for pragmatic success and formality. The rater judged the overall success of the participants' responses of apology in the simple DCT situations. Rating was done according to a 0-5 scale (6 levels), where 5=very satisfied, 4=satisfied, 3=somewhat satisfied, 2=unsatisfied, 1=very unsatisfied, and 0= participants did not understand the task. As for the formality assessment, the rater was asked to rate the participants formality, which is the degree to which the respondent's language appropriately admits the fault in a given social situation, according to 0-3 scale (4 levels) where 3 = excessively formal for the situation, 2 = appropriate for the situation in terms of formality, 1 = excessively informal for the situation and 'NA' (0) = impossible to assess the formality. For more detail, see the simple DCT rating grid in Appendix A3.

4.8.3.3 Role Plays Procedure

The open role plays were conducted in random order with respect to the variables. The role play facilitator acted the scenarios out with each participant individually after giving appropriate instruction and thorough explanation of the participants' roles. In the present study, two English native speakers, who were also experienced teachers of English as a Foreign Language, were recruited to conduct the apology open role plays with the participants. One of the facilitators acted as an interlocutor in all the open role plays. In this regard, the interlocutor was instructed to encourage the participants to speak as naturally as possible by making turns with the participants to ensure sequential speech, while the other observed the open role plays and rated the participants' performance for pragmatic success and formality.

Participants were asked to perform the open role plays of eight apology situations, which varied in terms of familiarity, social power, and imposition. Appendix B includes the English version of the open role play scenarios and the participants' instructions. The open role plays were conducted as follows: Instructions were given to the interlocutor with the outline of the eight situations in which the participants were to apologise to the interlocutor (see Appendix B1). The interlocutor was instructed to explain the situations to the participants who previously had read the first language translations of the open role plays (see Appendices B2 and B3 for the English and Arabic version and the English Chinese version, respectively). The interlocutor was also instructed to start and run the open role plays and to manage the timing (see Appendix B4 for the role plays rating grid), whereas the second native speaker's mainly role was to observe the open role and rate the participants' performance for pragmatic success and formality. The overall success was measured on the rating scale from 1-5 where 5=very satisfied, 4=satisfied, 3=somewhat satisfied, 2=unsatisfied, and 1=very unsatisfied. For the formality rating purposes, the rater was asked to assess the participants based on a 1-3 scale (3 levels) where 3 = excessively formal for the situation, 2 = appropriate for the situation in terms of formality, and 1 = excessively informal for the situation.

The interlocutor was also instructed to be as realistic as possible and to not simply accept the first attempt at apology whenever the participant's response did not meet the expected apology required for such a situation. As for the initial approach and attitude to each participant, the interlocutor was asked to be as consistent as possible and to react to each participant's response naturally. Due to these reasons, there was not a '0' degree on the scale in the open role plays rating. The interlocutor was also in charge of ending each open role play whenever the

interaction was concluded. As for the participants, they were informed to apologise to someone in each of the eight situations. They were asked to pay attention to the different social relationships and power differentials embodied in each situation. They were instructed to ask for clarification if they did not understand any part after reading the eight scenarios. The participants were asked to act out the eight scenarios, speak English, and naturally say what they would say in real life situations. They were further asked to respond to all the interlocutor's utterances and only end the open role play whenever the interlocutor signalled its end. The original plan was to video record the open role plays to allow the observers to revisit the open role plays in case they forgot the pilot study plan. However, due to the difficulty of finding participants who would agree to being video recorded, all the role play scenarios were in the end audio recorded using a digital voice recorder. The Chinese participants felt shy to be videotaped. In addition, evaluation of the participants' overall success was concurrently done while they were acting out the open role plays.

4.8.3.4 Sociolinguistics Background Questionnaire (Usage and Attitude) Procedure

The participants provided specific personal information and signed the university's ethics form; they were also reassured that this information would remain confidential. In Part II, participants were required to put a tick (✓) before the answer that represented their opinions best. Appendix C includes the English version of the Background Questionnaire (Usage and Attitude). The Background Questionnaire (Usage and Attitude) English and Arabic is enclosed Appendix C1; the English version was translated into Arabic. The Background Questionnaire (Usage and Attitude) English and Chinese is to be found in Appendix C2 (also translated into Chinese from English). The participants were instructed to complete the forms (C1 and C2). The translations were only provided for better understanding but they were required to respond to the English version of the questionnaires. It took approximately 30 minutes for the participants to complete the background questionnaire. Appendix C3 contains the Background Questionnaire (Usage and Attitude) which describes the scores and sources of the Sociolinguistics Background Questionnaire (Usage and Attitude).

4.8.3.5 Essay Writing Procedure

Regarding the administration of this task, the participants were asked to write up to 250 words on the cultural differences between their countries and the United Kingdom, and were allowed fifteen minutes to do this. An experienced teacher of English as a Foreign Language, who is also a native speaker of English, was recruited to assess the essays based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The reasons for choosing (CEFR) are as follows: It distinguishes different dimensions of language proficiency and provides assessing points and levels of measuring language development not only in light of linguistic rules, but also in accordance with sociocultural awareness. In addition, the assessment is coherent in its needs, objectives, and content. The framework is flexible in the sense that it is applicable and usable for various purposes pertinent to language learning and teaching. Moreover, it is dynamic because it can be refined. The essay-writing task is included in Appendix D. The total score for overall written production is 20 marks, as indicated in Appendix D1. Table 4.7 summarises the score criteria adopted to assess the participants' writing ability.

Table 4.7: Schedule of participants' writing ability

Score criteria	Description
C2 (18-20)	Can write clear, smoothly flowing, complex texts in an appropriate and effective style and with a logical structure, which helps the reader to find significant points.
C1 (15-17)	Can write clear, well-structured texts of complex subjects, underlining the relevant salient issues, expanding and supporting points of view at some length with subsidiary points, reasons and relevant examples, and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion.
B2 (12-14)	Can write clear, detailed texts on a variety of subjects related to their field of interest, synthesising and evaluating information and arguments from a number of sources.
B1 (9-11)	Can write straightforward connected texts on a range of familiar subjects within their field of interest, by linking a series of shorter discrete elements into a linear sequence.
A2 (6-8)	Can write a series of simple phrases and sentences linked with simple connectors like 'and', 'but' and 'because'.
A1 (five or less)	Can write simple isolated phrases and sentences.

4.8.3.6 Interview Procedure

The interview took place in a separate room and was conducted by a different assessor. This pointed to sound methodology adopted in conducting the interview test and the open role plays separately by two different assessors. Furthermore, this also reveals the importance of using native-speaker assessors in assessing the L2 pragmatic output of non-native speaker participants. The interview task is described in Appendix E. The assessor rated the interviewees based on their

linguistic errors. Such errors include those of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, as well as inappropriate sounds, stress, and intonation. Also, the assessor took into account the participants' ability to produce intelligible, spontaneous, and fluent speech. The interview session lasted approximately for ten minutes for each participant. As soon as the interview was completed, the assessor directed the participant to complete the rest of the tasks by means of other data collection instruments. As to the assessment of the interview, the assessor was specifically instructed to assess the participants' fluency (vocabulary range and control, and grammatical accuracy); pronunciation (phonological control, sounds, stress, and intonation); interactive communication (communicative strategies); and task achievement (degree of need for the interviewer's support). The total score for the interview was 15 marks, whereby each of the test items (fluency, vocabulary accuracy and range, pronunciation, interactive communication, and task achievement) bore 3 marks, respectively. Table 4.8 summarises the criteria for interview assessment.

Table 4.8: Cambridge Certificate of Advanced English (CAE), Paper 5: Criteria for Assessment (1991)

Test criteria	Illustrative scales	Score out of 15
Fluency	Fluency	
Accuracy and range	Vocabulary range and control Grammatical accuracy	
Pronunciation	Phonological control, sounds, stress and intonation	
Interactive communication	Cooperative strategies	
Task achievement	Needs for interviewer support	
Total		

4.8.3.7 Multiple-Choice Grammar and Listening Tests Procedures

An illustrative example for the grammar test was provided to the participants who were asked to tick the correct answer among three choices. Before the test/at the beginning of the test, the participants were given five illustrative examples for the listening test.

4.8.4 Evaluation of the Pilot Study

The pilot study was extremely useful in confirming certain positive characteristics of the data collection instruments, namely the open role plays, simple DCT, sociolinguistic background questionnaire and the language tests. Firstly, it provided evidence that all the items included in these instruments were clear and understandable as none of the participants reported any difficulty in understanding any of them. This might be attributed, in part, to the translation into their mother languages. It also indicated that the time allocated to the administration of the instruments was adequate. The participants were cooperative, and the interviewer and open role play organisers were committed and devoted in carrying out their tasks. The pilot study was particularly useful as it drew my attention to the difficulty of recruiting the right participants for the data collection. This problem could be addressed prior to the main study by contacting the institutions in which Saudi and Chinese students were enrolled early enough. This procedure ensured availability of the required number of participants. In addition, the pilot study provided data that was used to estimate the reliability of the instruments. On the other hand, reflection on the pilot study revealed some drawbacks related to the organisation and administration of the data collection process that needed to be taken into consideration and rectified in the main study, since they could invalidate the results.

Firstly, all the Chinese participants undertook the open role plays before the Saudi ones. This introduced some bias into the results, since both the interlocutor and the observer would have been more fatigued and more experienced in the procedure when they assessed the Saudis, as opposed to the Chinese. Either of these factors could have affected how the open role plays were conducted or assessed. The same consideration applied to the interviews. Therefore, in the main study, participants were assessed in random order. Another problem concerned gender. All the Saudi participants in the pilot study were male and the Chinese were female and male. In Saudi Arabia, non-related males and female do not mix at all even in academic setting because of gender segregation due to religious reasons. A female Chinese participant, introduced for there, a confound relation between gender and nationality. Furthermore, since the interlocutor was always

the same, and male, an extra variable was introduced (interlocutors of same or different gender) in the case of both male and female participants. For these reasons, the main study was restricted to male participants only. Another unwanted variable arose from the organisation of the data collection since some participants completed the simple DCT before the open role plays, while for others the order was reversed. There is a risk posed by completing the simple DCT before the open role plays, of namely that drawing the participants' attention to certain apology strategies could affect their performance, or vice versa. In the main study, all participants completed the open role plays before the simple DCT. Furthermore, in the pilot study the participants were interrupted at various stages of the vocabulary or grammar tests, this could have affected their scores. In the main study, these points were taken into account. Finally, for the main study, an extra invigilator was recruited, since it proved difficult for one person to monitor everything, and the participants were asked in advance not to use their mobile phones during the completion of the task, since this proved somewhat disruptive to the procedure.

4.9 Main Study

This section handles the selection of participants by using the snowball sampling.

4.9.1 Additional Snowball Sampling

For the purpose of the main study, the same recruitment method as in the pilot study was used. Additionally, a decision was made to resort to snowball sampling. The snowball sampling method was used due to the difficulty of finding a sufficient number of the Chinese participants. It is based on the simple notion that the researcher can ask the identified participants to recruit other participants. Alternatively, a respondent provides the names of other respondents to the researcher and those new respondents will in turn provide other contact names, and so on (Vogt, 1999; Atkinson and Flint, 2001). Every participant was given an ID with indication of the stage number in which he participated (Table 4.9). The (P) indicates the participants ID.

Table 4.9: Participants' IDs and the number of participation stages

P.ID	Number of Stages	P.ID	Number of Stages	P.ID	Number of Stages	P.ID	Number of Stages
2	1	17	4	27	1	37	3
4	1	18	3	28	1	38	1
8	1	19	4	29	3	39	1
9	1	20	1	30	3	40	1
10	1	21	4	31	3	41	3
12	1	22	4	32	3	42	3
13	1	23	3	33	3	43	4
14	1	24	1	34	3	44	4
15	3	25	1	35	4	45	3
16	1	26	3	36	3	46	3

Table 4.10 shows the number of participants in each stage with their corresponding IDs

Table 4.10: Participants number per Stages of Data Collection

Stage	Number of Participants	Participant ID
1	40	2,4,8,9,10,12,13,14,15,16,17,18,19,20,21,22,23,24,25,26,27,28,29,30,31,32,33,34,35,36,37,38,39,40,41,42,43,44,45,46
2	23	15,17,18,19,21,22,23,26,29,30,31,32,33,34,35,36,37,41,42,43,44,45,46
3	23	15,17,18,19,21,22,23,26,29,30,31,32,33,34,35,36,37,41,42,43,44,45,46
4	7	17,19,21,22, 35,43,44

Table 4.11 indicates the number of data collection stages in which the Saudi participants took part.

Table 4.11: Participation of Saudi Subjects in the Data Collection Stages

P.ID	Number of Stages	P.ID	Number of Stages	P.ID	Number of Stages	P.ID	Number of Stages
2	1	20	1	25	1	41	3
4	1	21	4	37	3	43	4
15	3	22	4	38	1	44	4
18	3	23	3	39	1	45	3
19	4	24	1	40	1	46	3

Table 4.12 indicates the ID of Saudi participants and the number of stages participated in within the four stages of data collection.

Table 4.12: Number of Saudi participants per Stage of Data Collection

Stage	Number of Saudi Participants	Participant ID
1	20	2,4,15,18,19,20,21,22,23,24,25,37,41,38,39,40,43,44,45,46
2	12	15,18,19,21,22,23,37,41,43,44,45,46
3	12	15,18,19,21,22,23,37,41,43,44,45,46
4	5	19,21,22,43,44

Table 4.13 displays representation of the Chinese subjects in the four stages of data collection.

Table 4.13: Participation of Chinese Subjects in the Data Collection Stages

P.ID	Number of Stages	P.ID	Number of Stages	P.ID	Number of Stages	P.ID	Number of Stages
8	1	14	1	28	1	33	3
9	1	16	1	29	3	34	3
10	1	17	4	30	3	35	4
12	1	26	3	31	3	36	3
13	1	27	1	32	3	42	3

Table 4.14 indicates the number and ID of the Chinese participants in the four stages of data collection.

Table 4.14: Number of Chinese participants per Stage of Data Collection

Stage	Number of Chinese Participants	Participant ID
1	20	8,9,10,12,13,14,16,17,26,27,28,29,30,31,32,33,34,35,36,42
2	11	17,26,29,30,31,32,33,34,35,36,42
3	11	17,26,29,30,31,32,33,34,35,36,42
4	2	17,35

4.9.2 Actual Participants

Out of the above-listed participants in all the stages of data collection process, the outliers were excluded. Thus, in the end, only the responses and answers of sixteen participants for each stage were counted for the data analysis of the present study. The sixteen participants were eight Saudi and eight Chinese participants. Only the participants who shortly arrived in the UK, with a

minimum of 28 days and maximum of 348 days of stay in the country were selected. Table 4.15 indicates the number and ID of the Saudi participants in the three stages of data collection.

Table 4.15: Number of Saudi participants per Stage of Data Collection

Stage	Arab Participants	Participant ID
1	8	15, 18, 19, 21, 23, 37, 45, 46
2	8	15, 18, 19, 21, 23, 37, 45, 46
3	8	15, 18, 19, 21, 23, 37, 45, 46

Table 4.16 shows the number and ID of the Chinese participants in the three stages of data collection.

Table 4.16: Number of Chinese participants per Stage of Data Collection

Stage	Chinese Participants	Participant ID
1	8	17, 26, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 42
2	8	17, 26, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 42
3	8	17, 26, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 42

4.10 Data Analysis

This section deals with the analytical tests employed to verify the research questions and hypotheses.

4.10.1 Choice of Apology Strategies Analysis

In chapter five, the qualitative and quantitative analyses of the collected data derived from the Saudi and Chinese participants' responses to the DCT situations and role play scenarios. It focuses on the participants' choice of apology strategies; semantic formulas of their responses, and the content of their adopted apology strategies. Cross tabulation in SPSS, Excel spread sheet tables, and figures were made to compute the choice of apology strategies employed by the Saudi and Chinese participants over the three stages of data collection. The purpose was to determine the frequently used apology strategies by both groups of participants in response to the DCT and

role play situations. This computation facilitated the comparison of the Saudi and Chinese participants' total choice of apology strategies to that of their Chinese counterparts. The favoured apology strategies by both Saudi and Chinese participants were determined, based on the total frequency of occurrence of such strategies among all the Saudi and Chinese participants (for further discussion, see Chapter 5).

4.10.1.1 Newly Devised Coding Scheme for Apology Strategies

Various coding schemes for apology strategies were reviewed in Chapter 2. However, as mentioned before, the present study introduced some new coding schemes for apology strategies. In Particular, (i) a differentiation is made between 'sorry' and 'I am sorry'. In contrast to the common classification of 'sorry' as an IFID strategy, based on consultations with educated native speakers, 'sorry' was determined to differ considerably from 'I am sorry'. Hence, 'sorry' required to be classified by itself because as an indicator of indifference and dismissal on the part of the offender and not as reflecting a strong apology, as expressed by 'I am sorry'. (ii) Decided to further differentiate between different variants of upgraders, e.g. 'upgrader1+ sorry', as in "I am very sorry", 'upgrader2 + sorry', as in "very very sorry", and 'upgrader3 + sorry', as in "very very very sorry". (iii) A category for silence, for when participants gave no response was additionally created. (IV) Apparently unrelated response (AUR), this strategy means that the offender provides an unrelated response to the situation of offense.

This section below justifies the classification of the new apology strategies and the distinction between these strategies according to my viewpoints.

In the following a justification is provided for the separate classification of 'sorry' and 'I'm sorry' see (Ogiermann 2009); drawing on definitions of 'sorry' and 'I'm sorry' by Aijmar (1996), Cohen (1996), Owen (1983), Coulmas (1981), and Lazare (2004); as well as intensification of 'sorry' discussed in ' as Coulmas (1981), Blum-Kulka, et al. (1989), and Ogiermann (2009). As for 'sorry', there should be a further distinction made between the explicit forms of apology 'sorry' and 'I'm sorry'. The choice of either form of apology reflects the illocutionary force of apology which subjects to the contextual variables of the situation (Ogiermann, 2009). Al-Qari (2017) found that the Saudi female participants, contrary to the Saudi males, preferred the use of 'I'm sorry' to that of 'sorry'. They used 'I'm sorry' four times more frequently than 'sorry'. Indeed, Ogiermann (2009) classified 'sorry' in isolation from other IFID strategies. Ogiermann (2009):

96) explained that there is a strong preference among the British to use the full form 'I'm sorry' when expressing regret rather than the short form 'sorry'. For the British, it is the type of offence severity which determines the choice of either the full or the short form to express regret. The short form 'sorry' is often used by the British whenever the offence is of mild imposition while the full form 'I'm sorry' is often used whenever the offence is of serious imposition. In the mild imposition offences, the victim does not suffer any serious damages or disturbances. These offences include, for example, slips of the tongue or slips of physical control, as clarified by Owen (1983: 67).

Searle's (1979) definition of apology reflects the British concept of apologising. The full form 'I'm sorry' reflects the standard of realising apology speech act among the British and its high usage frequency emphasises that it is generally accepted as an apology among the British. However, some linguists like Coulmas (1981) and Lazare (2004) viewed 'I'm sorry' in a compassionate sense. They believed that 'I'm sorry' could be interpreted as a sign of sympathy which is hoped to be perceived as an apology. Some other linguists like Aijmar (1996: 92) and Cohen (1996: 383) viewed the short form 'sorry' as a reflection of the offender's arrogance and rudeness because it does not imply acceptance of the offence responsibility, but rather it may imply denial of responsibility. Recently, a new sort of apology has been detected which does not reflect genuine acceptance of responsibility and seldom reflects admission of the offence or wrongdoing committed by the offender (Ogiermann, 2009).

The findings reported by Ogiermann (2009: 219) concerning the difference in the use of the full form 'I'm sorry' and the short form 'sorry' among the British are invaluable to the present study. There are statistically significant differences between using 'I'm sorry' and 'sorry' among the British. Their use is usually governed by the contextual variables of the situation. The British strongly tend to use 'I'm sorry' as an apologetic formula when there is a close familiarity with their interlocutors like with friends and acquaintances. However, they tend to use the short form 'sorry' when their interlocutors are strangers. This distribution gives an indication that the use of 'sorry' among the British is not an evidence of a genuine apologetic behaviour. In addition, the use of the full form 'I'm sorry' among the British is also governed by the level of social power. The British tend to use 'I'm sorry' when their interlocutors have higher social power in order to express sincere apology.

As for the use of (ii) upgrader 'UG + sorry', there is a difficulty to distinguish between a routinized ritual apology and a genuine apology. Therefore, the British often tend to use an intensifier or upgrader to express their true feelings for the committed offence. The British may feel that it is inadequate to use a formula of routinized apology, which could be perceived by the victim as a fulfilment of social norms. As such, the British may tend to intensify or upgrade their apology to reflect sincerity of apology (cf. Coulmas, 1981: 69). Intensification or upgrading of apology may occur in different forms like the use of intensification expressions before 'sorry'; expression of concern to the victim, and the use of multiple apology strategies (Blum-Kulka, et al., 1989: 21).

Ogiermann (2009) explained that it is very common for the British to use adverbial intensifiers such as 'really', 'very', 'terribly', and 'truly'. In comparison with the Polish, Ogiermann found that the British used 273 instances of intensifiers compared to 248 instances of intensifiers for the Polish. This frequency of the use of intensifiers accounted for 42% of the British' use of IFID. Ogiermann (2009: 221) explained that the use of upgraders or intensifiers by the British is positively correlated with the social familiarity and negatively, which in turn correlated with the social power. That is, the British use more upgraders with their friends and acquaintances and fewer upgraders with their social status superiors. The governed use of intensifiers by the British in terms of the social power contradicts the findings reported by Olshtain (1989) and Vollmer and Olshtain (1989). These findings emphasised that Hebrew and German speakers preferred to use intensifiers when their interlocutors exhibited higher social power. Ogiermann's finding also contradicts those of House (1989) and Holmes (1990). The highest use of intensifiers occurred in the high status situations.

A study of the apology strategies applied at the level of corporate dealings over Twitter was conducted by Page (2014). Page found that the most frequently used apology strategies identified included 'sorry' and 'apology/apologise'. Contrary to the diachronic studies which indicate the isolated occurrence of 'sorry', Page (ibid.) emphasised that 'sorry' seldom occurs in isolation. There are various examples which Page provided to support this finding. Some of these example are; (1) "Sorry about the problem with the bathroom. We'll make sure our airport leadership sees it"; (2) "Very sorry this has happened, are you able to return it to the store for a full refund"?, and (3) "Hi, very sorry that you have been finding holes in your loaves".

As for (iii) silence, I decided to use a new classification for this strategy to describe the cases of no responses given by the Saudi or Chinese participants during the performance of the role play situations. Linguistically, the word 'silence' means the period of time in which no sound occurs or it refers to the case of being completely quiet. For example, "A loud crash of thunder broke the silence of the night" (Oxford Dictionary). In the course of speech, speakers may resort to keeping quiet in order to mark boundaries of speech. From the viewpoint of discourse analysis, silence reflects speakers' hesitation, stutters, self-correction or their wish to slow down the speech in order to obtain clarification or to process their ideas. Silence may occur in turn-taking or interactive roles, as in the instrument of role plays in the present study. Based on cultural norms, silence may have different interpretations, either positive or negative. Silence is positively viewed when it is a sign of showing respect, as in the Christian religious sermons. Silence can also be viewed negatively; as it may indicate disagreement with what the interlocutor hears (Danielewicz-Betz, 1998). However, in the case of the present study, silence in the role play situations can be interpreted as an indicator of the participants' linguistic inability to respond to the interlocutor. In such cases, silence is classified as non- performance of the speech act of apology.

As for (IV) apparently unrelated response (AUR), this strategy means that the offender provides an unrelated response to the situation of offense. In my opinion, the AUR could be considered either as result of the offender's lack of understanding the exact situation or as a means of apology avoidance. For example, responding to the 'heavy bag' situation the offender may say "I have an urgent appointment and I want the bus driver to drive faster". This type of response has nothing to do with the offense inflicted on the victim. In this case, either the offender did not fully understand the exact situation or the offender wanted to avoid responsibility for the offence and hence provided an unrelated response to the damage which the other passenger endured because of the offense.

4.10.1.2 Classification System for Apology Strategies

The suggested model of apology is a combination of strategies classified in different coding schemes, namely Cohen and Olshtain (1981), Olshtain, and Cohen (1983), Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989), and Bergman and Kasper (1993) along with the New Strategies Coding Scheme proposed by the current study. The examples below are related to situation no. 1 in the role play: ‘You are going to a café to get a takeaway coffee and your boss asks you to bring one back for them too. However, you get talking to someone at the café and forget the drink for your boss. Now you are back in the office with your boss’.

Table 4.17 displays the classification system for the apology strategies identified in the present study.

Table 4.17: Classification system for apology strategies

No	Category	Abbreviation	Example	Source
1	Sorry	Sorry	Sorry.	current study
2	Illocutionary Force Indicating Device	IFID	I’m sorry.	Cohen & Olshtain (1981:119)
3	Upgrader + number + sorry	UG+N	[I’m] so [sorry].	current study
4	Emotional expressions /exclamations	Emotional	Oh dear!	Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989: 290)
5	Admission- first person	AdmissionI	I’ve forgotten your coffee.	current study
6	Admission of fact but not of responsibility	Admission	Your coffee was forgotten.	Blum-Kulka, House, &Kasper (1989:292)
7	Explicit self-blame	ESB	That was stupid of me.	Olshtain & Cohen (1983:23)

8	Lack of intent	LOI	I don't know how I managed to forget it.	Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989:291)
9	Justification of hearer's response	Justification	You're quite right.	Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989:292)
10	Expression of embarrassment	EOE	This is really embarrassing.	Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989:292)
11	Concern for the hearer	Concern	Is your headache very bad?	Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989:291)
12	Offer of repair- related to offence	OOR	I'll go back and get you one now.	Cohen & Olshtain (1981:119)
13	Appeaser- not related to offence	Appeaser	I've got some painkillers if you'd like one.	Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989:294)
14	Promise of forbearance	Promise	I'll make a list next time.	Cohen & Olshtain (1981:119)
15	Denial of responsibility	Denial	It wasn't entirely my fault.	Olshtain & Cohen (1983:23)
16	Minimisation	Minimisation	It's a tiny thing.	Bergman & Kasper (1993:85)
17	Explanation not first person	Explanation	John caught me and wanted to know about the budget projection.	Blum-Kulka, Shoshana & Olshtain (1984:208)
18	Excuse not first person	Excuse	The coffee machine was broken out	Cohen & Olshtain (1981)

19	Blaming the hearer	Blaming	You've told me to keep him happy.	<u>Olshtain & Cohen</u> (1983:23)
20	Innocence of the offence occurrence	Innocence	I didn't know you wanted one.	<u>Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper</u> (1989:294)
21	Pretended ignorance of the offence	PI	I did not hear you well, so I was not sure of what you really wanted to drink.	<u>Blum-Kulka, House &Kasper</u> (1989:294)
22	Querying the precondition	QTP	Are you sure, you said you wanted one?	<u>Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper</u> (1989:293)
23	Humour	Humour	Mind you, have you tasted the coffee in that place? Could be I've done you a favour!	<u>Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper</u> (1989:294)
24	Further task-oriented remark	FTOR	I'll go and get on with my report.	<u>Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper</u> (1989:294)
25	Apparently unrelated response	AUR	It's a lovely day, isn't it?	current study
26	Silence	Silence	... [No response]	current study

4.10.2 Attitude, Usage and L1 Culture

In Chapter 6, the computed attitude scores of both the Saudi and Chinese participants are discussed to determine their classification as either positive or negative types of attitude. The correlation coefficients of the Saudi and Chinese total scores of usage, attitudes, overall success, and formality were computed. The scores corresponding to the 22 items were summed. The summed rating ranged from 22-88 (4 scores rating * 22 items). The summed attitude scores were divided into three categories displayed in Table 4.18., based on Gardner's (2004) scheme of attitude scores.

Table 4.18: Scheme of Attitude Scores

Code	Score range	Description
1	22-44	Very negative
2	45-66	Negative
3	67-88	Positive

These correlation analyses aimed to determine the correlation of variables with each other and to answer the research question regarding the influence of attitude and usage on the participants' overall success. In completion of the correlation analyses, Pearson correlations tests were conducted to determine the existence of any statistical significance differences in overall success and formality, based on attitudes and usage scores (Rasinger, 2013). In this regard, the usage score represented the total responses to questions 1-22, while attitude score represented the total responses of questions 23-44. The overall Success score embodied the total responses to the 26 situations (18 DCT and 8 role play); whereas the formality score referred to the total responses to the 26 situations (18 DCT and 8 role play).

As to the social power in the DCT, the standard deviation and the mean score of each power level (low-high (L-H), equal (E), and high-low (H-L)) versus overall success of all participants was calculated. The standard deviation and mean scores helped reveal the types of variance in terms of the three levels of social power among the Saudi and Chinese participants. One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to indicate whether or not there were statistically significant differences in terms of the three levels of power between the Saudi and Chinese participants and within the two groups over the three stages of

data collection (Rasinger, 2013). The liner regression test was also conducted to verify the significant or insignificant of the social power over the Saudi and Chinese participants' overall success over the three stages. Similar analytical procedures were carried out to measure the influence of the two power levels (low-high (L-H) and equal (E)) on the participants' overall success in the role plays (for further discussion, see Chapter 6).

4.10.3 Time in the UK and Proficiency

In Chapter 7, the impact of the duration of stay in the UK and the level of English proficiency as impacting the development of pragmatic competence are discussed, based on the quantitative analysis of the collected data. The overall success was plotted for each participant with the duration of stay in the UK. The plots were added, including the regression line, the regression line equation and the value of R^2 were displayed. The duration of stay in the UK consists of three values, namely the date of the participants' arrival in the UK till the time of the data collection stages 1, 2, and 3, successively. The overall success refers to the 16 participants' responses to the DCT 26 situations (18 DCT and 8 role plays).

As for grammar, interview, listening, vocabulary, proficiency and writing, the participants' scores were computed against the overall success mean score for each participant. The model of linear regression indicates the gradient, P value and R-value in order to measure the improvement of overall success in terms of each participant's grammar, interview, listening, vocabulary, proficiency, and writing scores over the three stages (for further discussion, see Chapter 7).

4.10.4 Multivariate Analysis and Univariate Linear Models

In chapter eight, multivariate analysis was conducted to verify the predictors for the overall success. For this purpose, six tests of linear regression were carried out to examine the influence of six numerical predictors (i.e. duration of stay in the UK, grammar, interview, listening, vocabulary, and writing) and two categorical predictors; (1) stage: three stages to see if a participant is improving and (2) L1: Arabic and Chinese on the overall success represented in all responses to the 26 mean scores (18 DCT and the 8 role play situations). In each linear model some predictors were taken out. The relevance of the predictors was also examined by using the R package Relaimpo. Relaimpo was used to rank the independent variables and determine the relevance of the predictors. All these analysis procedures were repeated for each linear model.

Univariate linear regression tests were carried out to examine the influence of one independent variable at the time on the participants' overall success. In that case 'stage' was as either the second independent variable or as a factor. The linear models compared the mean scores of the overall success to an independent variable + stage and to an independent variable * stage. In the first model, stage was considered as an independent variable, while in the second model it was used as an interaction factor.

Six main regression models were designed to examine the participants' overall success against, the duration of in the UK, vocabulary, grammar, writing, interview, and listening. Each model indicates two main points (i) whether stage + a variable is statistically significant and (ii) whether stage as an interaction term is significant. Line figures of the means of overall success, average and standard deviation factored by stage and line plot of each of the six independent variables mean and standard deviation factored by stage were drawn. The regression models were plotted to distribute the regression lines according to each stage (for further discussion, see Chapter 8).

4.11 Summary

This chapter has been devoted to the methods of data collection, data analysis, construction and scoring criteria of data collection instruments (open role plays, simple DCT, social background and attitude questionnaire, and English language tests), as well as the administration of the pilot study and the main study. Chapter five will discuss the results of the choice of apology strategies detected in the collected data for both groups of participants. It also will analyse the formality of the Saudi and Chinese participants' apology strategies with the British culture through the assessors' assessment. That is, to measure the appropriateness of their apology responses to the British culture.

Chapter Five: Choice of Apology Strategies: Results and Discussion

5.1 Introduction

This chapter explores the choice of apology strategies employed by the Saudi and Chinese participants in response to the situations of the DCT and role plays at the three stages of data collection. It also analyses the formality of both groups' responses in the DCT and role play situations according to the ratings of the two different native speaking assessors. The assessors' ratings indicate how the Saudi and Chinese apology responses are appropriate to the British culture.

5.2 Choice of Apology Strategies

5.2.1 Saudi Participants

The total frequency of apology strategies chosen eight Saudi participants at the three stages was 1,109. Figures 5.1, 5.2, and 5.3 depict the choice of apology strategies in response to the DCT situations at the three stages of data collection. They indicating the choice of apology strategies by every Saudi participant at each stage of data collection, followed by the total number of apologies of the eight Saudi participants at each stage. The total number of apologies for every participant at the three stages is provided. Moreover, the total number of apologies for all the Saudi participants at the three stages is given.

There was a decrease observed in the number of instances of admission strategy among the eight Saudi participants over the three stages with 36.9%, 33.3% and 29.7%, successively. Similarly, the percentage of choosing admission I strategy decreased over stages 1 and 2, with 42.3%, and 25.4%, respectively. At stage 3, it increased to 32.4% but percentually less compared to stage 1. The choice of appeaser strategy was developed among the Saudi participants over the three stages from 20.0%, to 26.7%, to 53.3%, successively. Although the choice of concern strategy among the Saudi participants drop at stage 2, as 21.7% indicates, it amounted to 39.1% at stages 1 and 3. Denial strategy was only used by the Saudi participants 19 and 23 at stages 1 and 2 having the same percentage of 50%, while it was never used at the third stage. The choice of emotional expression was decreased over the three stages from 37.5%, to 31.3%, and to 31.3%, respectively. The choice of expression of embarrassment (EOE) strategy was developed from stages 1 and 2, with the same percentage of 27.3%, to 45.5% at stage 3. Similarly, the choice of explicit self-blame (ESB) strategy increased from 28.6% at stages 1 and 2 to 42.9% at the third stage. The choice of excuse strategy decreased from 36.9% at stage 1 to 28.7% at stage 2. It then increased to 34.4% at stage 3. As for explanation, its choice was decreased over the three stages from 48.8%, to

32.6%, and to 18.6%, respectively. The choice of further task-oriented remark strategy (FTOR), which did not occur at stage 1 at all, was developed over the second and third stages from 25% to 75%. Although the choice of IFID increased from 35.1% at stage 1 to 37.2% at stage 2, it then decreased to 27.7% at stage 3. Whereas the choice of illocutionary force indicating device (IFID) + upgrader 1(UG1) was not made at stages 1 and 2, it was fully used at stage 3 at 100%. The justification strategy was developed from 14.3% at stages 1 and 2 to 71.4% at stage 3. The choice of lack of intent (LOI) strategy decreased from 37.5% at stage 1 to 25% at stage 2 before bouncing back to 37.5% at stage 3. The choice of offer of repair (OOR) decreased from 31.1% at stage 1 to 29.6% at stage 2 before bouncing up to 40% at stage 3. The choice of promise of Forbearance strategy increased from 27.8% at stage 1 to 38.9% at stage 2 before declining to 33.3% at stage 3. The choice of 'sorry' strategy increased among Saudi participant from 26.5%, to 32.4%, and finally to 41.2% successively. The choice of UG1 decrease at stage 2 with 22.3%, while it increased to 40.5% at stage 3, compared to 37.2% at stage 1. The choice of UG1+IFID increased over the three stages with 28.6%, 33.3%, and 38.1%, respectively. Similarly, the choice of UG2 strategy increased from 28.6% at the first stage to 35.7% at stages 2 and 3. The choice of UG3 strategy decreased to 29.5% at stage 2, compared to 34.7% at stage1, and then increased again to 35.8% at stage 3.

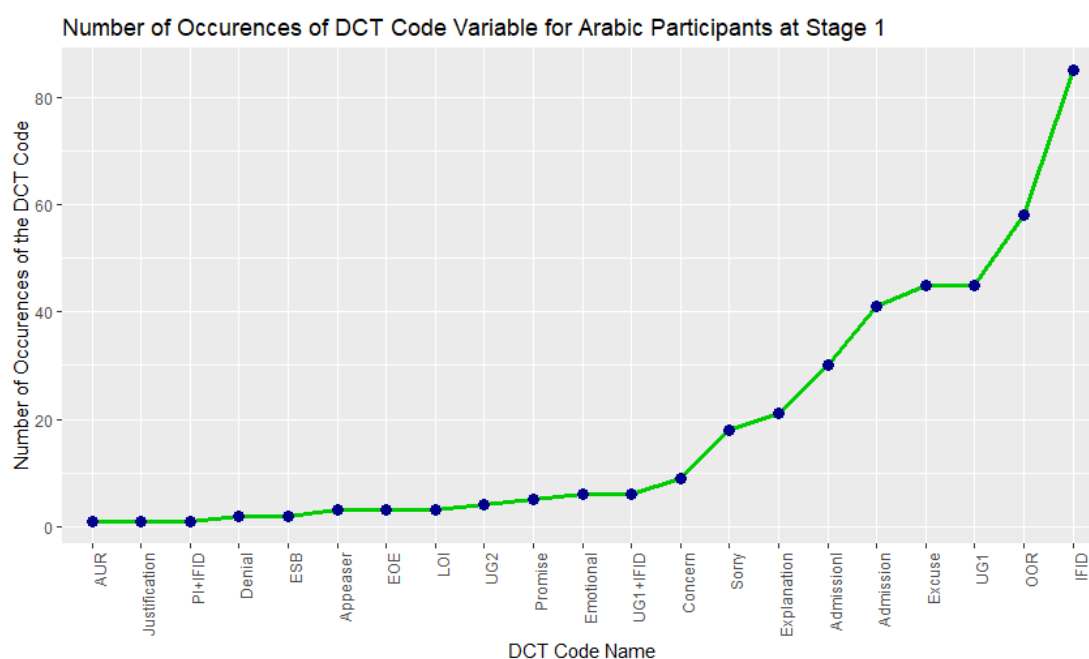


Figure 5.1: Saudi participants' code number of occurrences factored by stage 1 (DCT Situations)

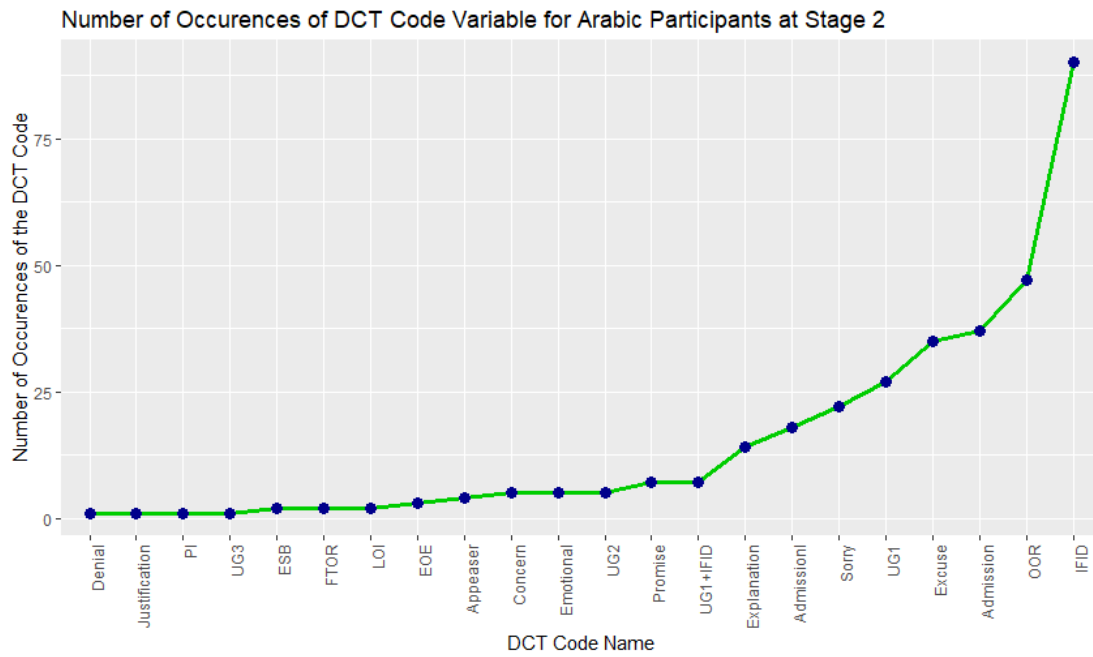


Figure 5.2: Saudi participants' code number of occurrences factored by stage2 (DCT situations)

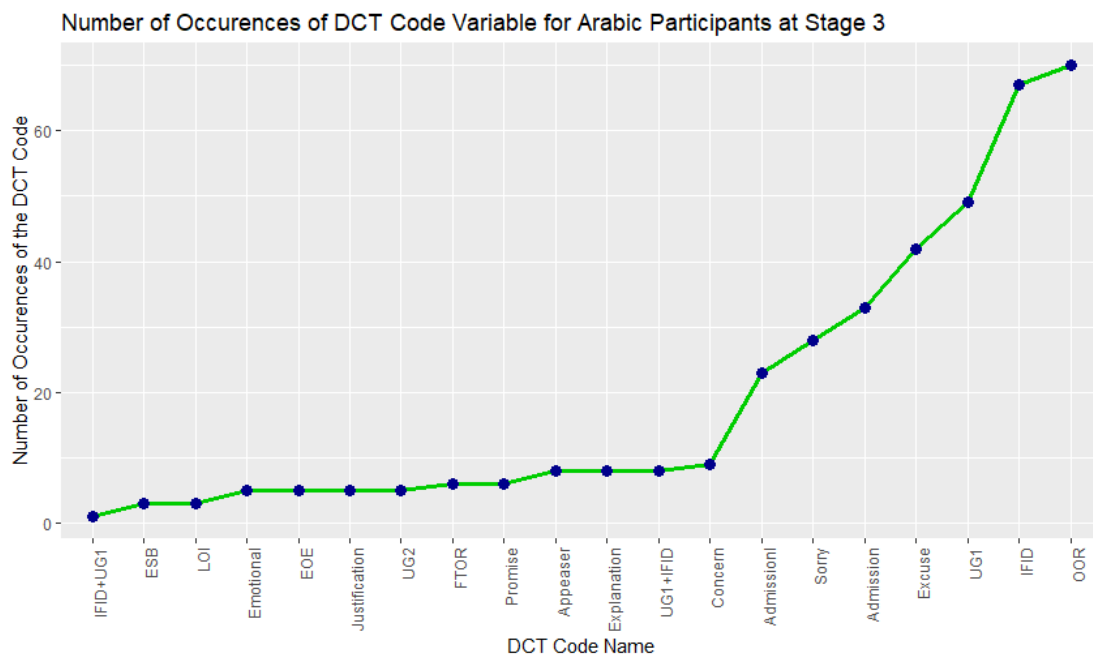


Figure 5.3: Saudi ' code number of occurrences factored by stage3 (DCT)

5.2.2 Chinese Participants

The total instances of apology strategies chosen by all the Chinese participants at the three stages amounted to 1,685. Figures 5.4, 5.5, and 5.6 in detail the choice of Chinese participants of apology strategies in response to the DCT situations. Firstly, the choice of

apology strategies by every Chinese participant at each stage of data collection is indicated. Then, the total choice of apology strategies of all Chinese participants at each stage is provided. Further, the total of apology strategies chosen with respect to every participant at the three stages is given. Finally, the total apology strategies chosen by all the Chinese participants at the three stages are provided.

Contrary to the Saudi participants, the choice of admission strategy increased among the Chinese participants over the three stages, with 25.7%, 34.7% and 39.6% respectively. The choice of admission I increased from 24% at stage 1 to 38.8% at stage 2, before decreasing to 37.2%. The choice of appeaser decreased to 25.7% at stage 2 from 42.9% at stage 1, before increasing to 31.4% at stage 3. The choice of the apparently unrelated response (AUR) strategy decreased from 37.5% at stages 1 and 2 to 25% at stage 3. The choice of concern strategy increased over the three stages, with 23.8%, 28.6% and 47.6%, respectively. Denial decreased from 50% at stage 1 to 25% at stages 2 and 3. The use of emotional expressions increased over the three stages, as represented by 20.5%, 27.3% and 52.3%, successively. The choice of (EOE) increased from 42.9% at stage 1 to 57.1% at stage 2. It never occurred at stage 3. The choice of ESB increased from 13% at stage 1 to 47.8% at stage 2, before declining to 39.1% at stage 3. Similarly, the choice of excuse strategy increased from 24.5% at stage 1 to 39.1% at stage 2, before decreasing to 36.4% at stage 3. The choice of explanation increased from 27.8% at stage 1 to 36.1% at stages 2 and 3. The choice of explanation increased over the three stages, with 31%, 32.9% and 36.2%, respectively. The use of justification strategy increased from 18.2% at stage 1 to 45.5% at stage 2, and declined to 36.4% at stage 3. The choice of OOR strategy decreased from 32.3% at stage 1 to 31.2% at stage 2, and increase to 36.6% at stage 3. The choice of Sorry increased from 30.6% at stage 1 to 37.7% at stages 2 and 3. The choice of UG1 increased at the three stages, as represented by 23.5%, 34.8% and 41.7%, successively. The choice of UG3 decreased from 33.3% at stage 1 to 32.7% at stage 2, and increased to 34% at stage 3.

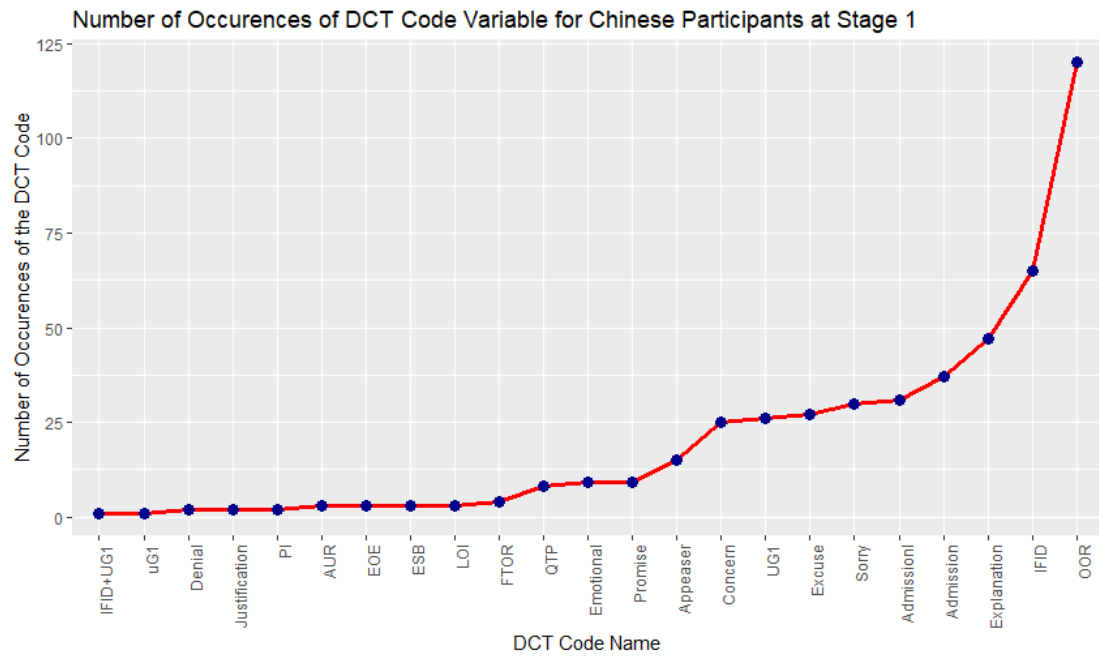


Figure 5.4: Chinese participants' code number of occurrences factored by stage 1 (DCT)

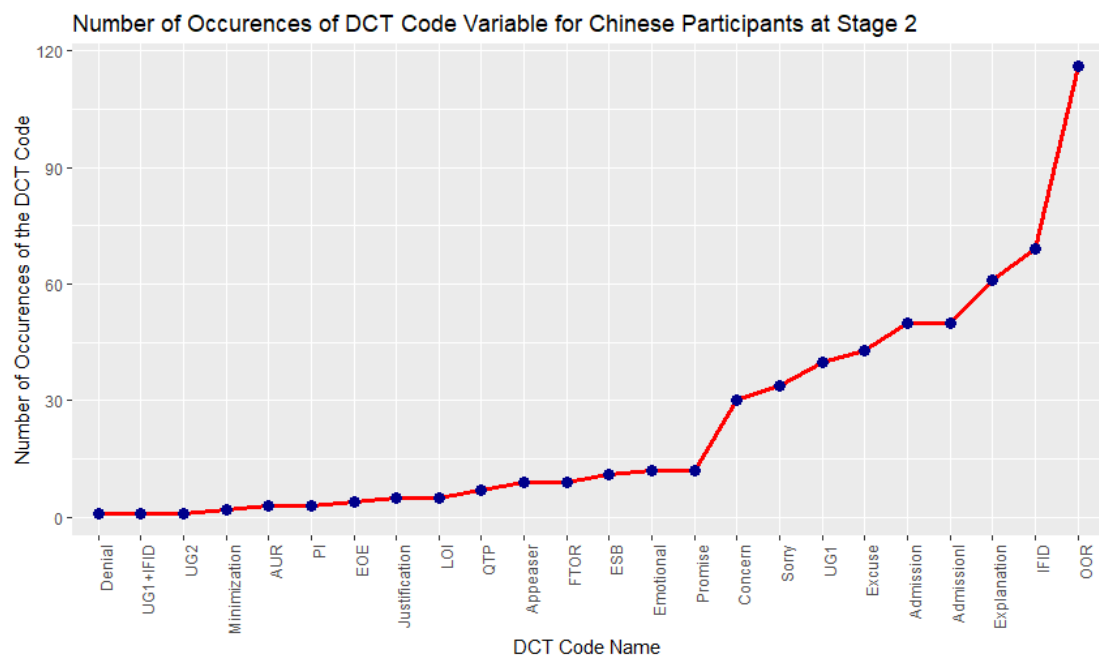


Figure 5.5: Chinese participants' code number of occurrences factored by stage 2 (DCT)

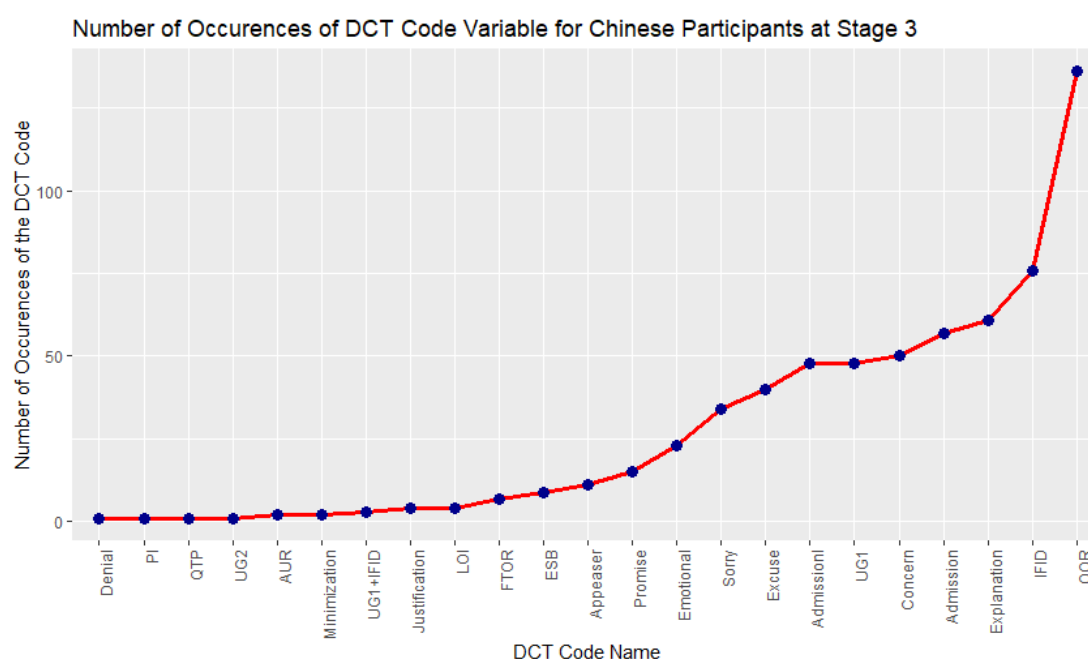


Figure 5.6 Chinese participants' code's number of occurrences factored by stage 3 (DCT situations)

5.3 Choice of Apology Strategies (Role Plays)

This section provides the frequency of apology strategies chosen by Saudi and Chinese participants in replying to the role play situations.

5.3.1 Saudi Participants

Figures 5.7, 5.8, and 5.9 show the number of apology strategies used by the Saudi participants in replying to the role play situations at the three stages. The total frequency of apology instances that occurred in the Saudi participants' role play situations amounted to 1,488 at the three stages. That is, there was an increase in use of apology strategies in the role play situations compared to the DCT situations. The choice of admission, admission I, appeaser, emotional, and excuse strategies increased over the three stages. There was a decrease in using ESB, IFID, and Sorry strategies over the three stages. The choice of explanation decreased from 47 at stage 1 to 27 at stage 2, before increasing to 53 at stage 3. The choice of concern also decreased from 26 at stage 1 to 16 at stage 2 and increased to 23 at stage 3. Similarly, the choice of OOR decreased from 83 at stage 1 to 68 at stage 2, and increased again to 83 at stage 3. The use of UG1 increased from 46 at stage 1 to 52 at stage 2, and decreased to 40 at stage 3.

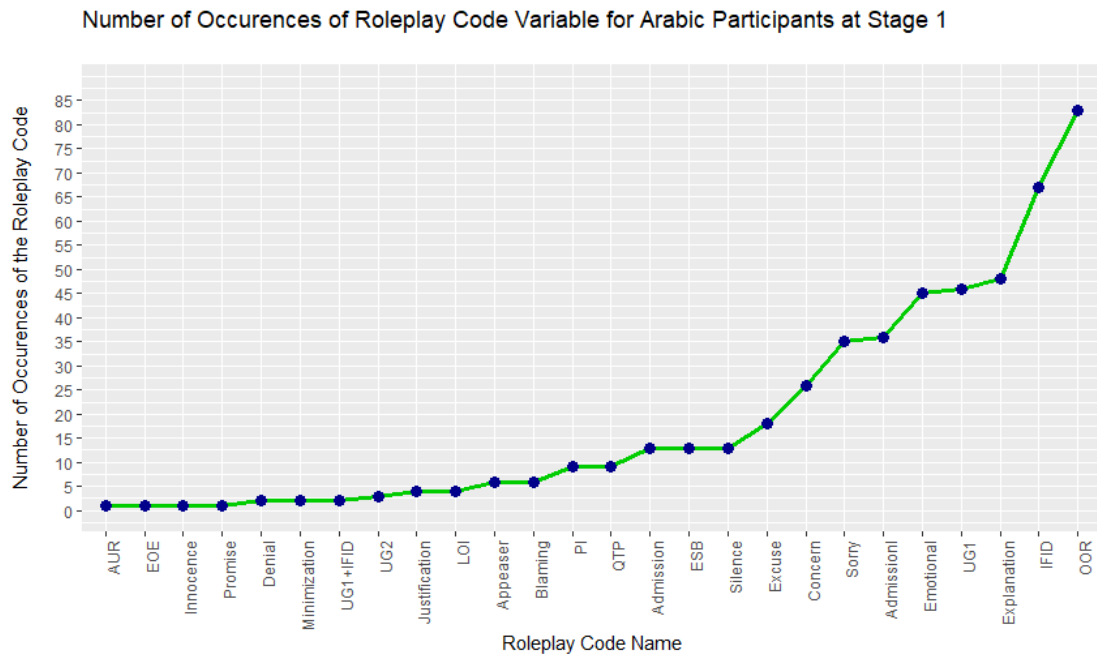


Figure 5.7: Saudi participants' code number of occurrences factored by stage 1 (role play situations)

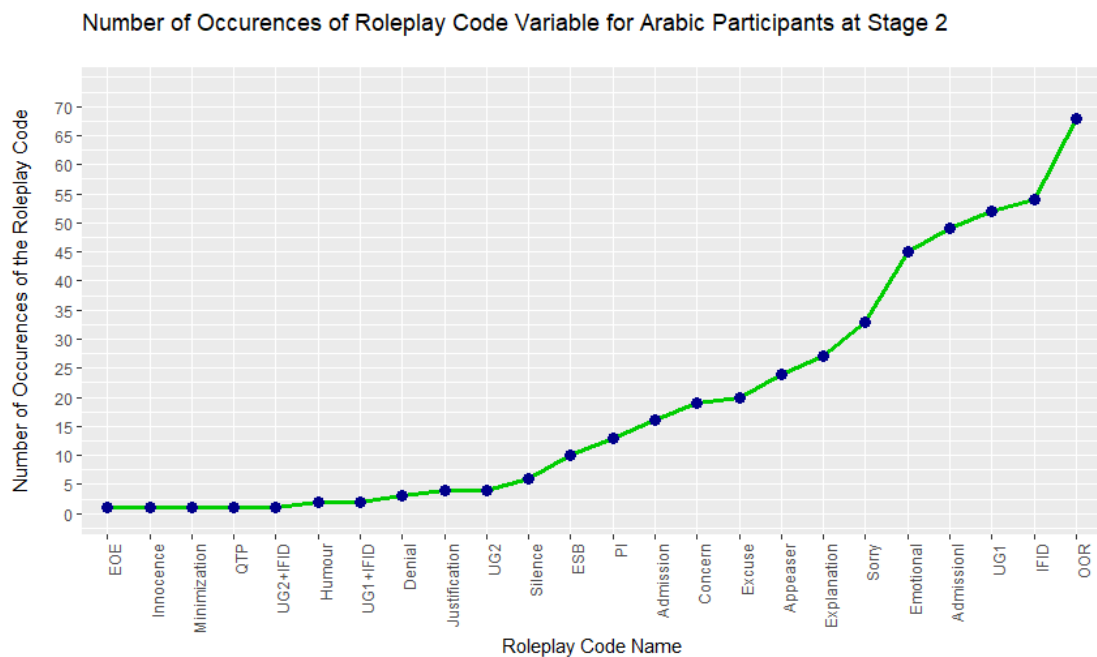


Figure 5.8: Saudi participants' code number of occurrences factored by stage 2 (role play situations)

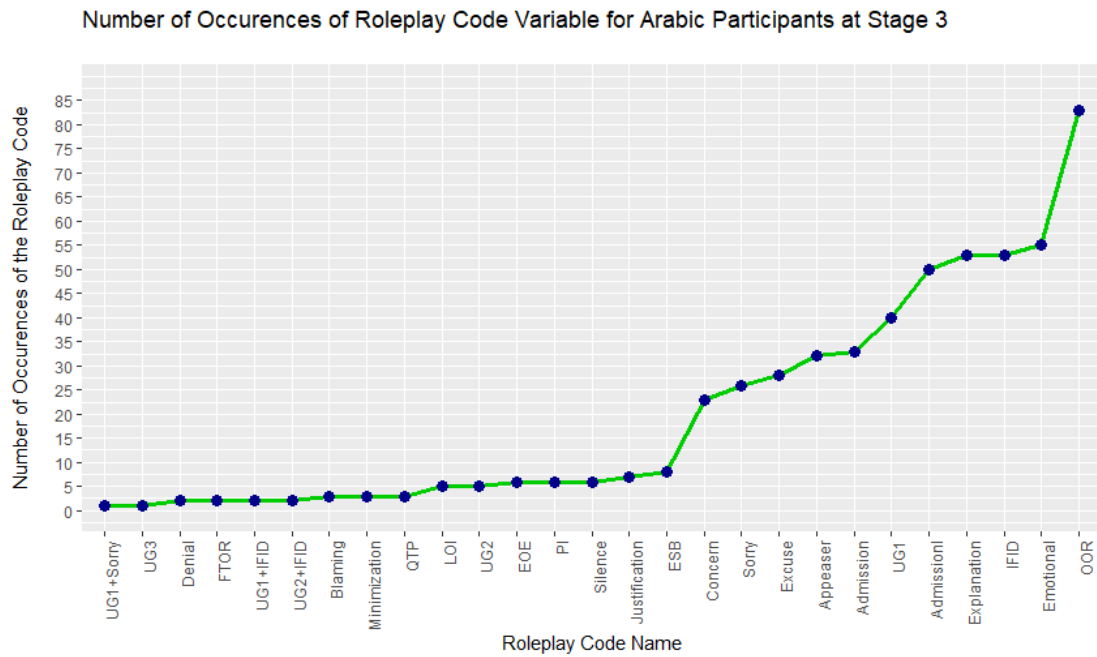


Figure 5.9: Saudi participants' code number of occurrences factored by stage 3 (role plays situations)

5.3.2 Chinese Participants

Figures 5.10, 5.11, and 5.12 indicate the number of apology strategies chosen by the Chinese participants in replying to the role play situations. The total frequency of apology strategies chosen at the three stages amounted to 1,412 instances. That is, the Chinese participants used apology strategies less frequently in response to the role play situations than in the DCT.

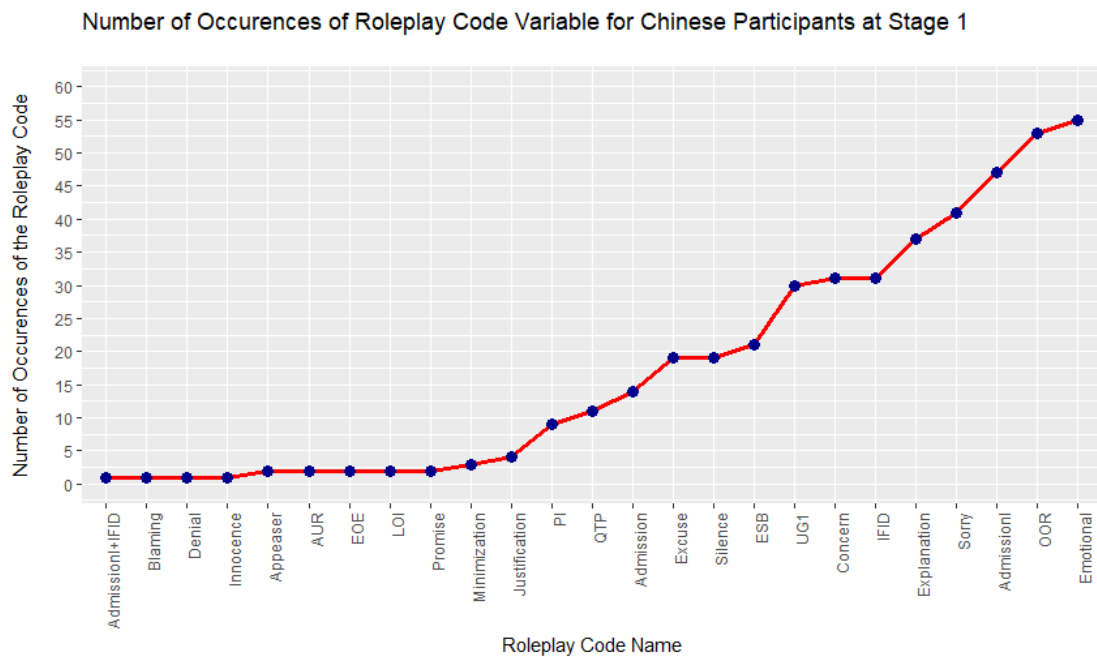


Figure 5.10: Chinese participants' code number of occurrences factored by stage 1 (role play situations)

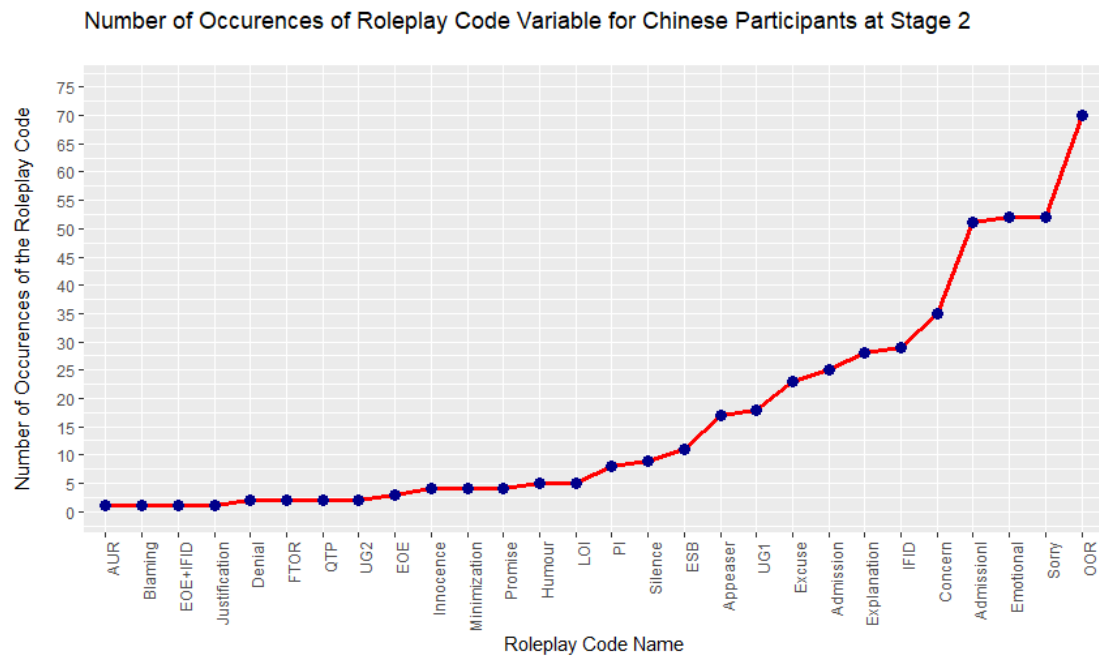


Figure 5.11: Chinese participants' code number of occurrences factored by stage 2 (role play situations)

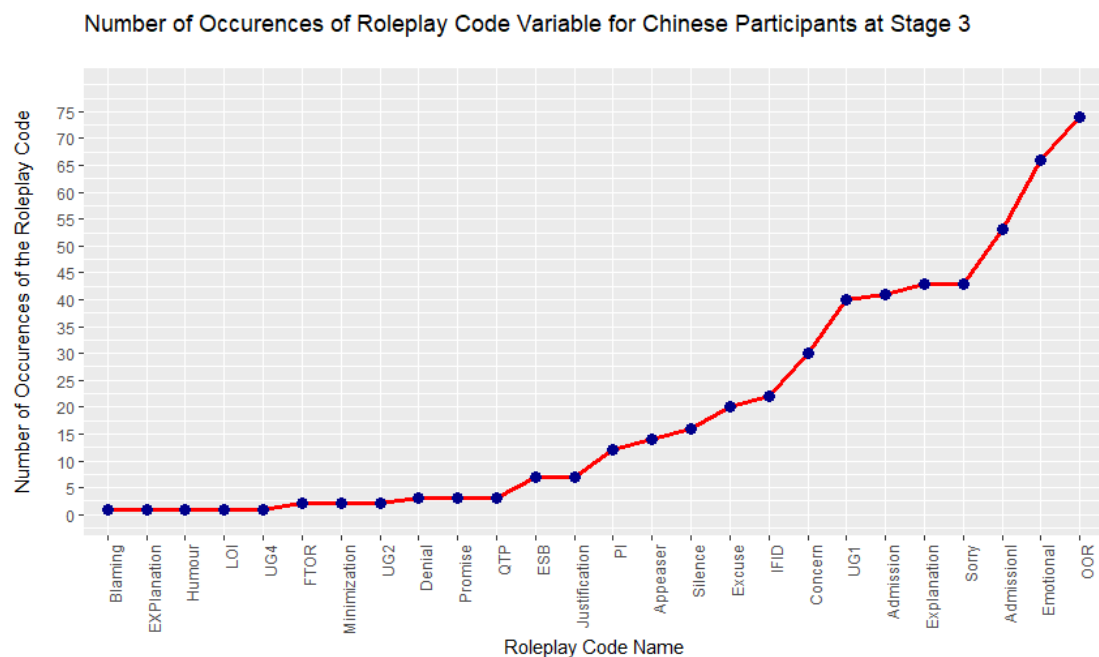


Figure 5.12: Chinese participants' code number of occurrences factored by stage 3 (role play situations)

5.4 Comparison of the Impact of Apology Strategy Choice on Saudi and Chinese Participants' Pragmatic Success

This section compares the choice of both Saudi and Chinese participants of apology strategies in the DCT and role play situations.

5.4.1 DCT

The total frequency of apology strategies chosen by the Saudi participants was 1,109, compared to 1,685 for the Chinese participants at all the three stages. The most frequently used apology strategies by the Saudi participants in the DCT situations included IFID (242), OOR (175), Excuse (122), UG1 (121), and Admission (111). Meanwhile, the most favoured choice of apology strategies the by Chinese participants included IFID (210), Explanation (169), Admission (144), Admission I (129), and Excuse (110).

Figures 5.13, 5.14 and 5.15 separately compare the Saudi and Chinese participants' apology strategies in their responses to the DCT situations at the three stages. The green lines stand for the Saudi participants; whereas the red lines represent the Chinese participants. Figure 5.13 shows the most frequently used apology strategies by the Saudi and Chinese participants (DCT) at stage1; while figure 5.14 indicates the most frequently used apology strategies by both Saudi and Chinese participants at stage2. Figure 5.15 displays the most frequently used apology strategies by both groups of participants at stage 3.

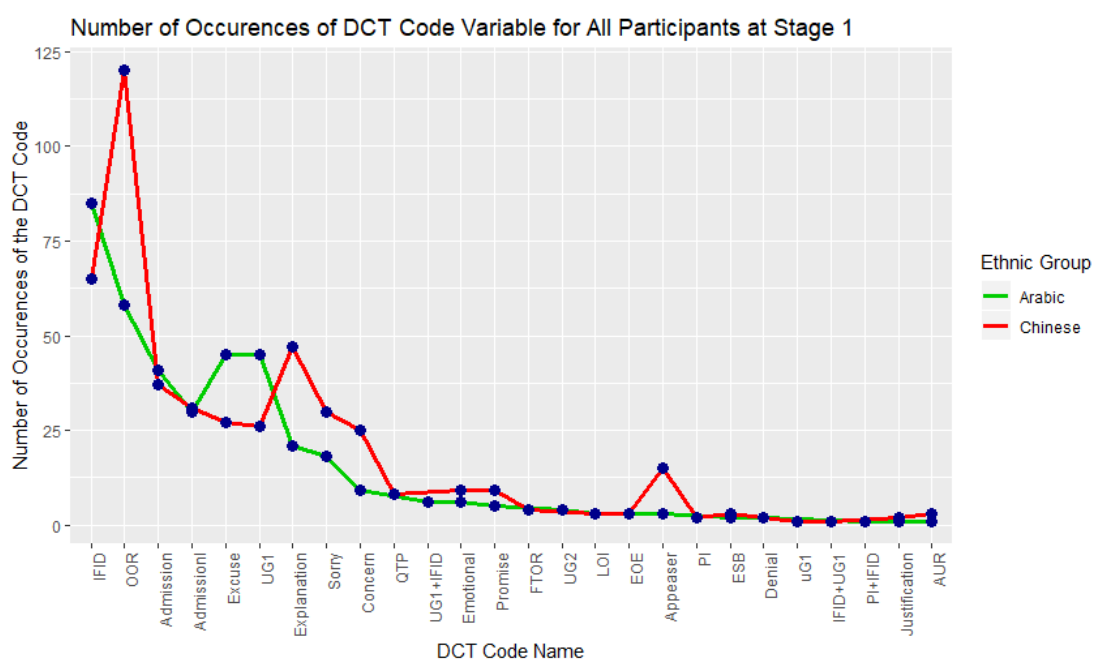


Figure 5.13: Occurrence of DCT variables for Saudi and Chinese participants: stage 1

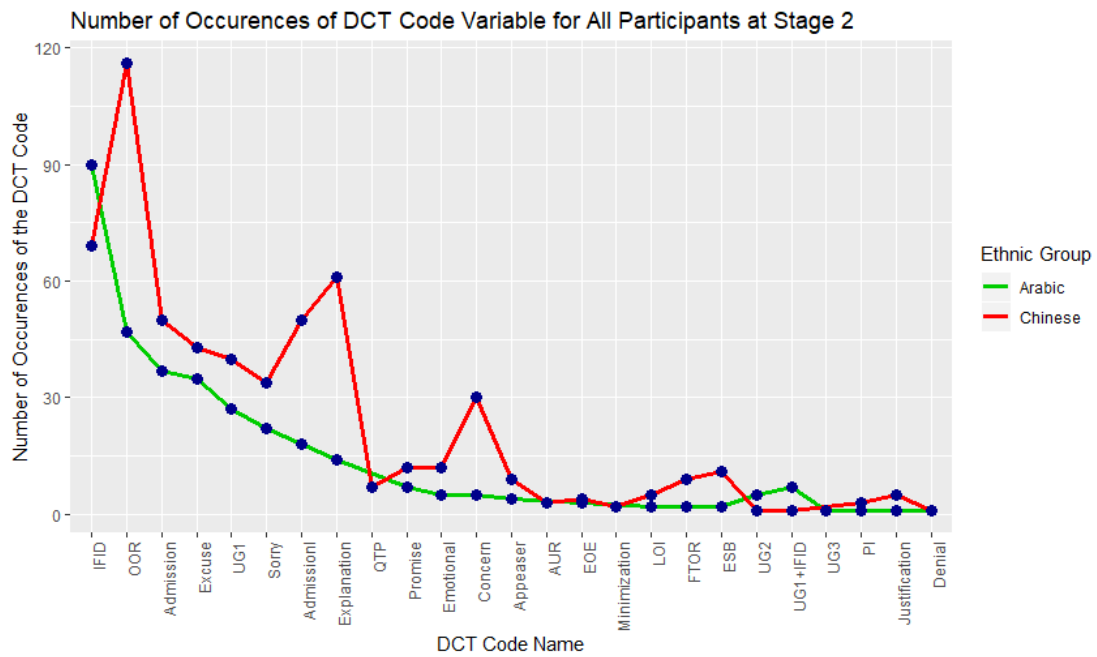


Figure 5.14: Occurrence of DCT variables for Saudi and Chinese participants: stage 2

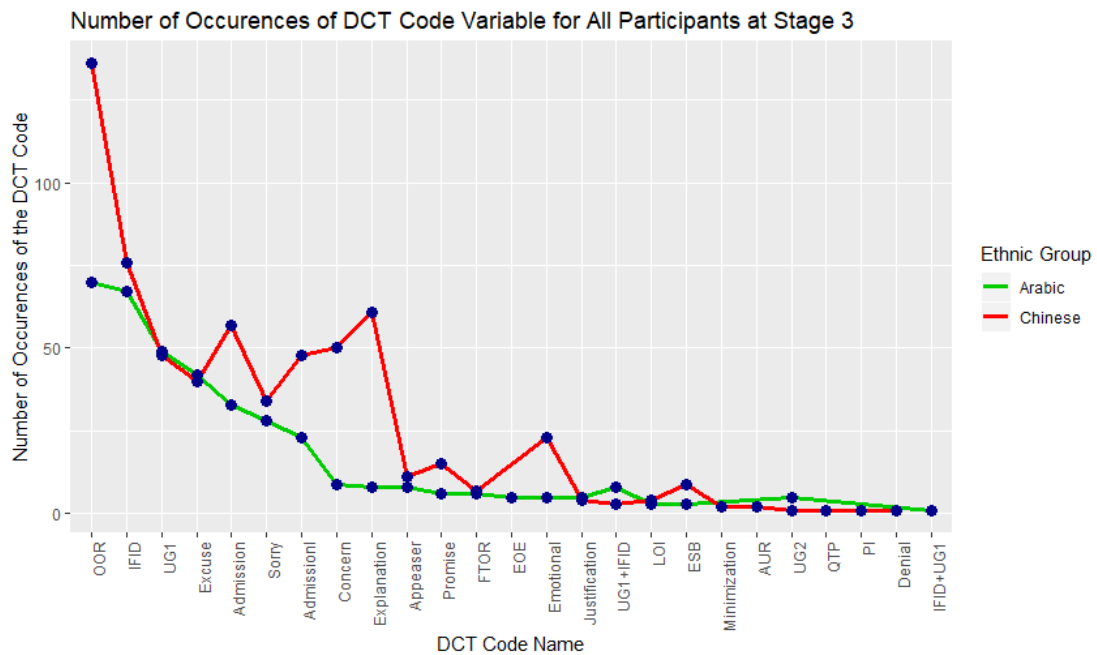


Figure 5.15: Occurrence of DCT variables for Saudi and Chinese participants: stage 3

5.4.2 Role Plays

Apology strategies in the role play situations performed by the Saudi participants (1,488) at the three stages exceeded to some extent those of their Chinese counterparts (1,412). The most frequently used apology strategies by Saudi participants in the role play

situations included OOR (234), IFID (174), emotional (145), UG1 (138), Admission I (135), and Explanation (127). The most frequent apology strategies used by the Chinese participants in the role play situations over the three stages included OOR (197), Emotional (173), Admission I (151), Sorry (136), Explanation (108) and UG1 (88). Figures 5.16, 5.17 and 5.18 separately compare the choices made by both Saudi and Chinese participants of apology strategies in their responses to the role play situations at the three stages. The green line stands for the Saudi participants whereas the red line represents the Chinese participants. Figures 5.16, 5.17, and 5.18 compare the Saudi and Chinese participants in terms of the apology strategies in their responses to the role play situations.

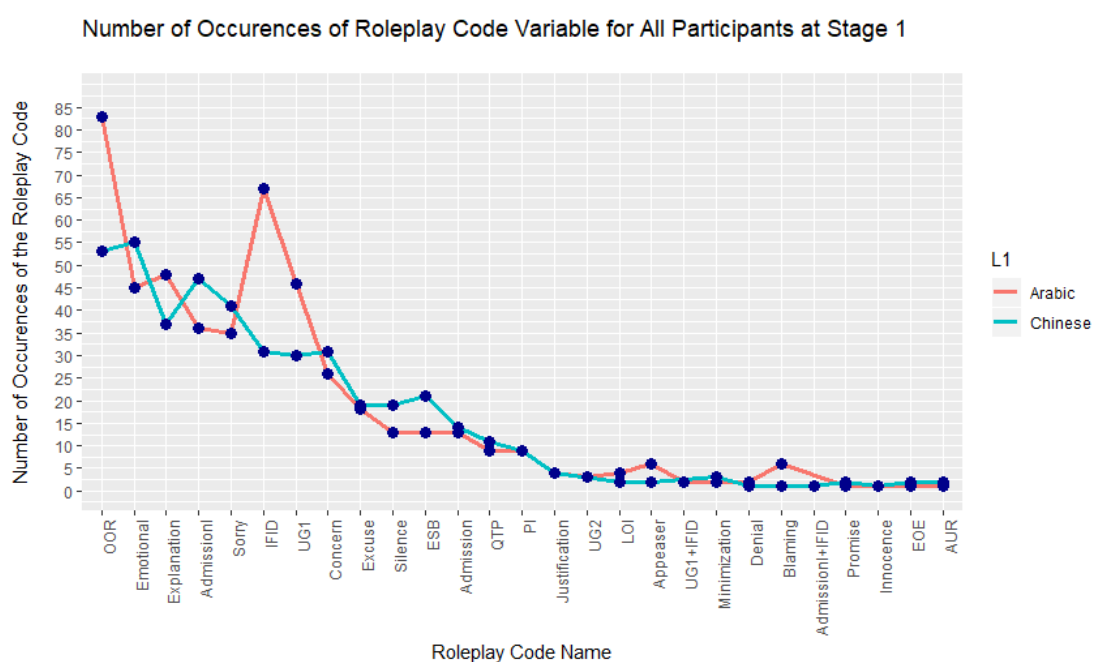


Figure 5.16: Occurrence of role play variables for Saudi and Chinese participants: stage 1

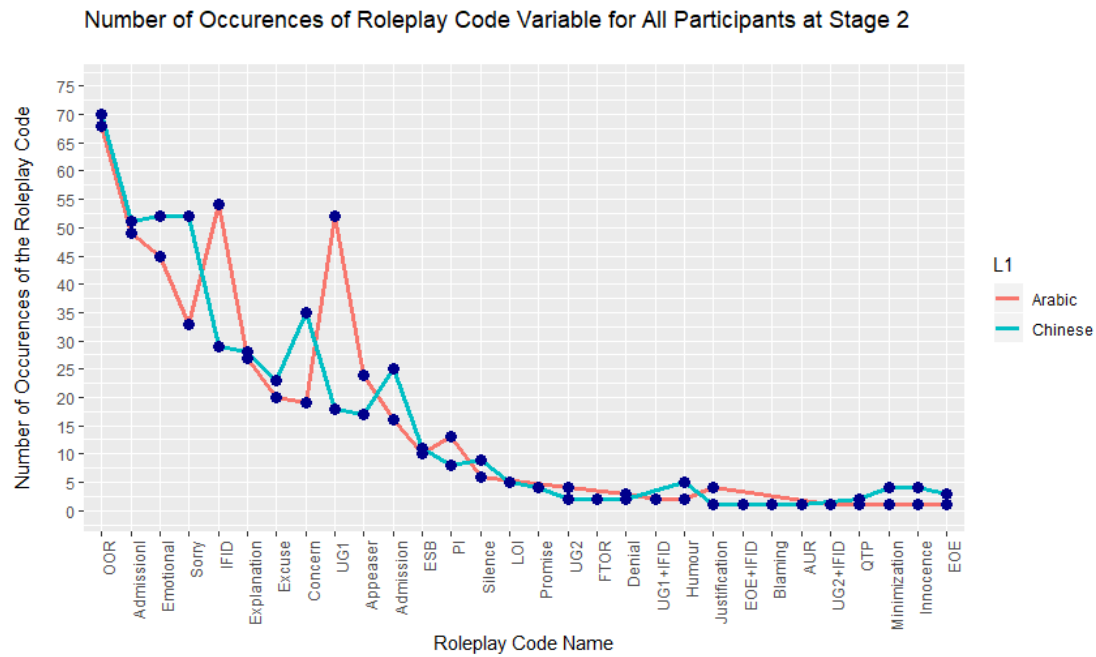


Figure 5.17: Occurrence of role play variables for Saudi and Chinese participants: stage 2

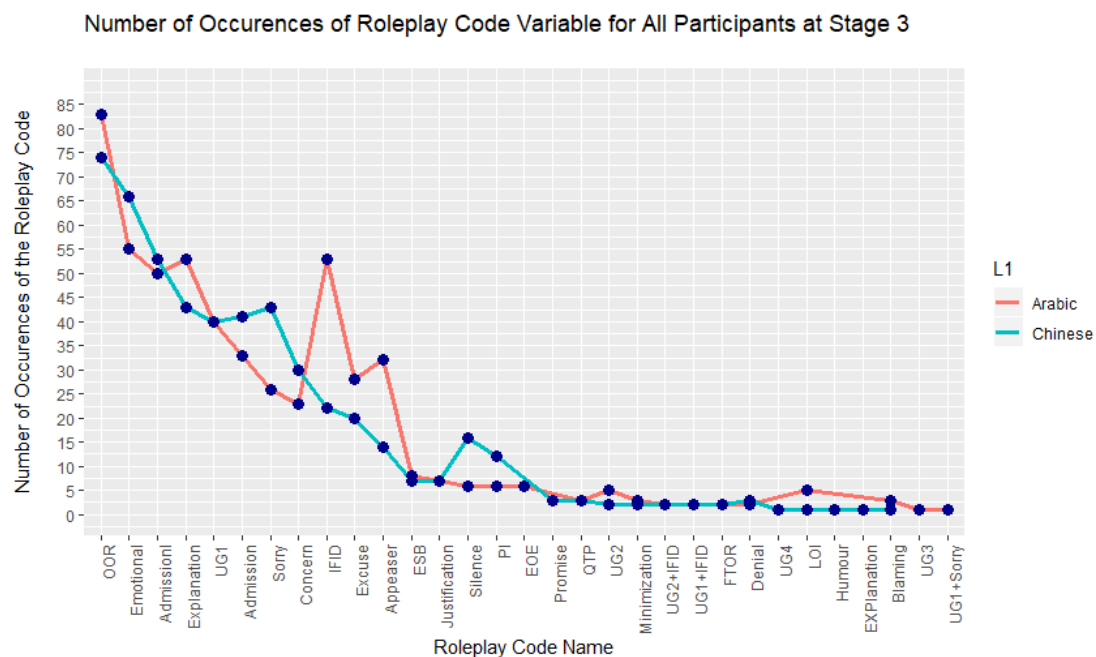


Figure 5.18: Occurrence of role play variables for Saudi and Chinese participants': stage 3

5.5 Comparison between Saudi and Chinese Formality Rating in the DCT Situations

Table 5.1 shows that the minimum and maximum scores of the Saudi and Chinese participants ranged from .00 to 3.00. While the mean score of the Saudi participants' formality rating was 1.81 with the standard deviation of .425; it was 1.84 with the standard deviation of

.512 for the Chinese participants. This finding demonstrates that there was more variance in the Chinese participants' formality ranking than in that of the Saudi participants.

Table 5.1: Descriptive statistics for Saudi and Chinese participants' formality rating in the DCT situations

Statistics				
	L1		L1	Formality
Arabic	N	Valid	432	432
		Missing	0	0
	Mean		1.0000	1.8194
	Std. Deviation		.00000	.42518
	Minimum		1.00	.00
	Maximum		1.00	3.00
	Sum		432.00	786.00
Chinese	N	Valid	432	432
		Missing	0	0
	Mean		2.0000	1.8495
	Std. Deviation		.00000	.51253
	Minimum		2.00	.00
	Maximum		2.00	3.00
	Sum		864.00	799.00

Table 5.2 indicates the four levels of the DCT formality rankings, namely (1)impossible to assess the formality; (2) excessively informal for the situation; (3) appropriate for the situation in terms of formality, and (4) excessively formal for the situation for the Saudi and Chinese participants at the three stages of data collection.

Table 5.2: Formality ranking of Saudi and Chinese participants in the DCT situations

Formality						
L1			Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Arabic	Valid	Impossible to assess the formality	2	.5	.5	.5
		Excessively informal for the situation	79	18.3	18.3	18.3
		Appropriate for the situation in terms of formality	346	80.1	80.1	80.1
		Excessively formal for the situation	5	1.2	1.2	1.2
		Total	432	100.0	100.0	100.0
Chinese	Valid	Impossible to assess the formality	10	2.3	2.3	2.3
		Excessively informal for the situation	64	14.8	14.8	14.8
		Appropriate for the situation in terms of formality	339	78.5	78.5	78.5
		Excessively formal for the situation	19	4.4	4.4	4.4
		Total	432	100.0	100.0	100.0

5.5.1 Formality Ranking among Saudi and Chinese Participants in the DCT Situations

5.5.1.1 Saudi Participants

Table 5.3 displays the Saudi participants' ranking of formality of the DCT situations over the three stages, based on the comments provided by the two native-English speaking assessors. It shows that the formality rating of 'excessively formal for the situation' increased from .7% at stage 2 to 2.8% at stage 3. Meanwhile the formality rating of 'appropriate for situation' amounted to 81.3% at stage 3, which denotes a slight decrease from stage 1 with 82.6%. This finding indicates that more than 80% of the Saudi apology responses to the DCT situations are appropriate to the L2 culture. In addition, 'excessively informal' decreased from 17.4% at stage 1 to 15.3% at stage 3, whereas 'impossible to assess the formality' stayed at 7% at both stages 2 and 3. Below there are some examples of the Saudi participants' apology responses to the DCT situations.

'Excessively formal for the situation':

1. 'New assistant' (situation 11)

Response: "I'm sorry, I forgot to submit your salary form to the wages department, I'm really sorry".

The response is excessively formal as the offender apologises and admits his fault for not submitting the victim's salary form, but the response does not provide any solution as how to resolve the offence.

2. 'Hot soup' (situation 13)

Response: "I'm terribly sorry, it is my mistake, let me clean it, I do apologise for this".

The response is excessively formal where both apology and solution to remedy the offence are provided.

3. 'Interview' (situation 18)

Response: "I'm really sorry, I'm late, I faced traffic on my way, it was terrible, I hope you accept my apology".

This response is excessively formal as the offender gives reasons for being late and expresses hope that the victim will accept his apology. However, the offender also promises to avoid such offence in the future.

As for the examples of 'appropriate for situation', they are provided below.

1. 'Missing deadline' (situation 1)

Response: "I'm sorry, I do not know how I should explain my excuses, it is really an embarrassing situation, I had some troubles with my family, because of that I could not finish the job, I do apologize, it won't happen again."

It is a good response of apology where reasons are explained with a promise of avoiding the offence occurrence in the future, but the response does not specify how to remedy the offence.

2. 'Team coach'(situation 6)

Response: "I'm sorry, I criticised you during the game, I pressured you to be more focused, so we did it, we won, I'm sorry if you felt bad about it."

It is another good example of apology where the offender explains why he pressured the player to be more focused, which resulted in winning the game.

3. 'Evidence'(situation 17)

Response: "I'm so so sorry, I did a terrible mistake. I hope you accept my apology".

It is a model of good apology where the offender acknowledges the offence and expresses hope to be forgiven. An example of 'excessively informal' apology is given.

1. 'Tuition fees'(situation 7)

Response: "I forgot to bring the money."

The assessors described this form as a weak apology as the participant needs to have a context for the apology.

These are two examples of "impossible to assess the formality of apology

1. 'Offended colleague' (situation 9)

Response1: "It is terribly congested and because of that I'm late."

The assessors commented that there was no apology, the participant did not understand the situation.

Response2: "I will help you as I can."

The assessors commented that the participant did not understand what apology is.

Table 5.3: Formality raking of Saudi participants in the DCT situations over three stages

Formality							
L1	Stage			Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Arabic	1.00	Valid	Excessively informal for the situation	25	17.4	17.4	17.4
			Appropriate for the situation in terms of formality	119	82.6	82.6	82.6
			Total	144	100.0	100.0	100.0
	2.00	Valid	Impossible to assess the formality	1	.7	.7	22.2
			Excessively informal for the situation	32	22.2	22.2	76.4
			Appropriate for the situation in terms of formality	110	76.4	76.4	.7
			Excessively formal for the situation	1	.7	.7	22.2
			Total	144	100.0	100.0	100.0
	3.00	Valid	Impossible to assess the formality	1	.7	.7	.7
			Excessively informal for the situation	22	15.3	15.3	15.3
			Appropriate for the situation in terms of formality	117	81.3	81.3	81.3
			Excessively formal for the situation	4	2.8	2.8	2.8
			Total	144	100.0	100.0	100.0

5.5.1.2 Chinese Participants

Table 5.4 indicates that the formality ranking of the 'excessively formal for the situation' decreased from 6.9% at stage 2 to 2.8% at stage 3. In addition, the 'appropriate for the situation in terms of formality' in the Chinese participants' apology responses was improved over the three stages and reached its highest percentage at stage 3 with 84.7%. The 'excessively informal' decreased from 20.8% at stage 1, to 12.5 at stage 2, to 11.1% at stage 3; whereas the 'impossible to assess the formality' decreased from 2.8% at stage 1 and 2, to 1.4% at stage 3, respectively. Below are some examples of 'excessively formal for the situation'.

1. 'Missing deadline' (situation 1)

Response: "I'm so sorry, I will try my best to find some solutions to help us deal with that problem."

The offender gives a very good pattern of apology as he apologized and gave an offer of repair.

2. 'Tuition fess' (situation 7)

Response: "I'm sorry for my mistake, I forgot the money because I have many things to think about. I promise I will pay you in my bank app."

It is a very good apology because the offender tries to amend the offence by providing a satisfactory solution. Even though the response lacks 'giving a reason', it is a model apology response.

3. 'Crowded train' (situation 16)

Response: "Sorry".

The assessors declared that the response is a perfectly acceptable apology.

Some examples of 'appropriate for situation' are provided below.

1. 'Seminar preparation' (situation 2)

Response: "I'm sorry, I left the handout at home, would you remind me about that in the next meeting? Or, if you are back home please take it for me, please."

The assessors explained that it is a good model of apology as the offender acknowledged the offence and offered to rectify the situation.

2. 'Lecture notes' (situation 3)

Response: "I'm really sorry about that, but I believe you will pass the exam, next time I will help you to prepare for the exam."

It is considered as a good model of apology as the offender offered to repair the offence which he admitted.

3. 'Coffee' (situation 4)

Response: "I'm late, sorry."

It is a good apology as it points out awareness of being late, but no reason is provided.

Two examples of 'excessively informal' are given below.

1. 'Tuition fees' (situation 7)

Response: "Could you give me a chance to treat you to dinner".

The assessors explained that the response did not provide any solution to the main offence and apology was not expressed, either.

2. 'Marking' (situation 12)

Response: "I'm so sorry".

This response was assessed as an insufficient apology and too blunt.

Here are three examples of 'impossible to assess the formality':

1. 'Promotion' (situation 5)

Response: "You have to remind me, I really want you to be promoted".

The assessors commented that there was no apology expressed.

2. 'Team coach' (situation 6)

Response: 'Next time you have to be more hard working'.

The response did not include any apology. Instead, the offender asked the victim to exert more efforts as if the coach had criticised the victim or blamed him for lack of efforts.

3. 'Evidence' (situation 17)

Response: "I do not know."

According to the assessors the participant did not understand the situation.

Table 5.4: Formality ranking of Chinese participants' responses into the DCT situations over three stages

Formality							
L1	Stage			Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Chinese	1.00	Valid	Impossible to assess the formality	4	2.8	2.8	2.8
			Excessively informal for the situation	30	20.8	20.8	20.8
			Appropriate for the situation in terms of formality	105	72.9	72.9	72.9
			Excessively formal for the situation	5	3.5	3.5	3.5
			Total	144	100.0	100.0	100.0
	2.00	Valid	Impossible to assess the formality	4	2.8	2.8	2.8
			Excessively informal for the situation	18	12.5	12.5	12.5
			Appropriate for the situation in terms of formality	112	77.8	77.8	77.8
			Excessively formal for the situation	10	6.9	6.9	6.9
			Total	144	100.0	100.0	100.0
	3.00	Valid	Impossible to assess the formality	2	1.4	1.4	1.4
			Excessively informal for the situation	16	11.1	11.1	11.1
			Appropriate for the situation in terms of formality	122	84.7	84.7	84.7
			Excessively formal for the situation	4	2.8	2.8	2.8
			Total	144	100.0	100.0	100.0

5.6 Comparison between Saudi and Chinese' Formality Rating in the Role Play Situations

Table 5.5 shows that the minimum and maximum scores of the Saudi and Chinese participants ranged from 1.00 to 3.00. Whereas the mean score of the Saudi participants' formality rating was 1.97 with the standard deviation of .314, it was 1.93 with the standard deviation of .340 for the Chinese participants. This finding shows there was more variance in the Chinese participants' formality ranking than in that of the Saudi participants. Table 5.19 demonstrates that the Saudi participants had a somewhat higher percentage of appropriate responses for the situation in terms of formality (90.1%) than their Chinese counterparts (88%).

Table 5.5: Descriptive statistics for Saudi and Chinese participants' formality rating in the role play situations

Statistics				
L1			L1	Formality
Arabic	N	Valid	192	192
		Missing	0	0
	Mean		1.0000	1.9740
	Std. Deviation		.00000	.31432
	Minimum		1.00	1.00
	Maximum		1.00	3.00
Chinese	N	Valid	192	192
		Missing	0	0
	Mean		2.0000	1.9323
	Std. Deviation		.00000	.34031
	Minimum		2.00	1.00
	Maximum		2.00	3.00

Table 5.6 indicates the three levels of the role play formality rankings of (1) excessively informal for the situation; (2) appropriate for the situation in terms of formality, and (3) excessively formal for the situation with respect to the Saudi and Chinese participants at the three stages of data collection.

Table 5.6: Formality ranking of Saudi and Chinese participants' responses in the role play situations

Formality						
L1			Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Arabic	Valid	excessively informal for the situation	12	6.3	6.3	6.3
		appropriate for the situation in terms of formality	173	90.1	90.1	90.1
		excessively formal for the situation	7	3.6	3.6	3.6
		Total	192	100.0	100.0	100.0
Chinese	Valid	excessively informal for the situation	18	9.4	9.4	9.4
		appropriate for the situation in terms of formality	169	88.0	88.0	88.0
		excessively formal for the situation	5	2.6	2.6	2.6
		Total	192	100.0	100.0	100.0

5.6.1 Formality Ranking among Saudi and Chinese Participants in the Role Plays Situations

5.6.1.1 Saudi Participants

Table 5.7 shows the ranking of formality of the Saudi participants' responses to the role play situations over the three stages, based on the comments provided by the two native-English assessors. The Saudi participants' formality ranking of 'appropriate for the situation in terms of formality' improved from 78.1% at stage 1 to 100% at stage 3. This finding implies that the apology responses of all the Saudi participants at stage 3 demonstrated appropriate formality.

Some examples of 'appropriate for the situation in terms of formality' are presented below.

1. 'Forgetting coffee' (situation1)

Response: "Oh!, Oh!, I forgot that, sorry, you can have mine, actually it is not the same but you can taste it if you want, don't worry, I'm going to get one for you, don't worry about it, just give me five minutes".

According to the assessors, the response exhibited appropriate intonation and it offered a solution.

2. 'Heavy bag' (situation2)

Response: "Oh! Are you ok? Oh! Your neck is hurt, Oh! I'm so sorry, that was my bag, I'm so sorry".

The response was immediate and the respondent sounded concerned.

3. 'Oil in car' (situation8)

Response: "Oh! Hold on, hold on, give me just a second, I will bring something to clean it, one second, it is a mess".

The response sounded apologetic and concerned.

Table 5.7: Formality ranking of Saudi participants' responses in the role plays situations over three stages

Formality							
L1	Stage			Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Arabic	1.00	Valid	Excessively informal for the situation	9	14.1	14.1	14.1
			Appropriate for the situation in terms of formality	50	78.1	78.1	78.1
			Excessively formal for the situation	5	7.8	7.8	7.8
			Total	64	100.0	100.0	100.0
	2.00	Valid	Excessively informal for the situation	3	4.7	4.7	4.7
			Appropriate for the situation in terms of formality	59	92.2	92.2	92.2
			Excessively formal for the situation	2	3.1	3.1	3.1
			Total	64	100.0	100.0	100.0
	3.00	Valid	Appropriate for the situation in terms of formality	64	100.0	100.0	100.0
			Total	64	100.0	100.0	100.0

5.6.1.2 Chinese Participants

Table 5.8 shows the ranking of formality of the Chinese participants' responses in the role play situations over the three stages, based on the comments provided by two native-English assessors. It indicates that the Chinese participants' formality ranking of 'appropriate for the situation in terms of formality' improved from 76.6% at stage 1 to 89.1% at stage 2, to 98.4% at stage 3. This finding means that most of the apology responses of all Chinese participants at stage 3 exhibited appropriate formality. Their formality ranking of 'excessively formal for the situation' decreased from 4.7% at stage 1 to 1.6% at stages 2 and 3. The formality ranking of the Chinese participants 'excessively informal for the situation' decreased from 18.8% at stage 1 to 9.4% at stage 2, and then was totally absent at stage 3. Examples of 'appropriate for the situation in terms of formality' are given below.

1. 'Forgetting coffee'(situation1)

Response: "Oh! I'm sorry, I forgot your coffee boss, I'm really sorry, you know I just have a talk and chat with my friends'. I will go and bring one for you".

The response shows little hesitation, appropriate apology, little repetition, and an offer of solution.

2. 'Heavy bag' (situation 2)

Response: "Are you all right? Are you ok? Sorry, I'm sorry, it is my fault, it is my bag, I put it there but the driver stopped suddenly".

The response sounds convincing and the apology is appropriate.

3. 'Late for appointment' (situation 7)

Response: "I'm sorry that I'm late, even if I have a reason it is my fault because I'm late, it is all because of the traffic jam".

The response provides an appropriate apology and a plausible reason for being late.

Some examples of 'excessively formal for the situation' are provided below.

1. 'Car crash' (situation 3)

Response: "Oh! Sorry, I badly damaged your car, it was scraped against the wall, I hope you can give me a chance to drive to the mechanic's. I will fix it."

The response provides an effective apology and an offer of repair.

2. 'Wrong room'(situation 5)

Response: "Oh! Sorry, I think I have just come to a wrong room. I'm looking for my friend.

By the way are you my senior manager? Can I help you and take some files to do?"

The response shows immediate apology and clearly explains the situation.

3. 'Oil in car' (situation 8)

Response: 'Oh! No, a terrible thing has happened, look! Olive oil leaked on your seat, sorry, I think it is... (silence), I think it is very hard to clean, I will go to find someone to clean it, I'm so sorry'.

The response represents a clearly delivered apology and it offers help.

Table 5.8: Formality ranking of the Chinese participants' responses in the role play situations over three stages

Formality							
L1	Stage			Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Chinese	1.00	Valid	Excessively informal for the situation	12	18.8	18.8	18.8
			Appropriate for the situation in terms of formality	49	76.6	76.6	76.6
			Excessively formal for the situation	3	4.7	4.7	4.7
			Total	64	100.0	100.0	100.0
	2.00	Valid	Excessively informal for the situation	6	9.4	9.4	9.4
			Appropriate for the situation in terms of formality	57	89.1	89.1	89.1
			Excessively formal for the situation	1	1.6	1.6	1.6
			Total	64	100.0	100.0	100.0
	3.00	Valid	Appropriate for the situation in terms of formality	63	98.4	98.4	98.4
			Excessively formal for the situation	1	1.6	1.6	1.6
			Total	64	100.0	100.0	100.0

5.7 Summary, Discussion, and Conclusion

As demonstrated above, the Chinese participants outnumbered their Saudi counterparts in the frequency of using apology strategies in responding to the DCT situations, with total instances amounting to 1,685 compared to 1,109 for the Saudi participants. Both Saudi and Chinese participants share the preference for IFID as the most frequently used apology strategy. They were also similar in using such apology strategies as admission and excuse but differed in terms of frequency. There were also some differences in the choice of other apology strategies. Whereas the Saudi participants favoured OOR and UG1, the Chinese participants preferred Admission I and Explanation.

In response to the role play situations at the three stages of data collection, the Saudi participants used apology strategies more frequently (1,488) compared to the Chinese participants (1,412). OOR strategy was the most frequently used one by both Saudi and Chinese participants. They were similar in using some apology strategies in the role play situations over the three stages, specifically these of Emotional, Admission I, Explanation, and UG1. The only difference existed in the use of IFID strategy by the Saudi participants when the Chinese participants favoured the use of 'Sorry' strategy.

Indeed, the choice of apology strategies by the Saudi and Chinese participants in responding to the DCT and role play situations over the three stages revolved around taking on responsibility and offering repair to the victims. This finding indicates that both groups protected the face of their interlocutors in light of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory (1987). In other words, the Saudi and Chinese participants adhered to the positive social value of interaction as they were committed to protecting their interlocutors' faces. This is due to the fact that face is viewed under Brown and Levinson's politeness theory as a reflection of the feelings of embarrassment and humiliation. The Saudi and Chinese participants were keen on reducing the offence severity on the victims by adopting the taking on responsibility strategy and offering repair cf. (the positive and negative politeness proposed by Brown and Levinson, 1987), illustrated by, "I'm so sorry it's happened", "Are you ok?", "I will clean it", and "I will fix it". The Saudi participants took responsibility for offences to protect the wants of their interlocutor politeness. Meanwhile, the Chinese participants did not deny their responsibility for offences in order not to impede the wants of their victims. Their responses were compatible with the notion of negative politeness, as illustrated by "It is my fault", "It is my mistake", and "I did not intend to do it". This finding also affirms the soundness of selecting

Brown and Levinson's politeness theory as the main framework for theoretical discussion of the present study, in spite of the criticism levelled against that theory (See Chapter Two). It demonstrates the influence of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory on the interpretation of the results of the current study where the Saudi and Chinese cultures viewed politeness as mainly concerned with protecting the positive and negative faces of the victims. In addition, this finding confirms the similar perception of both Saudi and Chinese of the apology speech act as being a face-threatening act, as in "I'm really/terribly sorry", "I'm so so sorry", "I do apologise", and "I hope you can forgive me". Apology often threatens the face of the offender who is required to admit or not committed offence and sympathise or not with the victim. Both The Saudi and Chinese participants adopted similar apology strategies in an indication of the influence of their L1 collectivist cultures in which speakers pay attention to maximise the benefit of the hearers and minimise their benefits. Whereas the Saudi participants protect the Hearer's positive face, the Chinese participants protect the hearer's negative face. Thus, they similarly perceived the necessity of apologising to their victims and seldom denied responsibility for the offence; all these examples above provided to serve this purpose.

Therefore, the Saudi and Chinese participants were found to have similar perception of the offence and the need to apologise for it. This affirms that collectivist cultures like the Saudi and Chinese have similar views in the sense that apology strategy is a necessary need. The finding comes in line with that reported by Searle (1996) as both Saudi and Chinese participants viewed apology as a debt for which they should compensate the victims, as in "You can take mine", "I will go and bring another one for you", and "I will call the IT Department to find solutions and retrieve the files". The finding is also similar to Goffman's (1971) definition of apology since the Saudi and Chinese participants were keen on restoring social harmony with the victims. It affirms as well Bataineh et al.'s (2005) definition of apology as the Saudi and Chinese participants felt guilty and sought forgiveness from their victims, as in "I m sorry, I'm late", "Please, forgive me", "Excuse me", "I apologise", "I crashed the car against the wall", and "I lost all files". This finding is also compatible with the comprehensive definition of apology adopted by Holmes (1989). In this concern, the Saudi and Chinese participants indicated guilt, desire of seeking forgiveness, and willingness to restore social harmony with the victims. Furthermore, the use of 'sorry' by the Chinese participants confirms the findings reported by Xiang (2007) that the Chinese favoured the use of direct apology expression and the use of the English word 'sorry' to express their apology

because 'sorry' for them does not have the same psychological effects as in their mother tongue. The finding of the present study is also similar to that reported by Murad (2012), Abu-Humei (2013), Al Sulayyi (2106), and Qari (2017) since the Saudi and Chinese participants' choice of apology strategies was based on IFID, Explanation, Offer of Repair, Admission, Admission I, and UG1.

One of the characteristics of the Chinese participants is that they exhibited higher frequency of using Apparently Unrelated Responses (AUR), whether in the DCT or role play situations. As to the DCT situations, with the Chinese participants there were eight cases of AUR compared with one case for the Saudi participants. Examples of the Chinese participants' AUR in the DCT include (1) a response to the promotion situation at stage 1 ("I think you can work more hard"), (2) a response to the evidence situation at stage 1 ("But you still come back"), and (3) a response to the interview situation at stage 2 ("And thank you, please give me a machine to fix it"). The only case of AUR response in the DCT occurred in the promotion situation at stage 1 ("Because I believe you can develop more").

As to the role play situations, the AUR occurred three times in the Chinese participants' responses as compared to one case in the Saudi participants' responses' res. Examples of the Chinese participants' AUR in the role play include (1) a response at stage 2 to the 'getting coffee' situation ("So I just come back to take my wallet"), (2) a response at stage 1 to the 'car crash' situation ("But I will bring you some trouble"), and (3) a response at stage 1 to the 'wrong room' situation ("I don't want to ...we are come back"). The only case of AUR response in the DCT by a Saudi participant was reported in the 'getting coffee' situation at stage 1 ("That tell, tell me, coffee one, 50 minutes, read, I this").

The cases of AUR are attributed to the participants' inability to understand the situation or grammatically ill-formed responses which affects the eligibility of the response. This finding asserts the priority of teaching L2 pragmatics, especially to the Chinese participants, in order to overcome the inability to comprehend spoken and written messages and to improve the expression and grammar ability by selecting appropriate vocabulary and following proper grammar rules. This recommendation can help avoid the use of 'more hard' instead of 'harder' or 'you can develop more' instead of 'you can have further development'.

The Saudi and Chinese participants generally provided good apology responses in terms of appropriate formality in the DCT situations (for examples, see sections 5.5.1.1 and 5.5.1.2). The assessors' evaluation of the Saudi participants' responses as 'good', that is

appropriate for the situation, reached 81.3% at stage 3. This high percentage of Saudis' appropriate apology responses reveals their ability of using proper apology expressions indifferent DCT situations. Meanwhile, the assessors' evaluation of the Chinese participants' responses as 'good', that is as appropriate for the situation, amounted to 84.7% at stage 3, which is a little higher than that of their Saudi counterparts. This finding indicates that the majority of Saudi and Chinese participants were aware to a great extent of the proper use of different apology strategies in various DCT situations. Furthermore, the formality rating of the Saudi participants' 'excessively formal for the situation' increased at stage 3, while that of the Chinese participants decreased from 3.5% at stage 1 to 2.8% at stage 3. As such, both Saudi and Chinese participants had an equal formality rating of 2.8% of 'excessively formal for the situation' at stage 3. Similarly, both groups of participants were capable of using appropriate apology strategies in the role play situations, where the Saudi participants had higher percentage of the formality ranking of 'appropriate for the situation in terms of formality', compared to their Chinese counterparts (for examples, see sections 5.6.1.1 and 5.6.1.2). On the other hand, the Chinese participants had less percentage of 'excessively formal for the situation' with 2.6%, compared to 3.6% for the Saudi participants. The Saudi participants showed supremacy over their Chinese counterparts in the role play situations as they had less percentage of the 'excessively informal for the situation' with 6.3%, compared to 9.4% for the Chinese participants. The higher score of the Chinese participants' standard deviation in comparison to the Saudi participants suggests more variance in the Chinese apology strategies in the role play situations compared to the Saudi participants.

Chapter Six: Attitude, L2 Usage, and L1 Culture

6. Introduction

An analysis of the L2 usage and types of attitude adopted by the Saudi and Chinese participants was conducted. Correlation analyses were also conducted to determine the influence of the Saudi and Chinese participants' L2 usage and attitude towards learning English on their overall success of using apology strategies and formality in accordance with the British culture. The influence of the L1 culture on the Saudi and Chinese participants' overall success in the DCT and role play situations was tested. The influence of L1 culture was measured in terms of the different levels of the three contextual variables; i.e. (social familiarity, social power, and social imposition, on the apology responses of the Saudi and Chinese participants in the DCT and role play situations). This chapter verifies the null hypotheses: (1) there is no correlation between L2 usage and the participants' overall success (2) there is no correlation between types of attitude and the participants' overall success, and (3) Social familiarity, power and imposition do not influence the participants' overall success.

6.1 Scheme of Attitude Scores for Saudi and Chinese Participants

In Chapter Four, the scheme of attitude scores was introduced (see table 4.18). In this chapter, it classified attitude scores into three types: positive attitude, negative attitude and very negative attitude. The classification of 'very negative' attitude did not apply to both Saudi and Chinese groups. Out of 8 Saudi participants, one Saudi (participant no. 18) was found to display 'negative' attitude at stage 2 with a 'negative' attitude score of 61. Participant no. 21 displayed 'negative' attitude score of 55 at stage 3 (see Table 6.1).

Table 6.1: Negative attitude scores of two Saudi participants

Participant ID	Attitude	Stage
18	61	2
21	55	3

Otherwise, the eight Saudi participants, including no. 18; 31 and, at stage and participant 21 at stages 1 and 2, showed positive attitude towards learning English, as indicated in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Positive attitude scores of Saudi participants

Participant ID	Attitude Score	Stage
15	81	1
15	80	2
15	81	3
18	70	1
18	71	3
19	77	1
19	85	2
19	86	3
21	67	1
21	70	2
23	80	1
23	75	2
23	77	3
37	78	1
37	70	2
37	82	3
45	77	1
45	77	2
45	85	3
46	84	1
46	84	2
46	88	3

Five of the Chinese participants (nos. 17, 26, 29, 31, and 33) displayed negative attitude scores at stages 1 and 2, as shown in Table 6.3. The eight Chinese participants, including the five participants who had negative attitude scores at stages 1 and 2, obtained positive attitude scores at stage 3, as shown in Table 6.4.

Table 6.3: Negative attitude scores of Chinese participants

Participant ID	Attitude Score	Stage
17	66	2
26	58	1
26	58	2
29	55	1
29	54	2
31	66	2
33	66	2

Table 6.4: Positive attitude scores of Chinese participants

Participant ID	Attitude Score	Stage
17	73	1
17	72	3
26	73	3
29	68	3
30	71	1
30	69	2
30	69	3
31	69	1
31	71	3
32	70	1
32	68	2
32	71	3
33	67	1
33	74	3
42	73	1
42	74	2
42	75	3

As for the L2 usage, Saudi participants outperformed their Chinese counterparts in self-rating (item no.1) as two Saudi participants as compared with none of the Chinese ones had the rating of 'very good'. One Saudi participant versus none of the Chinese participants stated that he only had English-speaking friends in the UK (item no. 3). Two Saudi participants versus none of the Chinese participants expressed their comfort with English culture (item no. 4). Four Saudi participants versus one Chinese participant expressed their comfort in speaking English (item no. 5). Seven Saudi participants as opposed to six Chinese participants stated that it was important to maintain their English (item no. 6).

6.2 Correlation of Saudi Participants' L2 Usage, Attitude, and Formality Scores against Overall Success

There is a good correlation between the Saudi participants' L2 usage score and attitude score at the three stages (Figure 6.1). The correlation coefficient is 0.3923617, suggesting a strong correlation of roughly 50%. The p-value is 0.05, which is statistically significant.

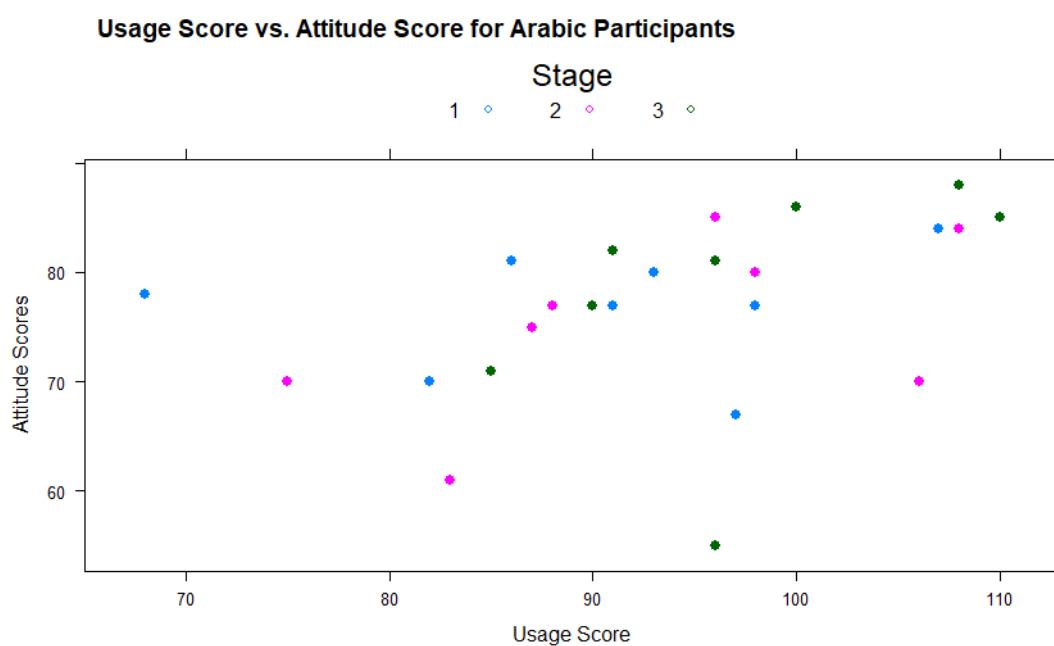


Figure 6.1: Plot of Saudi participants' usage score vs. attitude score over 3 stages

Figure 6.2 indicates a weak correlation between the Saudi participants' usage score and overall success as the correlation coefficient is 0.1070799, or roughly 10.71%. The p-value is $0.6185 > 0.05$, which is statistically insignificant.

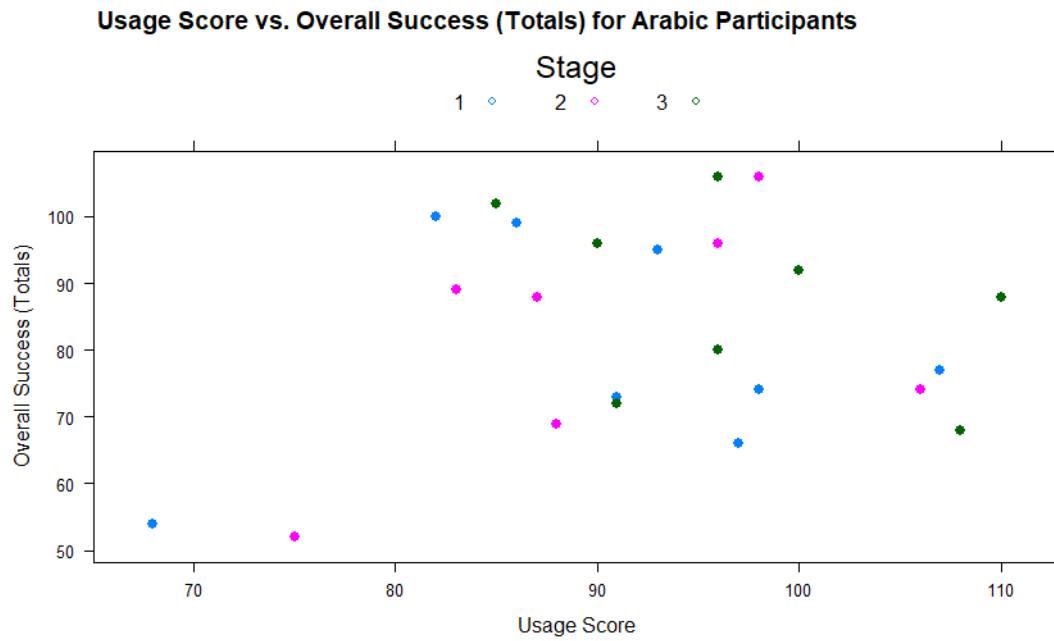


Figure 6.2: Plot of Saudi participants' usage score vs. overall success score over 3 stages

Figure 6.2 indicates a weak correlation between the Saudi participants' usage and formality since the correlation coefficient is 0.1734451, or roughly 17.34%. The p -value is $0.539121 > 0.05$, which is statistically insignificant.

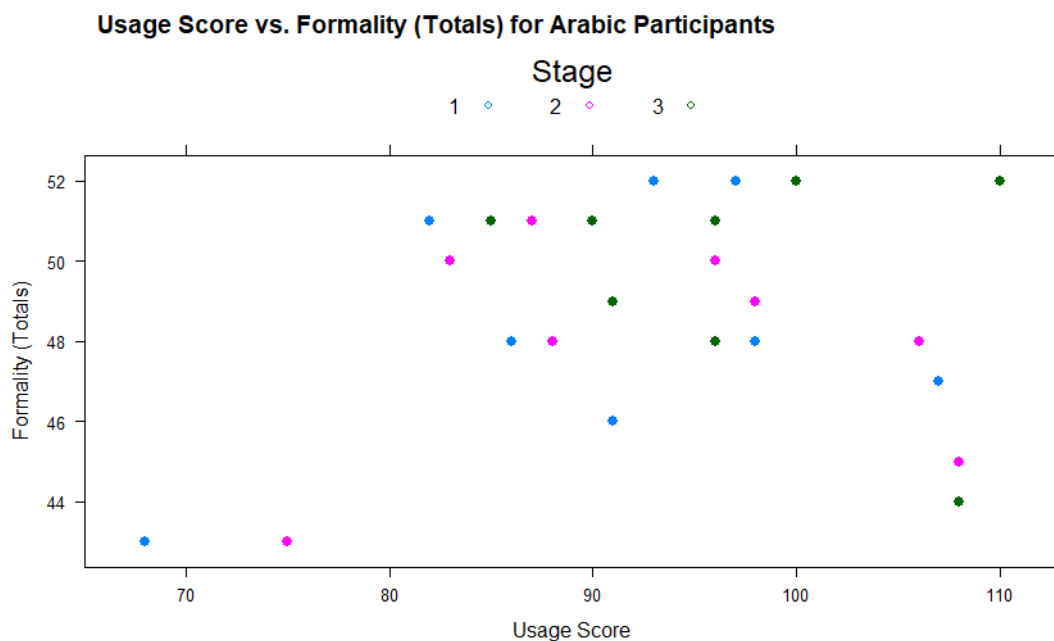


Figure 6.3: Plot of Saudi participants' usage score vs. formality score over 3 stages

Figure 6.4 indicates that there is a very weak correlation between the Saudi participants' attitude score and their overall success because the correlation coefficient is 0.08906619, or roughly 8.91%. The p-value is $0.679 > 0.05$, which is statistically insignificant.

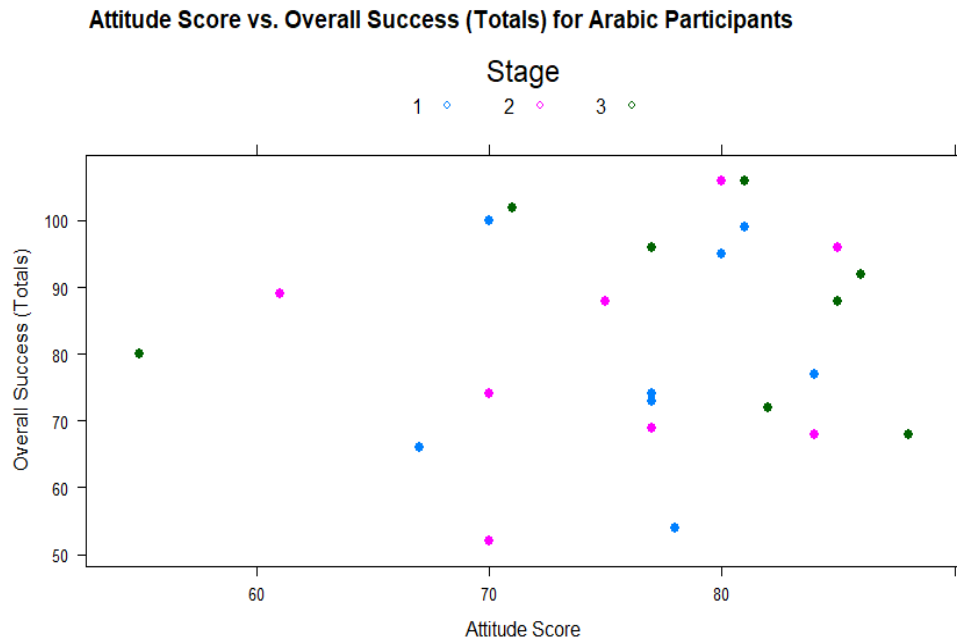


Figure 6.4: Plot of Saudi participants' attitude score vs. overall success score over 3 stages

Figure 6.5 indicates that there is a very weak correlation between the Saudi participants' attitude score and their formality because the correlation coefficient is -0.07115236 , or roughly 7.12% negatively. The p-value is $0.7411 > 0.05$, which is statistically insignificant. In other words, there is a negative correlation; between the attitude scores (increasing) and the formality totals (decreasing).

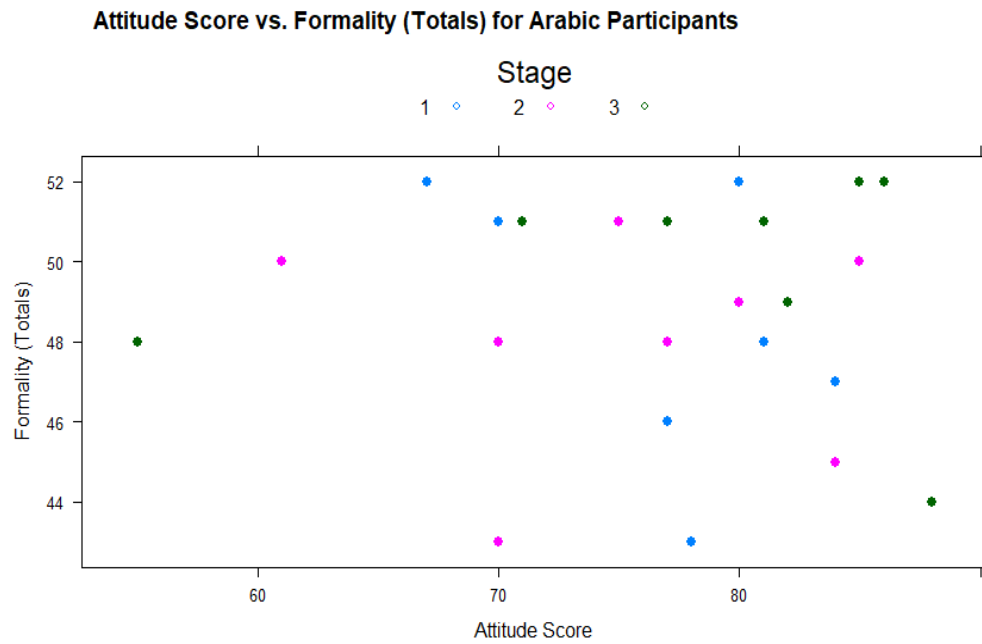


Figure 6.5: Plot of Saudi participants' attitude score vs. formality score over 3 stages

Figure 6.6 shows that there is a good correlation between the Saudi participants' overall success and their formality score as the correlation coefficient is 0.7253011, or roughly 72.53%. The p-value is $6.069 \times 10^{-5} < 0.05$, which is statistically significant.

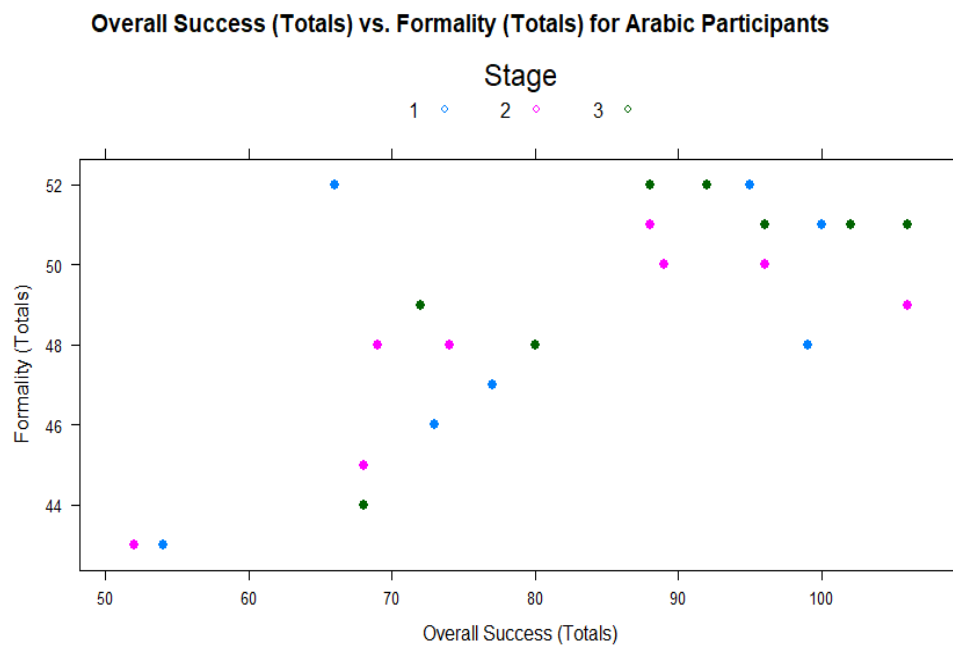


Figure 6.6: Plot of Saudi participants' overall success score vs. formality score over 3 stages

6.3 Correlation of Chinese Participants' Usage, Attitude and Formality Scores against Overall Success

As indicated by Figure 6.7, there is a positive correlation between the Chinese participants' usage and attitude scores as the correlation coefficient is 0.5491909 or roughly 54.92%. The p-value of the test is $0.005445 < 0.05$, which is statistically significant.

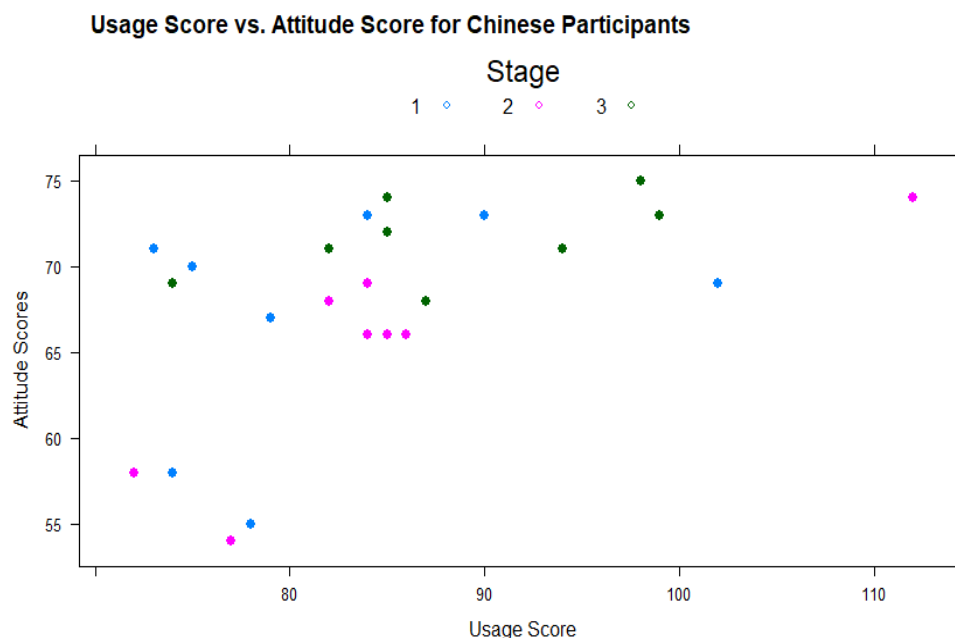


Figure 6.7: Plot of Chinese participants' usage score vs. attitude score over 3 stages

Figure 6.8 indicates that there is a good correlation between the Chinese participants' usage score and overall success score because the correlation coefficient is 0.5883898, or roughly 58.84%. The p-value is $0.002492 < 0.05$, which is statistically significant.

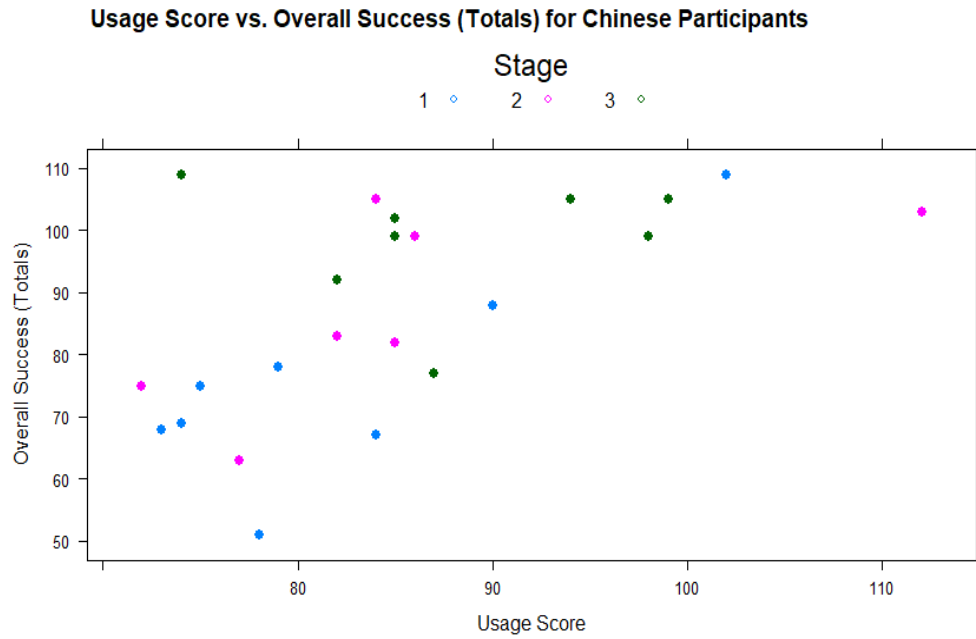


Figure 6.8: Plot of Chinese participants' usage score vs. overall success score over 3 stages

Figure 6.9 indicates that there is a very weak correlation between the Chinese participants' usage score and formality score as the correlation coefficient is 0.08557948, or roughly 8.56%. The p-value is $0.6909 > 0.05$, which is statistically insignificant.

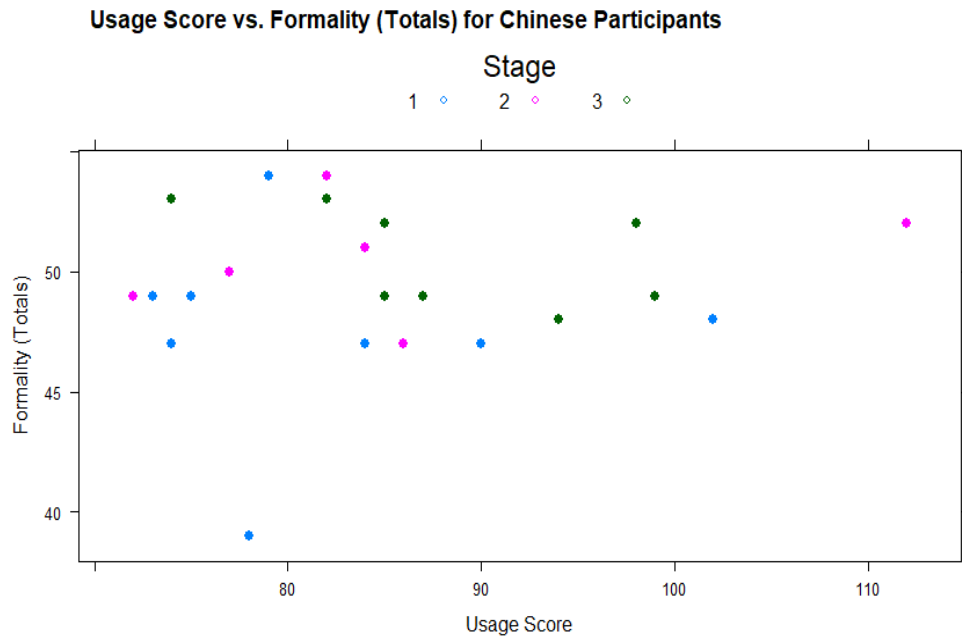


Figure 6.9: Plot of Chinese participants' usage score vs. formality score over 3 stages

Figure 6.10 shows that there is a strong correlation between the Chinese participants' attitude and overall success as the correlation coefficient is 0.6072373, or roughly 60.72%. The p-value is $0.001651 > 0.05$, which is statistically significant.

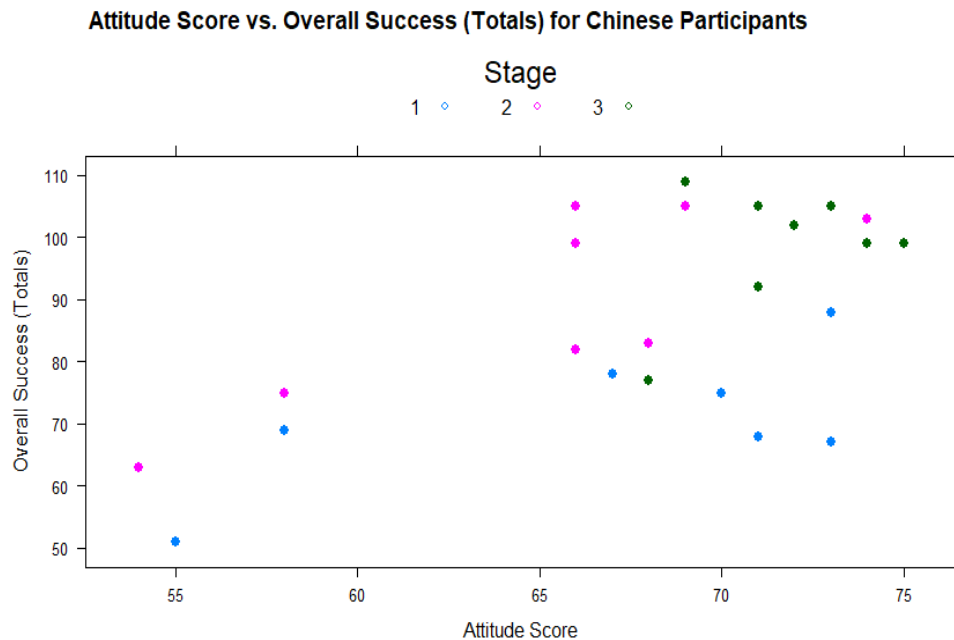


Figure 6.10: Plot of Chinese participants' attitude score vs. overall success score over 3 stages

Figure 6.11 indicates that there is a good correlation between the Chinese participants' attitude and formality as the correlation coefficient is 0.4204046, or roughly 42.04%. The p-value is $0.04081 < 0.05$, which is statistically significant.

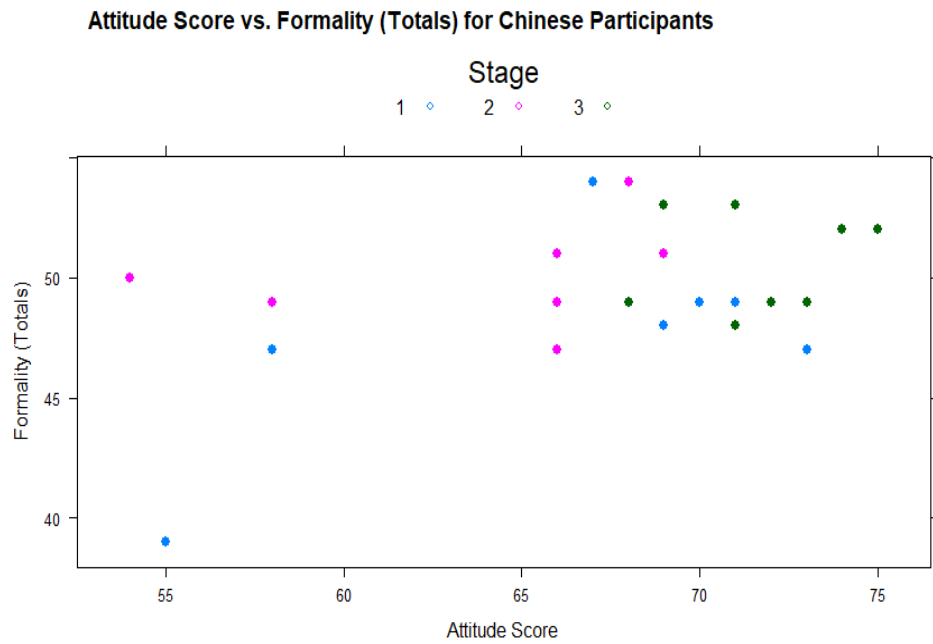


Figure 6.11: Plot of Chinese participants' attitude score vs. formality score over 3 stages

Figure 6.12 indicates that there is a good correlation between the Chinese participants' overall success and formality as the correlation coefficient is 0.4615859, or roughly 46.16%. The p-value is $0.02318 < 0.05$, which is statistically significant.

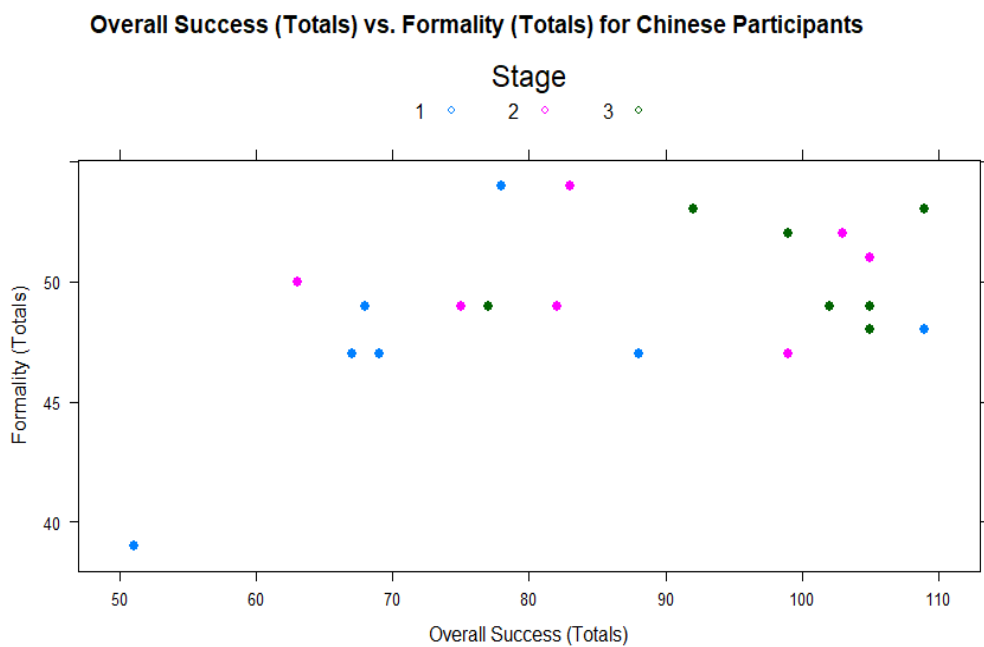


Figure 6.12: Plot of Chinese participants' overall success score vs. formality score over 3 stages

6.4 L1 Culture and Overall Success

In this section, the influence of L1 culture on the Saudi and Chinese participants' overall success is measured and discussed in terms of the different levels of the three contextual variables of familiarity, power, and imposition regarding the apology responses to the DCT and role play situations.

As to the social familiarity assessed in the DCT, Table 6.5 shows the standard deviation and the mean score of each familiarity level versus all the participants' overall success calculated. The mean score of stranger familiarity in the DCT situations was 3.17, the total mean score of acquaintance familiarity level in the DCT was 2.97, and that of close familiarity level in the DCT was 2.65. This indicates that there was variance in the performance of apology strategies among the Saudi and Chinese participants in the different familiarity levels of the DCT situations. The highest variance occurred among the Saudi and Chinese participant in the stranger familiarity DCT situations, followed by the acquaintance familiarity situations and then by the close familiarity situations. Table 6.6 indicates that there were statistically highly significant differences among the groups of Saudi and Chinese participant and within the groups in terms of familiarity as supported by the p-value of $.001 < 0.05$. Such differences were also statistically significant between the Saudi and Chinese participants and within the groups over the three stages in terms of social familiarity because the p-value was $0.003 < 0.05$. This result was affirmed by the linear regression model where the p-value was > 0.05 , as shown in Table 6.7. Some examples of the Saudi and Chinese participants' apology responses to different familiarity levels in the DCT situations are analysed below.

1. Close familiarity: 'missing deadline '(situation1)

Saudi: "I'm sorry, it's really an embarrassing situation, I had some troubles with my family, because of that I could not finish the job, I do apologise, it won't happen again."

The Saudi response consists of IFID, expression of embarrassment, excuse, explanation, IFID, and promise of forbearance.

Chinese: "I'm so sorry, I will try my best to find some solution to help us to deal with that."

The Chinese response consists of UG1 + IFID and offer of repair.

In the case of close familiarity, both participants shared the use of IFID strategy to express apology. However, they differed in that the Chinese used an upgrader preceding the IFID to

emphasise their apology. Instead, the Saudi participant used an expression of embarrassment to emphasise the feeling of being guilty. Contrary to the Chinese, the Saudi participant provided excuses and explanations to justify the offence occurrence. For compensation, both resorted to different strategies. The Saudi participant preferred to assure their victims that the offence would not happen again, whereas the Chinese preferred to provide immediate solutions by offering to repair the offence.

2. Acquaintance familiarity: 'Tuition fees' (situation 7)

Saudi: "I'm really sorry, I know it is the third time, I do apologise."

The Saudi response consists of UG1 + sorry + Admission I + IFID

Chinese: "Could you give me a chance to treat you to eat dinner".

The Chinese response consists of an offer of repair.

In the acquaintance familiarity situation, the two participants used different apology strategies to express their regret for the offence occurrence. The Saudi participant demonstrated care for the victims by resorting to an elaborate apology response, whereas the Chinese used a single strategy semantic formula. This reveals that the Saudi provided rather passionate expressions of apology, while the Chinese went straight for the compensation of the victims. In this regard, the Saudi participant used UG 1 + IFID, since they admitted the occurrence of the offence using admission I strategy and then used IFID once again. This type of response reveals that the Saudi participants usually bore full responsibility for the offence in a passionate way, reflecting their feeling of guilt. As such, the Saudi participant provided a sincere apology. On the other hand, the Chinese was more practical as he preferred to provide some sort of offer of repair by inviting the victim to a dinner meal, for example.

3. Stranger familiarity: 'hot soap' (situation 13)

Saudi: "I'm terribly sorry, it's my mistake, it's an embarrassing situation, let me clean it."

The Saudi response consists of UG1 + sorry, admission, expression of embarrassment, offer of repair

Chinese: "I'm so sorry, I'll help you clean it".

The Chinese response consists of UG1 + IFID, offer of repair

As to stranger familiarity in the DCT situation, it seems that the Saudi participant was keener to offer repair to the stranger interlocutor than to those of close or acquaintance familiarity. However, the Saudi participant showed sincere and passionate apology responses to all victims regardless of the type of social familiarity. Compared to the Chinese counterpart

elaborate responses of apology were provided whereby the offence occurrence was admitted the feeling of embarrassment was expressed. The use of UG1 + IFID and offer of repair was shared with the Chinese counterpart in the cases of stranger familiarity.

Table 6.5: Standard deviation and mean scores of each familiarity level vs. overall success

Familiarity	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Stranger	3.1771	288	1.51872
acquaintance	2.9792	288	1.41159
Close	2.6528	288	1.45463
Total	2.9363	864	1.47654

Table 6.6: One-way ANOVA of the three levels of social power vs. overall success

Test of Homogeneity of Variances				
	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
<u>TaskID</u>	.	5	.	.
L1	8.188	5	858	.000
Stage	.644	5	858	.666
Familiarity	4.467	5	858	.001

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
<u>TaskID</u>	Between Groups	.000	5	.000	.	.
	Within Groups	.000	858	.000		
	Total	.000	863			
L1	Between Groups	6.345	5	1.269	5.194	.000
	Within Groups	209.655	858	.244		
	Total	216.000	863			
stage	Between Groups	12.093	5	2.419	3.680	.003
	Within Groups	563.907	858	.657		
	Total	576.000	863			
familiarity	Between Groups	20.841	5	4.168	6.442	.000
	Within Groups	555.159	858	.647		

Table 6.7: Linear regression of the three levels of social power vs. overall success

Coefficients^a						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.384	.229		10.401	.000
	L1	.400	.098	.136	4.097	.000
	Stage	.238	.060	.132	3.974	.000
	Familiarity	-.262	.060	-.145	-4.380	.000

As to the social familiarity in the role play situations, Table 6.8 shows the standard deviation and the mean score of each familiarity level versus all participants' overall success as calculated. The mean score of not close familiarity in the role play situations was 4.05, whereas the total mean score of close familiarity level was 4.04. This indicates that there was little variance in the performance of apology strategies among the Saudi and Chinese participants with regard to the two different familiarity levels of the role play situations. Little variance occurred among the Saudi and Chinese participant in the not close familiarity role play situations followed by the close familiarity situations. Table 6.9 indicates that there were statistically insignificant differences among the two groups and within the groups in terms of familiarity as indicated by the p-value of $.282 > 0.05$. According to the linear regression model, such differences were also statistically insignificant between the Saudi and Chinese participants and within the groups over the two stages in terms of social familiarity because the p-value of $.975 > 0.05$, as shown in Table 6.10. Some examples of the Saudi and Chinese participants' apology responses to different familiarity levels in the role play situations are analysed below.

Table 6.8: Standard deviation and mean scores of each familiarity level vs. overall success

Familiarity	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
<u>Not close</u>	4.0573	192	.84497
Close	4.0417	192	.92569
Total	4.0495	384	.88512

Table 6.9: One-way ANOVA of the three levels of social power vs. overall success

Test of Homogeneity of Variances				
	<u>Levene</u> Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
<u>TaskID</u>	.	3	.	.
L1	1.649	3	379	.178
Stage	8.626	3	379	.000
Familiarity	.448	3	379	.719

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
<u>TaskID</u>	Between Groups	.000	4	.000	.	.
	Within Groups	.000	379	.000		
	Total	.000	383			
L1	Between Groups	2.134	4	.533	2.154	.074
	Within Groups	93.866	379	.248		
	Total	96.000	383			
Stage	Between Groups	43.726	4	10.931	19.517	.000
	Within Groups	212.274	379	.560		
	Total	256.000	383			
Familiarity	Between Groups	1.268	4	.317	1.268	.282
	Within Groups	94.732	379	.250		
	Total	96.000	383			

Table 6.10: Linear regression of the two levels of social power vs. overall success

Coefficients^a						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.556	.170		20.976	.000
	L1	-.255	.082	-.144	-3.115	.002
	Stage	.438	.050	.404	8.719	.000
	Familiarity	.003	.082	.001	.032	.975

Some examples of the Saudi and Chinese participants' two familiarity levels in the role play situations are presented in the following.

1. Close familiarity: 'forgetting coffee' (situation1)

Saudi: "Oh, I'm sorry, sorry, I forgot to get your cup of coffee, because I was ... silence, I'm sorry because I spoke to one of my friends and I forgot, I can give it to you, I will bring it myself."

The Saudi's semantic formula consists of emotional expression, double IFID, admission I, explanation, silence, IFID, explanation, admission I, and double offer of repair.

Chinese: "Oh, sorry, I forgot that, I'm so sorry, because I was chatting with my friend and have important things to discuss, I will by a new one for you now."

The Chinese's semantic formula consists of emotional expression, sorry, admission I, UG1 + IFID, explanation, and offer of repair.

First of all, the Chinese participant used more responses in the familiarity related role plays situations, compared to his responses to the same variable in the DCT situations. This indicates that, generally, the Chinese participants are more expressive when they verbally communicate rather than when responding in writing. As such, this finding indicates that the type of data collection instrument may affect the amount of L2 pragmatic output. This finding raises a methodological question on the effectiveness of both DCT and role plays in eliciting L2 pragmatic data. As to examples of close familiarity in the role plays, both Saudi and Chinese participants used almost similar apology strategies. In particular, they resorted to the emotional expression 'oh!', IFID, admission I, explanation, and offer of repair. However, the Saudi participants were more emphatic than their Chinese counterparts as they used double admission I, double offer of repair, and three IFID strategies. Meanwhile, the Chinese

participants used UG1 + IFID. They also used the 'sorry' strategy indicating less effect compared to the use of 'I'm sorry' by the Saudi participant. This finding indicates that the Saudi participant tended to be more protective of the face of those with whom they had close social familiarity compared to the Chinese participants. This could be justified by the influence of the Saudi culture in which offenders tend to use repeated forms of apology in order to emphasise their regret, sincere apology, and feeling of guilt.

2. Not close familiarity: 'heavy bag' (situation 2)

Saudi: "I'm so sorry, that was my fault, I'm terribly sorry. I apologize, sorry."

The Saudi's semantic formula consists here of UG1 + IFID, self-blame, UG1 + IFID, IFID, and sorry.

Chinese: "Oh, I'm so sorry, it is my bag, it is heavy, but I put it in a proper way, I'm so sorry, are you ok? If you do not feel good I will take you to the hospital."

The Chinese's semantic formula consists here of emotional expression, UG1 + IFID, double admission of fact, explanation, UG1 + IFID, concern, and offer of repair.

As to the examples of not close familiarity in the role plays, the Saudi participants tend to maintain their emphatic style which they typically employ when addressing those of close familiarity. This reveals that the Saudi participants assume responsibility for their offence and try to seek forgiveness from the victims, whether they are socially close or not close. The emphatic style is evident in the use of three IFID strategies. Contrary to the Saudi participants who tend to blame themselves for the offence, the Chinese participants try to find an excuse for the offence by, e.g., saying "I put it in a proper way" to reveal that the offence occurred unintentionally. In the above example, the Chinese participant used emotional expression, UG1 + IFID, double admission of fact (e.g. "It is my bag" and "It is heavy"); he showed concern for the victim, as in "Are you OK?". Unlike the Saudi participant, the Chinese participant in the example above offers taking the victim to hospital in a way of repairing their offence.

As to the social power in the DCT, Table 6.11 shows the standard deviation and the mean score of each power level versus all participants' overall success as calculated. The mean score of L-H power in the DCT situations was 2.84, the total mean score of E power level (See Chapter four) in the DCT situations was 3.35, while that of the H-L power levels in the DCT situations was 2.61. This indicates that there was variance in the performance of apology strategies among the Saudi and Chinese participants with reference to the different

power levels of the DCT situations. The highest variance occurred among the Saudi and Chinese participant in the equal power DCT situations, followed by the L-H power situations, and then finally the H-L power situations. Table 6.12 indicates that there were highly statistically significant differences between the groups of Saudi and Chinese participant and within the groups in terms of power as shown by the p-value was < 0.05 . Such differences were also statistically significant between the Saudi and Chinese participants and within the groups over the three stages in terms of social power as indicated by the p-value of $0.003 < 0.05$. This result was affirmed by the linear regression model where the p-value was > 0.05 , as shown in Table 6.13. Some examples of the Saudi and Chinese participants' apology responses to the DCT situations are analysed below.

1. L-H power: 'seminar preparation' (situation2)

Saudi: "Oh, I'm sorry, I left the paper at home, but we can sort it out."

Here the strategies used are emotional expression, IFID, admission I, and offer of repair.

Chinese: "I am so sorry, I'll ask my friend to help get back the files, sorry."

This Chinese participant employs UG1+ sorry, offer of repair and sorry strategies.

As to the L-H power situations in the DCT, both participants shared the use of UG1 + IFID and offer of repair strategies. However, generally speaking, the Saudi participants' apology responses reflect their seriousness in apologising for the committed offence more than those of the Chinese participants. This is evident in their use of more apology strategies. The Saudi participant in the above example admitted the offence occurrence using admission I more than the Chinese; he also used more emotional expressions and repeated IFID strategy twice within his apology response. The apology responses of both participants reflect the effect of L1 culture. In this sense the Saudi culture is that of hierarchical community in which low power individuals should give due respect to those who are higher in social power. Similarly, the Chinese participants obey the social values and norms of their collectivistic community that assert the principle of deference particularly to those who have high social power. However, the Saudi participants differed from the Chinese participants in the reflection of their sincere and serious apology by using further formulas of apology strategies.

2. Equal power: 'lecture notes' (situation 3)

Saudi: "My apology, I forgot to return the book notes for you on time, I was really in terrible problem, and because of that I couldn't return it to you"

Here, IFID, admission I, explanation, and explicit Explanation are exhibited.

Chinese: "I'm so sorry"

Here, UG1 + IFID are employed.

As to the equal power situations in the DCT, the Saudi participants' responses outnumbered those of their Chinese counterparts in providing elaborate semantic formula of apology. Whereas the Chinese participants only used UG1 + IFID strategy, the Saudi participants expressed deep sincere apology. In addition to the IFID strategy, they admitted the offence using the first person pronoun 'I' and provided double explanations. This shows the intent to protect the face of the equal power interlocutors, just as was the case with higher power interlocutors. It is the Saudi concept of politeness which urges Saudi individuals to maintain friendship with others regardless of the level of social power. The Chinese also have the same tendency of maintaining friendship with other interlocutors. However, they do so as a compulsory cultural practice dictates so, while the Saudi participants act in reflection on their religious-oriented L1 culture which teaches them to spread intimacy and peace among one other and with people of other nations as well.

3. H-L power: 'new assistant' (situation13)

Saudi: "I'm really sorry, I forgot to submit your form of your salary to wages department, I'm really sorry."

UG1 + IFID, admission I, UG1 + IFID

Chinese: "Sorry, I will pay you money from my salary."

Sorry, offer of repair

As to the H-L power situation in the DCT, the sincerity of apology responses which characterizes the Saudi participants' responses is evident above. In the case of an offender with higher power, the apology response consists of 'I'm really sorry' (i.e. UG1 + IFID), compared to the Chinese apology response which contains the strategy 'sorry'. In this respect, Chapter four provided a detailed explanation of the distinction between both strategies, where the use of 'sorry' does not reflect a sincere apology on the part of the offender. These responses also confirm the usefulness of the new classification adopted in the present study unlike in most of the studies that classify 'sorry' along with 'I'm sorry' under IFID strategies. High social power Saudi offenders tended to start and end their apology using the same UG1 + IFID strategy emphasising the fact that those in high power are not reluctant to provide apology to those who have lower social power. This goes along with the

L1 culture, as mentioned before. The Saudi/Arab culture is mainly influenced by religious teachings which urge to spread tolerance among the individuals in the community. The Chinese participants tend to use 'sorry' in this context, which may be interpreted as embedded in the Chinese tradition while the apology expression of the Saudi participants is a ritual religious and cultural norm. Moreover, the Chinese participants were more practical compared to the Saudi ones in offering repair to the damage endured by the victims. Offering to compensate the victim from one's own money is considered an insult in the Saudi culture; it is against the cultural rules of Arab communities particularly when the offender has higher social power compared to the victim because in such a case this act could be interpret as charity.

Table 6.11: Standard deviation and mean scores of power levels vs. overall success

Power	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
L-H	2.8403	288	1.37759
E	3.3576	288	1.49116
H-L	2.6111	288	1.46319
Total	2.9363	864	1.47654

Table 6.12: One-way ANOVA of the three levels of social power vs. overall success

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
<u>TaskID</u>	Between Groups	.000	5	.000	.	.
	Within Groups	.000	858	.000		
	Total	.000	863			
L1	Between Groups	6.345	5	1.269	5.194	.000
	Within Groups	209.655	858	.244		
	Total	216.000	863			
Stage	Between Groups	12.093	5	2.419	3.680	.003
	Within Groups	563.907	858	.657		
	Total	576.000	863			
Power	Between Groups	7.970	5	1.594	2.408	.035
	Within Groups	568.030	858	.662		
	Total	576.000	863			

Table 6.13: Linear regression of the three levels of social power vs. overall success

Coefficients						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.089	.231		9.033	.000
	L1	.400	.099	.136	4.061	.000
	stage	.238	.060	.132	3.938	.000
	power	-.115	.060	-.063	-1.897	.031

As to the social power in the role play situations, Table 6.14 displays the standard deviation and the mean score of each power level versus all participants' overall success as respectively calculated. The mean score of L-H power in the role play situations was 4.03, whereas the total means score of Equal power level in the role play situations was 4.06. This indicates that there was variance in the performance of apology strategies among the Saudi and Chinese participants in the two different power levels in the role play situations. The highest variance occurred among the Saudi and Chinese participant in the equal power situations, followed by the L-H power variable. Table 6.15 indicates that there were highly statistically significant differences among the two groups and within the groups in terms of power as indicated by the p-value was <0.05 . Such differences were also statistically significant between and within the groups over the three stages in terms of social power because the p-value was <0.05 . This result was affirmed by the linear regression model where the p-value was <0.05 , as shown in Table 6.16. Examples of the Saudi and Chinese participants' apology responses to the role play situations are analysed below.

Table 6.14: Standard deviation and mean scores of power levels vs. overall success

Power	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
L-H	4.0313	192	.87971
E	4.0677	192	.89243
Total	4.0495	384	.88512

The test of homogeneity of variances is used to compare the variances of the Saudi and Chinese participants; it is usually part of the ANOVA analysis. In Table 6.15 the test of homogeneity of variance shows the variances between the Saudi and Chinese in relation to the L1, stage and power.

Table 6.15: One-way ANOVA of the two levels of social power vs. overall success

Test of Homogeneity of Variances				
	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
<u>TaskID</u>	.	3	.	.
L1	1.649	3	379	.178
Stage	8.626	3	379	.000
Power	11.954	3	379	.000

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
<u>TaskID</u>	Between Groups	.000	4	.000	.	.
	Within Groups	.000	379	.000		
	Total	.000	383			
L1	Between Groups	2.134	4	.533	2.154	.040
	Within Groups	93.866	379	.248		
	Total	96.000	383			
Stage	Between Groups	43.726	4	10.931	19.517	.000
	Within Groups	212.274	379	.560		
	Total	256.000	383			
Power	Between Groups	2.464	4	.616	2.495	.043
	Within Groups	93.536	379	.247		
	Total	96.000	383			

Table 6.16: Linear regression of the three levels of social power vs. overall success

Coefficients						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.548	.231		15.331	.000
	L1	-.254	.085	-.144	-3.002	.003
	Stage	.438	.050	.404	8.715	.000
	Power	.005	.085	.003	.058	.034

Below are some examples of the two power levels in the role play situations.

1. Equal power: 'crash car' (situation 3)

Saudi: "Oh, my friend, I'm sorry, I crashed your car, so sorry, it was my fault, I tried to fixed, that's my fault, I do apologise, I will fix it, I'm sorry, I will fix it."

The Saudi semantic formula consists here of emotional expression, appeaser, UG1 + IFID, admission I, UG1 + sorry, self blame, offer of repair, self blame, IFID, and double self blame.

Chinese: "I ... to see something to be honest, I damaged your car, it is very serious, I'm so sorry, if you need cars I can borrow a new one from other friend to you."

The Chinese semantic formula consists of silence, admission I, admission of fact, UG1 + IFID, and offer of repair.

As to the examples of equal power level in the role play situations, both Saudi and Chinese participants admitted responsibility for the offence and used UG1 + IFID. The Saudi participant was keen to emphasise the social intimacy by calling the victim "my friend". He also used repeated offer of repair "I will fix it", as well as self-blame. The Chinese participant, on the other hand, did not offer any actual repair of the offence but a temporary solution which did not compensate for the real damage the victim endured. This shows that the Chinese differ from the Saudis when the offence is related to those of equal power. This further demonstrates that the Saudi attempt to protect the positive face of the hearer while Chinese protect the negative face of the hearer.

2. Low-High power: 'wrong room' (situation 5)

Saudi: "I'm sorry sir, did I disturb you, I was looking for another room, I ...just new here, I'm looking for my friend's office, and by mistake I opened your door, I promise you that will not happen again."

The Saudi's semantic formula consists here of UG1 + IFID, appeaser, concern, explanation, silence, explanation, lack of intent, and promise of forbearance.

Chinese: "I'm so sorry, I found a wrong room. I am looking for my friend, if you have something, if you need help, you can ask me to do it for you."

The Chinese's semantic formula consists of UG1 + IFID, admission I in this case.

The Chinese tend to be more serious when apologising in the situation of L-H power compared to their apologies in the equal power situations. That is, they tend to please their victims of higher social power more than those who of equal social power. This shows that the Chinese may use apology for utilitarian end or personal interest. They are not as sincere as Saudis in their apology. In the case of L-H social power situations, the Saudis maintain their sincerity in apologising, similar to the equal social power situations. While the Saudi used the "my friend" form of address in the case of equal social power, he addressed the high power interlocutor as "sir" to indicate his respect to the victim, conform to the hierarchical Saudi society. The expression of humbleness can be seen in the Chinese participants' offer to remedy their offence by rendering any help to the victim.

As to the influence of the two imposition levels in the DCT situations, Table 6.17 shows that there were differences in the Saudi and Chinese participants' use of apology responses in the DCT situations over the three stages. There was high variance in apology responses in the DCT situations between the Saudi and Chinese participants when there was mild imposition; with mean scores of 3.01, followed by the DCT situation of serious imposition (2.85). However, these differences were not statistically significant, as Table 6.18 representing one-way ANOVA indicates. This finding is attributed to the fact that the ANOVA p-value of imposition of .291 was > 0.05 . Table 6.19 displays the results of the linear regression analysis which confirmed the ANOVA results as the imposition p-value of .096 was > 0.05 . This finding indicates that the Saudi and Chinese participants' apology responses in the DCT situations did not significantly differ in terms of the two levels of imposition. Below are examples of the apology responses of both Saudi and Chinese participants to the DCT situations of mild and serious imposition.

1. Serious imposition: 'promotion' (situation 5)

Saudi: "Oh my God, I did a terrible mistake, I forgot to sign your papers, I'm so so sorry, it is my fault, but I promise it won't happen again, and you will get your promotion soon."

The semantic formula includes emotional expression, admission I, admission I, explanation, UG2 + IFID, self-blame, promise of forbearance, and offer of repair.

Chinese: "You have to remind me, I really wanted you to be promoted"

The Chinese's semantic formula consists of blaming the victim for the offence occurrence.

As to the serious offence situation in the DCT, the Chinese participant ended to deny responsibility for the offence by blaming the victim for offence occurrence. They tried to evade assuming responsibility in the context of higher social power and blamed the victim for the offence. As for interpretation, this may be interpreted as an effect of the L1 culture, which entitles the high power interlocutor with the right to be respected in the Chinese power hierarchy. However, in the example above there was a misuse of authority as the boss did not want to be blamed for delaying the promotion of his staff. Even though, the Saudi L1 culture is similar to that of the Chinese in giving due respect to those in higher social power, the Saudi participants adopted different pragmatic behaviour. Instead of the denial strategy used by the Chinese participants, the Saudi participants bore full responsibility for the offence occurrence. This is evident from their apology strategies. They used emotional expression in reference to being surprised about the offence occurrence or when indicating that they did not intend to delay the submission of their staff promotion documents. In this context, the strategies of admission I and UG2 (so, so) + IFID, self blame, promise of forbearance, and offer of repair were employed. The use of elaborate apology formula is consistent with the offence seriousness.

2. Mild imposition: coffee' (situation 4)

Saudi: "Oh, I'm sorry for being late, the traffic was incredible."

The semantic formula consists here of emotional expression, IFID, admission, and excuse

Chinese: "I'm sorry, I'm late because of the traffic jam, I know you waited for me a long time, maybe we can meet later next time."

The Chinese's semantic formula consists of IFID, admission I, excuse, admission I, and offer of repair.

As to the mild imposition in the DCT, the Chinese participants used more apology strategies compared to the Saudi ones. Based on the Saudi cultural norms, being late for an appointment at a café is not considered as a FTA. However, the Saudi participants reflected

their apology by using emotional expression, IFID, admission of fact, and excuse for being late. Based on Brown and Levinson's (1987) classification of Chinese and British cultures, they belong to the negative politeness concept. The Chinese participants share the view of the British culture, namely that being late to an appointment is a FTA. Therefore, elaborate semantic formula of apology was employed. In the example above, IFID, excuse, admission I (twice), and then offer of repair were used.

Table 6.17: Standard deviation and mean scores of imposition levels vs. overall success

Imposition	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Mild	3.0185	432	1.46882
Serious	2.8542	432	1.48137
Total	2.9363	864	1.47654

Table 6.18: One-way ANOVA of the two levels of social imposition vs. overall success

Test of Homogeneity of Variances				
	<u>Levene</u> Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
<u>TaskID</u>	.	5	.	.
L1	8.188	5	858	.000
Stage	.644	5	858	.666
Imposition	.890	5	858	.487

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
<u>TaskID</u>	Between Groups	.000	5	.000	.	.
	Within Groups	.000	858	.000		
	Total	.000	863			
L1	Between Groups	6.345	5	1.269	5.194	.000
	Within Groups	209.655	858	.244		
	Total	216.000	863			
Stage	Between Groups	12.093	5	2.419	3.680	.003
	Within Groups	563.907	858	.657		
	Total	576.000	863			
Imposition	Between Groups	1.543	5	.309	1.235	.291
	Within Groups	214.457	858	.250		
	Total	216.000	863			

Table 6.19: Linear regression of the three levels of social imposition vs. overall success

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.106	.247		8.540	.000
	L1	.400	.099	.136	4.059	.000
	stage	.238	.060	.132	3.936	.000
	imposition	-.164	.099	-.056	-1.666	.096

As to the influence of the two imposition levels in the role play situations, Table 6.20 shows that there were differences in the Saudi and Chinese participants' use of apology responses in the role play situations over the three stages. There was high variance in the context of a serious imposition, followed by the situation of mild imposition. However, these differences were not statistically significant, as Table 6.21 of one-way ANOVA indicates. This finding is attributed to the fact that the ANOVA p-value of imposition of .756 was > 0.05 . Table 6.22 summarises the results of the linear regression analysis which confirmed the ANOVA results as the imposition p-value of .415 was > 0.05 . This finding indicates that the Saudi and Chinese participants' apology responses in the role play situations did not significantly differ in terms of the two levels of imposition. Below are some examples of the apology responses of both Saudi and Chinese participants to the role play situations of mild and serious imposition.

Table 6.20: Standard deviation and mean scores of imposition levels vs. overall success

Imposition	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Mild	3.9948	192	.86525
Serious	4.1042	192	.90350
Total	4.0495	384	.88512

Table 6.21: One-way ANOVA of the two levels of social imposition vs. overall success

Test of Homogeneity of Variances				
	<u>Levene</u> Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
<u>TaskID</u>	.	3	.	.
L1	1.649	3	379	.178
Stage	8.626	3	379	.000
Imposition	.396	3	379	.756

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	<u>df</u>	Mean Square	F	Sig.
<u>TaskID</u>	Between Groups	.000	4	.000	.	.
	Within Groups	.000	379	.000		
	Total	.000	383			
L1	Between Groups	2.134	4	.533	2.154	.074
	Within Groups	93.866	379	.248		
	Total	96.000	383			
Stage	Between Groups	43.726	4	10.931	19.517	.000
	Within Groups	212.274	379	.560		
	Total	256.000	383			
Imposition	Between Groups	.989	4	.247	.986	.415
	Within Groups	95.011	379	.251		
	Total	96.000	383			

Table 6.22: Linear regression of the three levels of social imposition vs. overall success

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.438	.202		16.994	.000
	L1	-.255	.082	-.144	-3.119	.002
	stage	.436	.050	.402	8.688	.000
	imposition	.082	.082	.046	1.003	.316

Serious imposition: 'deleted files' (situation 6)

Saudi: "Excuse me sir, I have bad news, I lost the files by mistake, I apologize for this mistake, I will try to recover the information and try to solve this problem, I know how big is my mistake".

The Saudi's semantic formula consists of IFID, appeaser, double admission I, lack of intent, silence, IFID, double offer of repair, and admission I.

Chinese: "I'm sorry boss, I think this is an accident in this computer, for solutions do you have any copies for those documents? Right now all documents have been lost, I can't find all documents, I will check it, I'm sorry for that, it's a good advice."

The Chinese's semantic formula consists of UG1 + IFID, appeaser, admission I, offer of repair, admission of fact, admission I, offer of repair, UG1 + IFID, appeaser.

In the serious imposition role play situations, both Saudi and Chinese participants shared expression of responsibility of the offence, particularly since the victim has higher social power compared to that of the offender. Both expressed their respect to the offender by addressing him "sir" in the case of the Saudi participant and as "boss" in the case of the Chinese participant. They both used admission I and admission of fact strategies. Hesitation reflected in the silence strategy of Saudi participants can also be generally interpreted as a sign of respect shown to the high social power interlocutors in the Saudi culture. Both offered to repair the offence and compensate the damage inflicted on the victim due to their offence. The Saudi and Chinese participants' apology strategies in these serious imposition situations are consistent with the cultural norms of collectivistic societies to which Saudi and Chinese participants belong.

2. Mild imposition: 'standing on someone's toe' (situation 4)

Saudi: "Don't worry, don't worry, I will fix it, I will fix everything, I'm sorry, the elevator is crowded, I couldn't feel your toe, I apologize for that, I'm really sorry, I did not mean to do that."

The Saudi's semantic formula consists of double concern, double offer of repair, IFID, double explanation, IFID, UG1 + IFID, and lack of intent.

Chinese: "Are you ok? Really sorry".

The Chinese's semantic formula consists of two strategies only, namely concern and UG1 + sorry.

Even in mild imposition situations, the Saudi participants tend to elaborate apology responses reflecting the communication style of Arabs and the repeated forms of apology strategies. Such communication style is common even if they see their interlocutors for the first time. However, the conservative nature of the Chinese participants made them use short semantic formula of apology. Whereas the Saudi participant used exaggerated forms of apology showing concern about the victim embodied in the repeated concern "Do not worry", the Chinese participant resorted to a single form of concern "Are you OK?". Whereas the Chinese participant used UG1 + sorry, the Saudi participant used the IFID strategy "I'm sorry". The Saudi participant also used UG1 + IFID "I'm really sorry" as an UG1 + IFID, therefore providing a double explanation "The elevator is crowded" and "I could not feel your toe". The Saudi participant also offered repair twice immediately after showing concern twice in order to ease the victim's feeling of anger. He was also keen to express the lack of intent in "I did not mean to do that".

6.5 Comparison, Discussion, and Analysis

Generally, both Saudi and Chinese participants tended to have positive attitudes towards learning English. However, the Saudi participants were found to have higher positive attitude scores towards learning English, compared to their Chinese counterparts. Only two Saudi participants showed negative attitude scores at stages 2 and 3. On the contrary, five Chinese participants had negative attitude scores at stages 1 and 2. The participants' positive attitudes were evident in their "strongly agree" responses to such questionnaire items as "I like English most among all foreign languages"; "Learning English is fun"; and "English has a solid position in the world". This finding was compatible with that of Schmidt (1993).

Contrary to negative-attitude oriented EFL learners, those who exhibit positive attitude are always keen on understanding the pragmatic aspects of L2 pragmatic instruction.

The Saudi and Chinese participants were similar in this respect as their total attitude scores influentially affected their usage scores. There were differences in the usage scores between the two groups. In other words, the Saudi participants outperformed their Chinese counterparts in the L2 usage. There was a good correlation between the Saudi and Chinese participants' total attitudes and their usage scores. In the case of Saudi participants, attitude accounted for 50% of their usage scores, while it accounted for 54.92% of the Chinese participants' usage scores. Both Saudi and Chinese participants were similar in that there were positive correlations established between their overall success scores and their formality scores. The impact of attitude and usage on overall success and formality varied among the Saudi and Chinese participants. The Saudi participants' usage and attitude scores were not correlated with their overall success and formality scores. In other words, the overall and formality scores did significantly differ among Saudi participants in terms of their attitude and usage scores. On the contrary, there were positive correlations between the usage and attitude scores of the Chinese participants and their formality scores. That is, the formality scores significantly differed among the Chinese participants because of their attitude and usage scores. However, the Chinese participants were similar to their Saudi counterparts in the influence of usage on formality, on the one hand, and the influence of attitude scores on their overall success scores, on the other. In other words, there were negative correlations between the Chinese participants' overall success scores in terms of attitude score, on the one hand, and between their usage scores and formality, on the other. Contrary to the Saudi participants, there were positive correlations between the Chinese participants' usage scores and their overall success scores.

Based on the above results, there is a contradiction between this attitude finding and that reported by Clement (1985). Clement asserted that types of attitudes and motivation adopted by EFL learners could lead to a good prediction about their L2 acquisition. The usage of English is explained under the type of motivation. EFL learners may use English in order to integrate themselves with the NS (i.e. integrative motivation) or to achieve a utilitarian end like having better jobs or reading English newspapers. In the present study, there was positive correlation found between the Chinese usage score, which is less than that of the Saudi, and their overall success in using apology strategy. This shows that a higher usage score does not

ensure a good correlation with the overall success. As such, the usage finding does not corroborate the one reported by Clement (1985). In addition, the attitude finding confirmed the one reported by LoCastro (2001). LoCastro explained that it is not necessary for positive attitude to lead to a change in the EFL learners' self-identity. In this regard, there were no significant differences in the Saudi and Chinese participants' overall success scores based on their positive attitudes towards learning English. In other words, there was influence of Saudi and Chinese positive attitudes on their use of apology responses, both in the DCT and the role play situations. This attitude finding also affirmed that reported by Hinkel (1996). The adoption of L2 communicative norms was not affected by the EFL learners' acknowledgment of the L2 pragmatic norms. However, this finding contradicted the finding of Kasper and Schmidt (1996). There was sensitivity between EFL learners' attitude and their willingness to adopt L2 communicative norms.

The influence of the L1 cultural on the development of Saudi and Chinese participants' L2 pragmatic competence varied in terms of the three contextual variables of social familiarity, power and imposition. The three familiarity levels in the DCT situations were found influential on the Saudi and Chinese participants' apology responses. Indeed, both groups' apology responses significantly varied according to the level of familiarity. There were statistically significant differences either between groups or within the groups as the p-values showed high significance in the DCT. The p-value of familiarity in the DCT situations was <0.05 . In the DCT, the highest variance among Saudi and Chinese participants was found in the stranger familiarity DCT situations, followed by the acquaintance familiarity situations, and then finally the close familiarity situations. On the contrary, the two familiarity levels in the role play situations were not influential on the Saudi and Chinese participants' apology responses. The apology responses of both groups did not significantly vary either between groups or within the groups as the p-values showed statistical insignificance in the role plays. The p-values of familiarity, according to ANOVA and linear regression analyses, were >0.05 in the role play situations. The different results of familiarity in the DCT and role play situations can be attributed to the different ways of classifying familiarity in these two data collection instruments. Familiarity was classified into three levels in the DCT situations (stranger, acquaintance, and close), whereas it was only classified into two levels in the role play situations (i.e. not close and close). The different classification in the role play situations from those of the DCT is attributed to the attempt of reducing the assessors' task burden. This

was consistent with the difficulty of recruiting and maintaining the assessors over the period of the three data collection stages.

The three levels of power in the DCT situations (L-H, E, H-L) and its two levels in the role play situations (L-H, E) were found influential on the Saudi and Chinese participants' apology responses. Indeed, both groups' apology responses were significantly varied in the DCT and the role play situations according to the different levels of power. There were statistically significant differences either between groups or within the groups as the p-values showed high significance in the DCT and significance in the role play situations. The p-values in the two cases of the DCT and the role play situations were < 0.05 . In the DCT, the highest variance among Saudi and Chinese participants was found in the equal power situations, followed by the low-high power situations, and then by the high-low power situations. Similarly, the highest variance among the Saudi and Chinese participants in the role play situation was found in the equal power situations followed by the low-high power situations. This means that all the participants adopted similar apology responses in the case high-low DCT and role play situations.

The two imposition levels in the DCT and role play (serious, mild) situations were not influential on the Saudi and Chinese participants' apology responses. The little variance of imposition in the DCT situations occurred in the mild imposition situations, followed by the serious imposition situations. On the contrary, the variance of imposition in the role play situations occurred in the serious imposition situations, followed by the mild imposition situations. The apology responses of both groups did not significantly vary either between groups or within the groups as the p-values showed statistical insignificance in the DCT and role play situations. The p-values of imposition, according to the ANOVA and linear regression analyses, in the role play situations were >0.05 .

The apology strategies followed by the Saudi and Chinese participants are consistent with Lakoff's (1973) politeness principles. Both Saudi and Chinese participants kept distance with their interlocutors according to age (seniority) and occupation. This was evident in the forms of address and titles like 'sir' (used by the Saudi participants) and 'boss' (favoured by the Chinese participants). In those cases, Saudi and Chinese participants delivered messages in a formal way to reflect apology for imposition. This finding affirms Brown and Levinson's politeness rule that social power widely affects politeness in collectivistic cultures like those of the Saudi and Chinese participants. In addition, the degree of familiarity affects the use of

titles: the Chinese participants used the title 'boss' for the not close interlocutors with high social power, while the Saudi participants used the title 'sir' for the same type of familiarity interlocutors. Meanwhile, the Saudi participants used the address form 'my friend' for interlocutors with close social familiarity. Furthermore, the Chinese participants showed seriousness in apologising to high power interlocutors, compared to apologies made to equal power interlocutors. That was an indication of using apology to achieve a personal interest or a utilitarian end by the Chinese participants. On the contrary, the Saudi participants maintained the levels of serious and sincere apology when addressing high power interlocutors as they did in the context of equal power interlocutors.

The Saudi and Chinese participants differed as well in terms of familiarity and social power when the offender exhibited high social power compared to the victim. In that case, the high power Chinese offender intended to evade responsibility for the offence against the low-social power victim by blaming the victim for the offence occurrence. In the 'promotion' situation, for instance, the Chinese boss blamed the victim for not reminding him to process his promotion papers. The Chinese high power boss' pragmatic behaviour stemmed from the L1 Chinese culture that commands due respect and priority based on his occupation and relation towards the low social power victim. Contrary to the Chinese participants, the Saudi participants adopted different pragmatic behaviour when the offender exhibited a high social power compared to the victim. In the 'promotion' situation, for example, the Saudi participants felt responsible for the delay of promoting the low social power victim. They used the emotional expression 'oh!', for instance, to indicate that the offence occurred unintentionally. They also resorted to the first pronoun 'I' to assert responsibility for the offence. They further used double UG1 + IFID 'so so sorry' and tended to promise the victim that the offence would not occur again, pledging to repair the offence. The semantic formula of apology expression in the promotion situation was consistent with the serious type of imposition which the situation implied.

Furthermore, the Saudi participants expressed sincere apology even in the stranger/not close familiarity level in accordance to Lakoff's (1973) principle of making the interlocutors feel good or expressing camaraderie. In the role play 'heavy bag' situation, the Saudi participants adopted emphatic style of communication using three IFID strategies. The Chinese participants tried to find an excuse for the offence occurrence as they placed the bag properly. The Chinese participants also adhered to Lakoff's rule of politeness. They showed

concern for the victim and offered to repair the offence. The findings of the L1 Saudi culture were compatible with those of Danielewicz-Betz and Mamidi (2009). The employed apology strategies of Saudi participants can be accounted on the basis of positive face management. Saudi participants' apology strategies were mainly based on the two principles of agreement and generosity. These principles conform with the L1 Saudi culture where Saudis indirectly handle conflicts to maintain social harmony and relationship. The Saudi participants realised this by evading the conflict topics; they tended to show solidarity by minimising differences with the victims. They also tended to flatter the victim's face by showing respect to the victim.

The findings of the three contextual variables of social familiarity, power and imposition in the present study affirm the claims of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory regarding the face concept. To this end, the apology strategies of the Saudi and Chinese participants varied according to the three contextual variables of familiarity, power, and imposition. However, this variance does not necessarily lead to statistically significant differences, particularly in the case of social power and imposition based on the p-values, which were > 0.05 . Both Saudi and Chinese apology responses reflected the feelings of embarrassment and humiliation. The Saudi and Chinese participants lost their face to enhance and maintain their victims' face. These findings also assert that apology strategies adopted by the Chinese participants came in reflection of the Chinese participants' compliance with the social rules and values which the Chinese society has agreed upon. This finding supports the claims made by Gu (1990) that the Chinese politeness cannot only be interpreted in line with 'wants' under the face concept of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory (1978), but the polite Chinese pragmatic behaviour also comes in line with their L1 cultural norms and values prevailing in the Chinese society. This finding explains why some of the Chinese participants' apology responses were not serious enough, as they came as a routine and/or expected behaviour endowed on them by their cultural and social norms and values.

The perception of apology speech act as a FTA differed among the Saudi and Chinese participants. First of all, the Saudi participants were serious in apologising to their victims regardless of their high social power, as in the 'new assistant' and 'promotion' situations. On the other hand, the Saudi participants did not show the same degree of serious apology when they were late for an appointment at the café, compared to the Chinese participants, even though they admitted the offence and provided excuse for it. The Chinese participants, on the contrary, adopted the British view in such situations and used an elaborate semantic formula

of apology strategies. As mentioned before, the Saudi L1 culture does not view being late for an appointment as a FTA because of the Saudis' tendency to express appreciation, flatter the hearer's face and avoid criticising each other in public (Danielewicz-Betz and Mamidi, 2009). This finding of different perception of imposition among the Saudi and Chinese participants indicates that Brown and Levinson's politeness assessment is based on individualism. Although both Saudi and Chinese participants belong to collectivist cultures, they still differ in what constitutes the perception of imposition. This difference is related to the different social values and norms which compose the L1 cultures of the Saudi and Chinese participants.

The findings of the present study confirm the appropriateness of selecting Brown and Levinson's theory rather than Grice's and Leech's maxims to interpret the results of the present study. In other words, the protection or loss of face in terms of the social standards provides room for intercultural variation. The Saudi participants, for example, varied in their perception and the use of apology strategies from their Chinese counterparts in the 'crash car' situation. Although they shared the admission of responsibility, they adopted different apology strategies. Contrary to the Chinese participants, the Saudi participants used repeated expressions of self-blame and offer of repair strategies. The Chinese participants, on the other hand, did not show any genuine offer of repair.

Chapter seven will introduce the analysis the Saudi and Chinese participants' L2 pragmatic competence development according to the independent variables of stay in the UK, L2 proficiency and L2 proficiency components (writing, vocabulary, grammar, interview, and listening).

Chapter 7: Quantitative Analysis of the Development of Pragmatic Competence: Results and Discussion (Duration of stay in the UK and Proficiency)

7.1 Introduction

The purpose of the quantitative analysis of the data obtained is to examine the development of L2 pragmatic competence of each of the Saudi and Chinese participants in terms of duration of their stay in the UK and the components of the proficiency test (grammar, interview, listening, vocabulary, writing, and proficiency). The term 'overall success' stands for the L2 pragmatic competence. As explained in chapter 1, it represents the total score of apology strategies employed in the DCT and role play situations for all participants. The scores of grammar, interview, listening, vocabulary, writing, and proficiency are addressed in detail in Chapter four. In the regression models presented below, gradients refer to the rates at which overall success changed in relation to the examined independent variables (i.e. duration of the stay in the UK, grammar, interview, listening, vocabulary, writing, and proficiency). The negative coefficient means that the expected value of the overall success is less than zero when the predictor variables are set to zero. The R-value was computed to describe the effect of the duration of stay in the UK (measured in the number of days) and L2 proficiency components on the overall success development over the three stages of data collection.

7.1 Time in the UK vs. Overall Success over 3 Stages

7.1.1 Saudi Participants

This section analyses the influence of time spent in the UK on the Saudi participants' overall success in terms of pragmatic competence. The Saudi participants had the ID nos. 15, 18, 19, 21, 23, 37, 45, and 46.

Participant 15 spent 28 days in the UK before his participation in stage1; 167 days till stage 2, and 223 prior to stage 3. His mean scores are respectively -0.01396, 0.04861, and -0.03465 over all stages. Figure 7.1 indicates that the mean score of overall success improved from stage 1 to stage 2. However at stage 3, participant 15 maintained the mean score of stage 2. There were no statistically significant differences in participant 15's overall success due to the duration of his stay in the UK as the p-value of 0.1799 was > 0.05 , where 0.05 is the confidence coefficient.

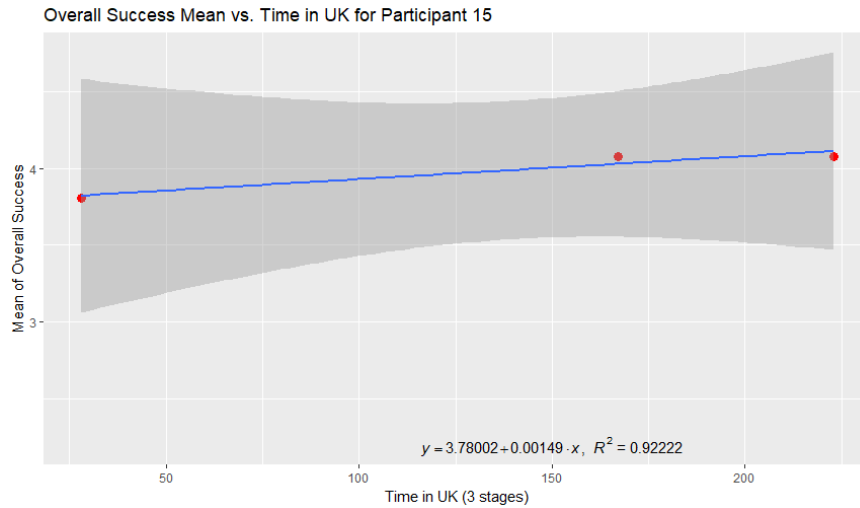


Figure 7.1: Mean score of overall success vs. time in the UK for participant 15

Participant 18 spent 28 days, 167 days, and 224 days before the three stages, respectively. Figure 7.2 indicates that although participant 18's overall success improved over stages 1 and 3, his overall success mean score at stage 1 was higher than that of stage 2, with the respective values of 0.0875, -0.3009 and 0.2134. P-value of 0.9404 was > 0.05 .

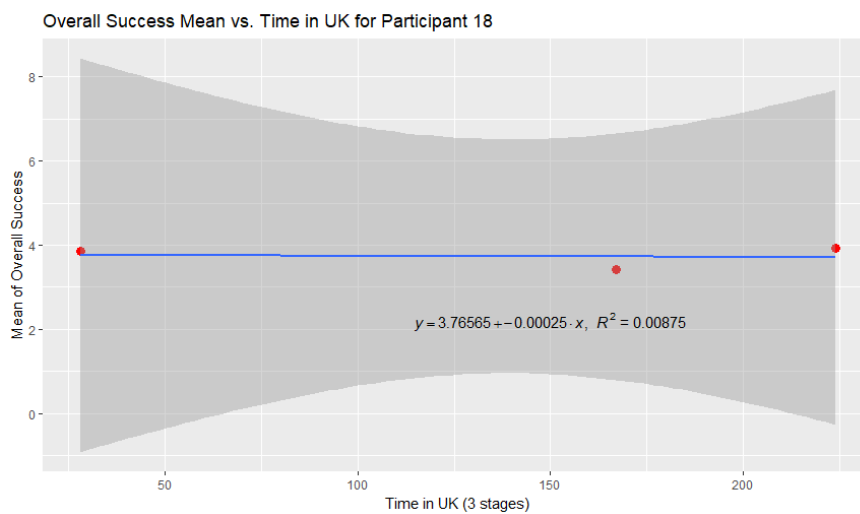


Figure 7.2: Mean score of overall success vs. time in the UK for participant 18

Participant 19 started stage 1 when he had already spent 110 days in the UK. His duration of stay was 153 days at the time of stage 2 and 348 days at stage 3. Figure 7.3 shows that he demonstrated the highest mean score of overall success at stage 2, compared to stages 1 and 3, with the respective values -0.3619, 0.4417, and -0.0798. P-value of 0.662 was > 0.05 .

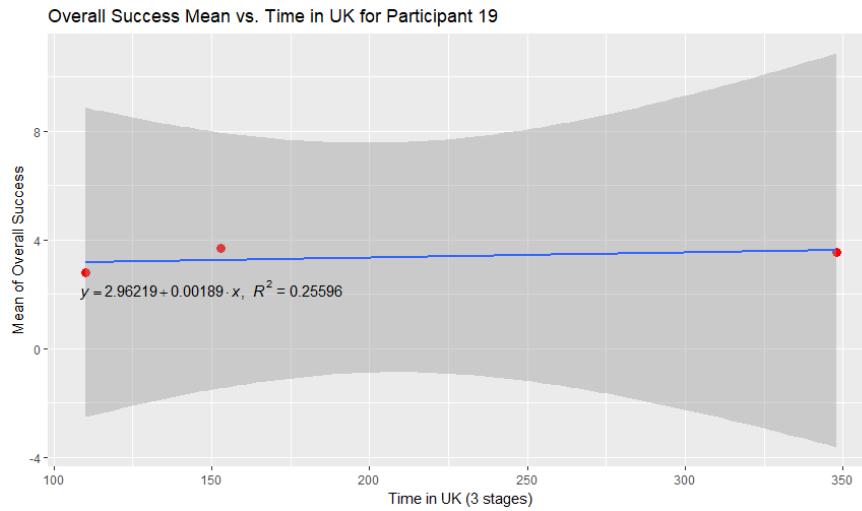


Figure 7.3: Mean score of overall success vs. time in the UK for participant 19

Participant 21 spent 105 days in the UK prior to stage 1, 150 days before stage 2 and 289 days at stage 3. According to Figure 7.4, participant 21's mean scores of overall success were improved over the three stages with -0.08409, 0.11010 and -0.02601 values, respectively. There are two negative values and one positive value because the highest mean score occurred at the second stage with a positive value while the two negative values referred to lower mean scores. P-value points to statistically insignificant differences in the overall success mean scores of participant 21 as it was $0.2406 > 0.05$. The improvement was judged based on the gradient scores and the significance or insignificance of the p-value.

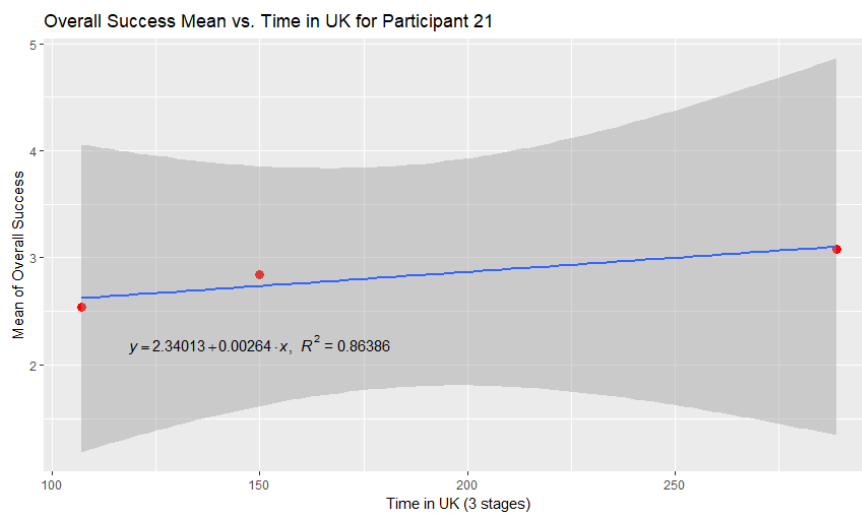


Figure 7.4: Mean score of overall success vs. time in the UK for participant 21

Participant 23 spent 167 days, 223 days, and 265 days prior to stages 1, 2, and 3, respectively. Even though his overall success mean score at stage 2 was lower than that of stage 1, his highest overall success mean score occurred at stage 3, as shown in Figure 7.5. There were statistically insignificant differences in the overall success mean scores of participant 23 over the three stages (0.08264, -0.19283, and 0.11019) as the p-value of 0.979 was > 0.05 .

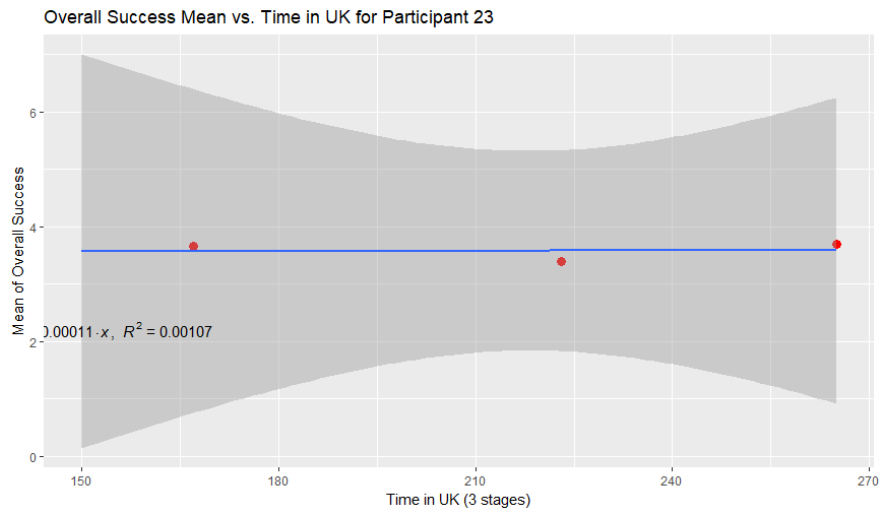


Figure 7.5: Mean score of overall success vs. time in the UK for participant 23

Participant 37 had been in the UK for 40 days, 137 days, and 166 days prior to stages 1, 2, and 3, respectively. Figure 7.6 shows that he had the highest overall mean score at stage 3, while the overall success mean score of stage 2 was lower than that at stage 1. Respectively, 0.0853, -0.3706 and 0.2853 scores were obtained. There were statistically insignificant mean score differences regarding this participant's overall success as the p-value of 0.584 was > 0.05 .

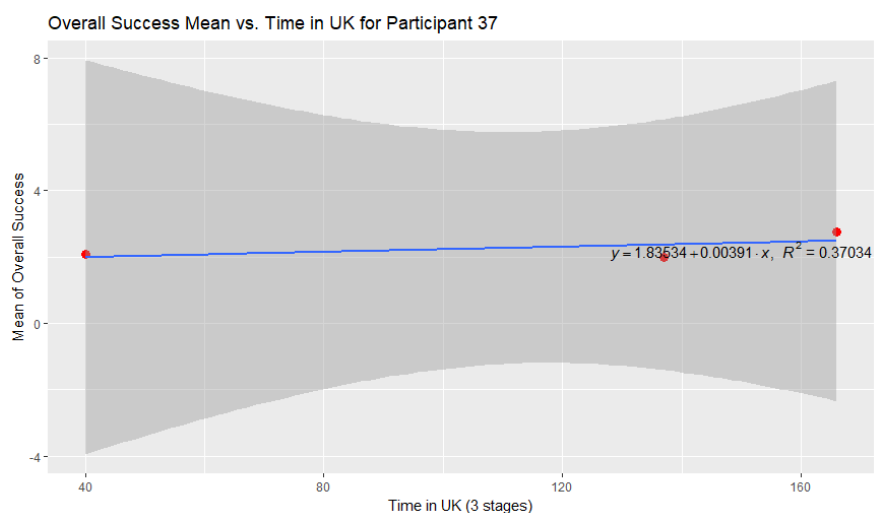


Figure 7.6: Mean score of overall success vs. time in the UK for participant 37

Participant 45 spent 61, 117, and 228 days prior to stages 1, 2, and 3, successively. Figure 7.7 indicates that the highest overall success mean score of this participant was at stage 1, while that of stage 2 was lower than that of stage 3 (0.1603, -0.2777, and 0.1173, respectively). There were statistically insignificant differences in the overall mean scores of participant 45 over the three stages as the p-value of $0.440 > 0.05$.

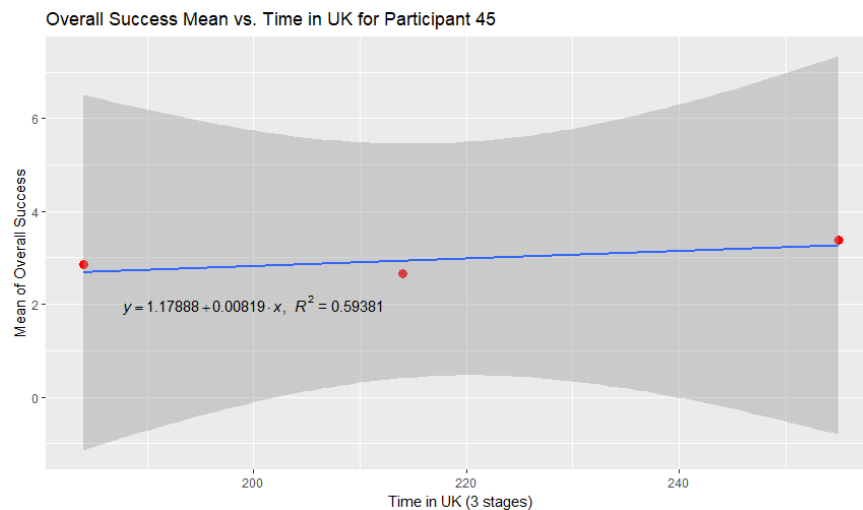


Figure 7.7: Mean score of overall success vs. time in the UK for participant 45

Participant 46 spent 184, 214, and 255 days in the UK prior to stages 1, 2, and 3. Figure 7.8 indicates that the highest overall success mean score of this participant occurred at stage 1, whereas he obtained the same lower mean score at stages 2 (30.07634, -0.13220, and 0.05586, respectively). There were statistically insignificant differences in the overall success mean scores over the three stages as the p-value of 0.390 was > 0.05 .

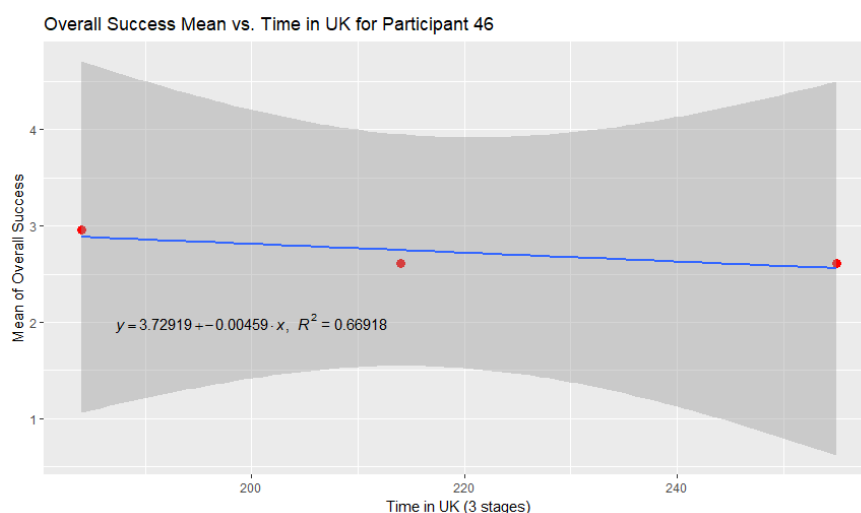


Figure 7.8: Mean score of overall success vs. time in the UK for participant 46

7.1.2 Chinese Participants

This section analyses the influence of the time spent in the UK on the Chinese participants' overall success. The Chinese participants had the ID nos. 17, 26, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, and 42.

Participant 17 took part in stage 1 after being in the UK for 105 days. When taking part in stage 2, he had been in the UK for 148 days. Meanwhile, he spent 344 days in the UK at stage 3. Figure 7.9 indicates that the overall success of this participant improved from stage 1 to stage 2 before declining at stage 3, with the respective scores of -0.5865, 0.7152, and -0.1287. There were no statistically significant differences in his overall success that could be ascribed to the duration of stay in the UK as the p-value of 0.604 was > 0.05 .

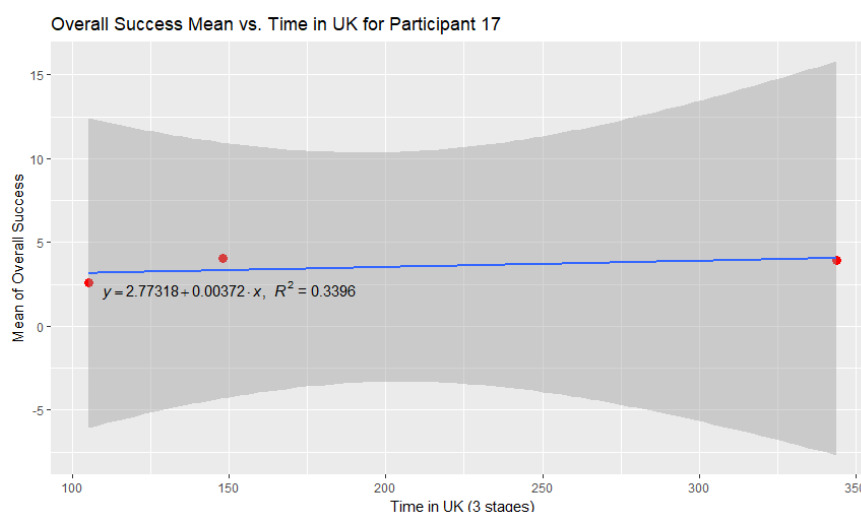


Figure 7.9: Mean score of overall success vs. time in the UK for participant 17

Participant 26 spent 110 days, 166 days, and 279 days prior to stages 1, 2, and 3, successively. Figure 7.10 indicates that there was some development of the overall success means scores of this participant over the three stages (0.09794, -0.14647, and 0.04853); with the statistically insignificant difference among these mean scores as the p-value of 0.111 was > 0.05 .

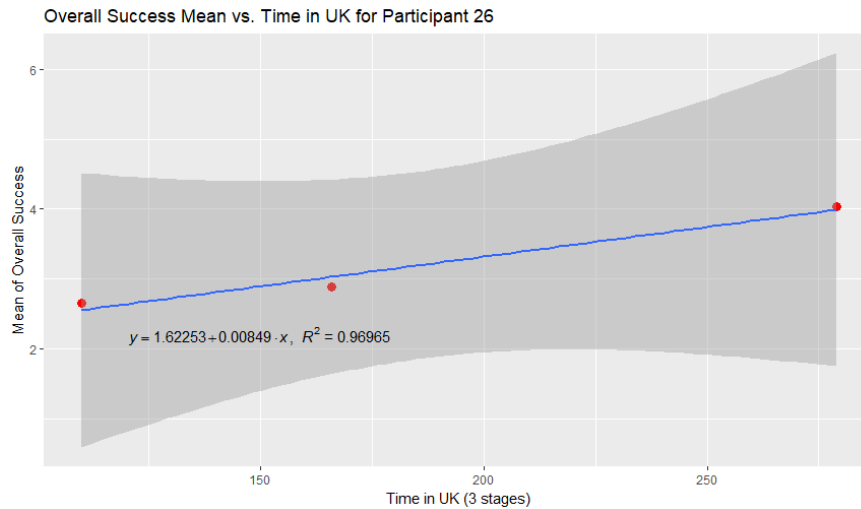


Figure 7.10: Mean score of overall success vs. time in the UK for participant 26

Participant 29 spent 107 days, 233 days and 276 days prior to stages 1, 2, and 3, successively. Figure 7.11 shows that this participant had the same highest overall success mean scores at stages 1 and 3, with the lowest mean score of overall success at stage 2 (0.04459, -0.17526, and 0.13067). There were no statistically significant differences among the overall mean scores of participant 29 over the three stages as the p-value of 0.204 was > 0.05 .

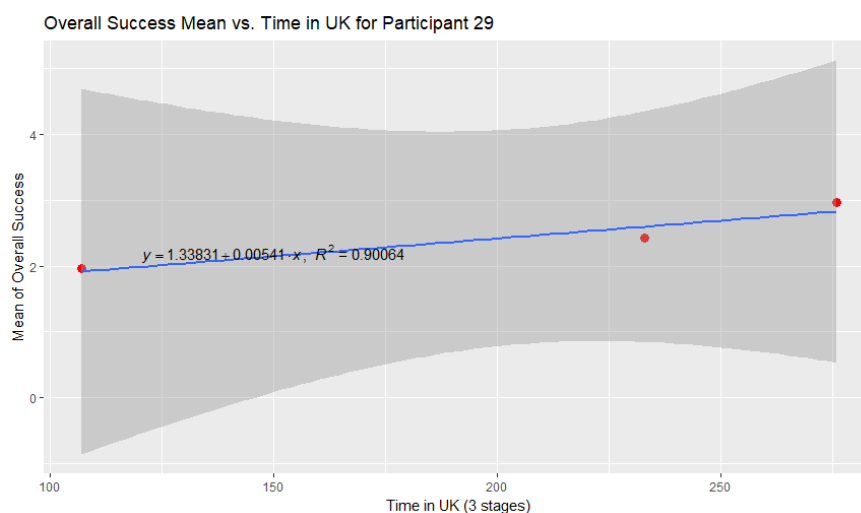


Figure 7.11: Mean score of overall success vs. time in the UK for participant 29

Participant 30 spent 106 days, 162 days, and 232 days in the UK before stages 1, 2, and 3, respectively. Figure 7.12 indicates that there was a consistent upward development in the overall success mean scores of this participant over the three stages (-0.2664, 0.4795, and -0.2131). There was no statistically significant difference in the overall success mean scores of participants 30 as the P value of 0.318 was > 0.05 .

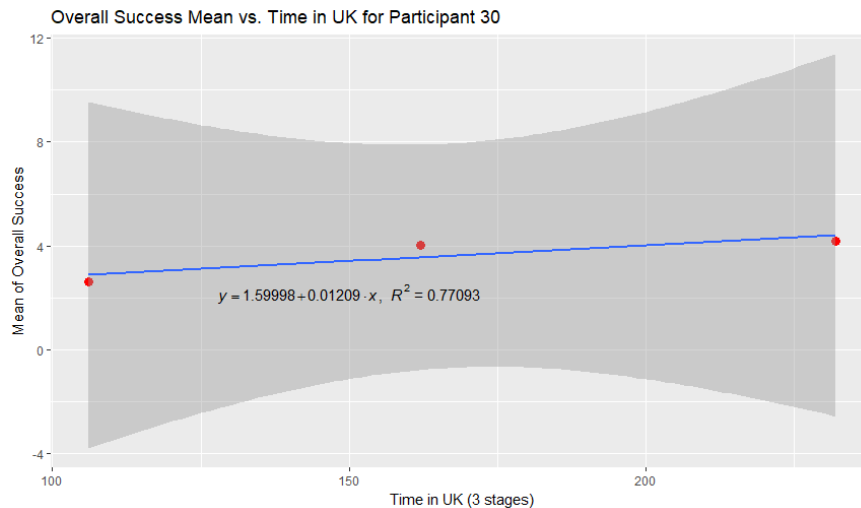


Figure 7.12: Mean score of overall success vs. time in the UK for participant 30

Participant 31 spent 112 days, 168 days, and 238 days in the UK prior to stages 1, 2, and 3, successively. Figure 7.13 indicates that the highest overall mean score of this participant occurred at stage 1; whereas the mean score of stage 2 was lower than that of stage 3 (0.11665, -0.20996, and 0.09332). There was no statistically significant difference in the overall mean scores of participant 31 as the p-value of 0.7806 was > 0.05 .

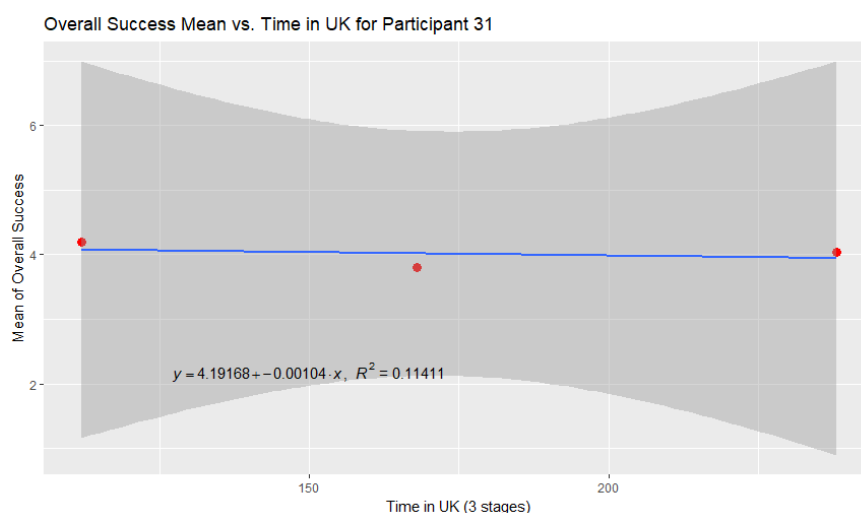


Figure 7.13: Mean score of overall success vs. time in the UK for participant 31

Participant 32 spent 107 days, 163 days, and 276 days in the UK prior to stages 1, 2, and 3, respectively. Figure 7.14 shows that there was a consistent upward development of the overall mean scores of this participant over the three stages (-0.03910, 0.05847, and -0.01938). Hence, there was a statistically significant difference among the overall success mean scores over the three stages as the p-value of 0.1008 was > 0.05 .

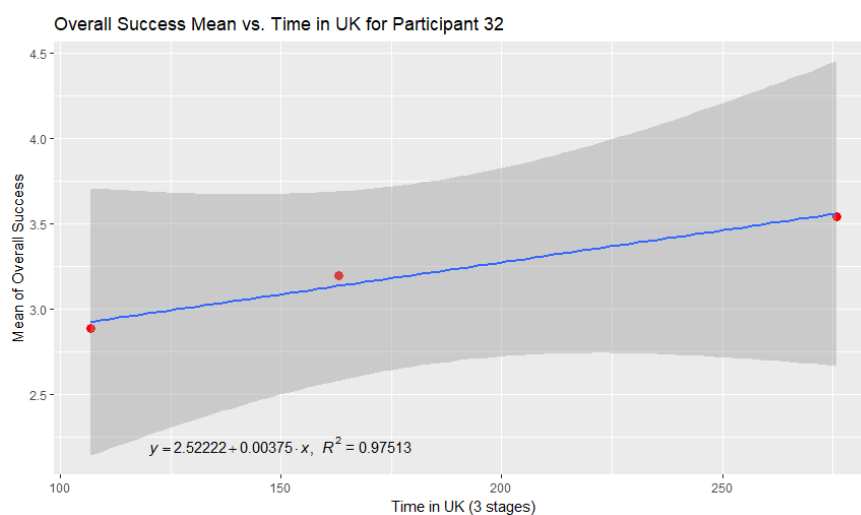


Figure 7.14: Mean score of overall success vs. time in the UK for participant 32

Participant 33 spent 107 days, 163 days, and 233 days in the UK prior to stages 1, 2 and 3, respectively. Figure 7.15 indicates that this participant demonstrated a consistent upward development in the overall success mean scores over the three stages. There was no

statistically significant difference, however, in the overall success mean scores of participant 33 as the p-value of 0.1777 was > 0.05 .

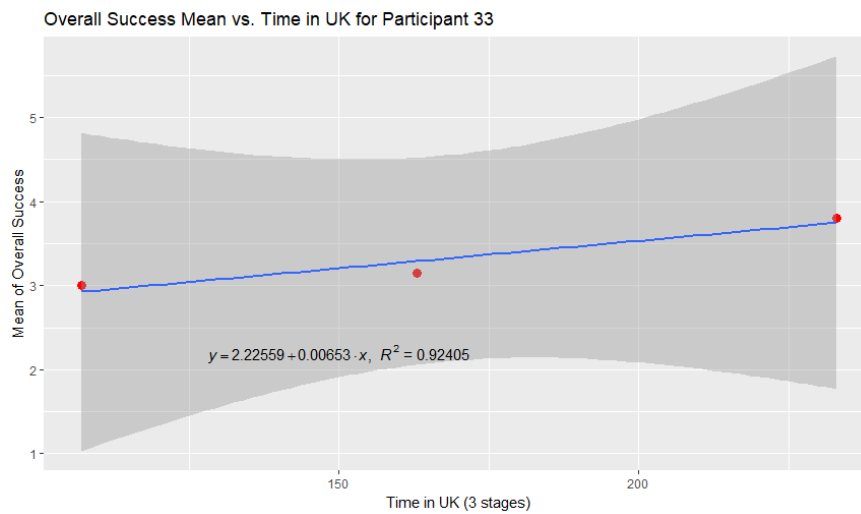


Figure 7.15: Mean score of overall success vs. time in the UK for participant 33

Participant 42 spent 61 days, 117 days, and 228 days in the UK prior to stages 1, 2, and 3, successively. Figure 7.16 shows that the highest overall success mean score of this participant was at stage 2. Meanwhile his overall mean score at stage 3 was higher than that of stage 1 (0.18605, 0.27991, and -0.09386). There was no statistically significant difference among the mean scores of participant 42's overall success at the three stages because the p-value of 0.619 was > 0.05 .

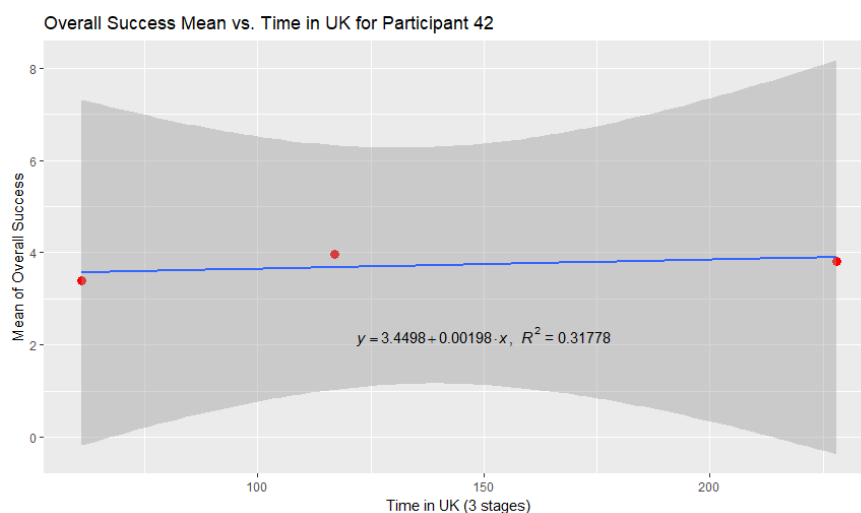


Figure 7.16: Mean score of overall success vs. time in the UK for participant 42

In conclusion, the duration of stay in the UK was not influential to the development of all Saudi participants' overall success. However, it affected the overall success development of four Chinese participants (nos.26, 30, 32, and 42).

7.2 Grammar Score vs. Overall Success over 3 Stages

7.2.1 Saudi Participants

This section analyses the influence of grammar scores on the Saudi participants' overall success improvement.

Table 7.1 summaries the grammar scores and overall success mean score of participant 15 at the three stages. His highest grammar score was at stage 3, while stage 2 grammar score was higher than that of stage 1. This shows consistent upward development in participant 15's grammar scores, with the same overall success mean scores of stages 2 and 3 higher than that of stage 1.

Table 7.1: Grammar score vs. overall success mean score of participant 15

Stage	Grammar	Overall Success Mean
1	14.5	3.81
2	14.75	4.08
3	15	4.08

The regression model gradient was 0.5383 in an indication of the regression increase. Participant 15's grammar score improved from one stage to another. This, together with p-value of 0.333 is an indication of the improvement of overall success. Grammar seemed to positively affect participant 15's overall success score, whereby the R-value was 0.866.

Table 7.2 summaries the grammar scores and overall success mean scores of participant 18 in the three stages. The highest grammar score of participant 18 was at stage 3, while stage 2 grammar score was higher than that of stage 1. This shows a consistent upward development in participant 18's grammar scores. Meanwhile, the highest overall success mean score was at stage 3, followed by stage 2.

Table 7.2: Grammar score vs. overall success mean score of participant 18

Stage	Grammar	Overall Success Mean
1	13.25	3.85
2	15	3.42
3	18	3.92

The gradient of 0.03249 was an indication of a slow regression increase. The regression model had a gradient of 0.08405 (with p – value of 0.813). This indicates that overall success did not improve consistently with the grammar score and the R-value was low at 0.2899.

Table 7.3 summaries the grammar and overall success mean scores of participant 19 at the three stages. The highest grammar score was reached at stage 3, while stage 2 grammar score was higher than that of stage 1. This shows a consistent upward development in grammar scores. However, the highest overall success of participant 19 was at stage 2, followed by stage 3. His lowest overall success occurred in stage 1.

Table 7.3: Grammar score vs. overall success mean score of participant 19

Stage	Grammar	Overall Success Mean
1	12.75	2.81
2	16.75	3.69
3	18.25	3.54

The grammar scores of participant 19 improved through the three stages. The regression model had a gradient of 0.15107 (with p-value of 0.274). It indicates that the improvement of grammar scores led to the improvement of overall success of participant 19. Thus, the grammar scores influenced the improvement of this participant's overall success scores, and the R-value was 0.9087.

Table 7.4 indicates that the highest grammar score of participant 21 was obtained at stage 2, while the grammar score of stage 3 was higher than that of stage 1. Meanwhile, the overall success was improved throughout the three stages.

Table 7.4: Grammar score vs. overall success mean score of participant 21

Stage	Grammar	Overall Success Mean
1	10.5	2.54
2	15.25	2.85
3	13.75	3.08

The gradient was 0.08100, causing a slow increase for the overall success (with p-value of 0.481). This indicates that the overall success score improved. In this case, the grammar and overall success scores improved together, and the R-value was 0.7093.

Table 7.5 shows the grammar and overall success mean scores of participant 23 for the three stages. His highest grammar score was at stage 3, while stage 2 grammar score was higher than that of stage 1. This shows consistent upward development in this participant's grammar scores. However, the highest overall success score was at stage 3, followed by stage 1, while the lowest overall score was at stage 2.

Table 7.5: Grammar score vs. overall success mean score of participant 23

Stage	Grammar	Overall Success Mean
1	11.25	3.65
2	15	3.38
3	17.25	3.69

The regression line was almost horizontal because of the -0.00157 gradient, with p-value of 0.982). This indicates that the overall success score did not improve and it was inconsistent with the increase in grammar scores. In this case, the linear model was inconsistent as grammar scores did not influence the overall success score, and the R-value was 0.028383.

Table 7.6 shows the grammar and overall success mean scores of participant 37 for the three stages. The highest grammar score was at stage 3, while that of stage 2 was higher than that of stage 1. This shows consistent upward development in participant 37's grammar scores. However, the highest overall success score was at stage 3, followed by stage 1, while the lowest overall score was obtained at stage 2.

Table 7.6: Grammar score vs. overall success mean score of participant 37

Stage	Grammar	Overall Success Mean
1	9.25	2.08
2	12.25	2
3	14	2.77

The regression model had a gradient of 0.12719 (with p-value of 0.487). This indicates that there was an improvement in the overall success score. The grammar improvement affected the overall success score improvement for participant 37, and the R-value was 0.7212.

Table 7.7 shows the grammar scores and overall success mean score of participant 45 in the three stages. The highest grammar score of participant 45 was in stage 3, while stage 2 grammar score was higher than that of stage 1. This shows a consistent upward development in participant 45's grammar scores. However, the highest overall success score was at stage 3, followed by stage 1, while the lowest overall score was at stage 2.

Table 7.7: Grammar score vs. overall success mean score of participant 45

Stage	Grammar	Overall Success Mean
1	13.5	2.85
2	17.25	2.65
3	18.25	3.38

The regression line increased even though it was not very steep because of the 0.06823 gradient. This indicates that there was improvement of overall success, although at

stage 1 a higher score was obtained than at Stage 2. This model shows inconsistencies because of the p-value being high at 0.702. Since grammar improved over the three stages it affected the overall success score of participant 45, and the R-value was 0.4511.

Table 7.8 shows the grammar and overall success mean scores of participant 46 for the three stages. The highest grammar score was detected at stage 3, while stage 2 grammar score was higher than that of stage 1. This shows a consistent upward development in participant 46's grammar scores. However, the highest overall success score was at stage 1, while stages 1 and 2 shared the same overall success.

Table 7.8: Grammar score vs. overall success mean score of participant 46

Stage	Grammar	Overall Success Mean
1	13.5	2.96
2	16	2.62
3	16.75	2.62

The regression line decreased as the gradient was -0.11455 grammar score of participant 46 improved over the three stages. The regression model had gradient (with p-value of 0.1415). This indicates that there was no improvement in the overall success score, despite the fact that stages 2 and 3 had the same score. Although grammar improved over the stages, it did not affect the overall success score of participant 46, and the R-value was 0.9754.

7.2.2 Chinese Participants

This section analyses the influence of grammar scores on the Chinese participants' overall success.

Table 7.9 summaries the grammar and overall success mean scores of participant 17 for the three stages. His highest grammar score was at stage 3, while at stage 2 it was higher than at stage 1. This shows a consistent upward development in participant 18's grammar scores. Meanwhile, the same overall success mean scores of stages 2 and 3 were higher than that of stage 1.

Table 7.9: Grammar score vs. overall success mean score of participant 17

Stage	Grammar	Overall Success Mean
1	13	2.58
2	16	4.04
3	16.75	3.92

The regression model had a gradient of 0.3956 (with p-value of 0.166), which is an indication of the improvement of overall success. Hence, grammar seemed to affect participant 17's overall success while the R-value was 0.966 which indicates strong linear relationship.

Table 7.10 shows the grammar scores and overall success mean score of participant 26 for the three stages. The highest grammar score was detected at stage 2, while it was higher at stage 1 than at stage 3. This shows inconsistent development in participant 26's grammar scores. However, the highest overall success score was recorded at stage 3, demonstrating progression from stage 1 to 3.

Table 7.10: Grammar score vs. overall success mean score of participant 26

Stage	Grammar	Overall Success Mean
1	12.5	2.65
2	15	2.88
3	11.25	4.04

Consequently, the regression line decreased as the gradient was -0.2505 (with p-value of 0.554), which indicates that there was no improvement in the overall success score. In this case, the grammar scores and overall scores did not improve together, and the model had the R-value of 0.6449.

Table 7.11 shows the grammar and overall success mean scores of participant 29 for the three stages. The highest grammar score was detected at stage 3, with a steady progression over the three stages. This shows a consistent upward development in participant 18's

grammar scores. Meanwhile, the overall success mean scores progressed from stage 1 to 3, too.

Table 7.11: Grammar score vs. overall success mean score of participant 29

Stage	Grammar	Overall Success Mean
1	12.5	1.96
2	15.75	2.42
3	16.5	2.96

The regression line increased as the gradient was 0.2176. The grammar score of participant 29 improved through the three stages grammar and the regression model had gradient (with p-value of 0.249). This indicates improvement in the overall success score. In this case, grammar scores and overall scores improved together, and the model had the R-value of 0.9247.

Table 7.12 shows the grammar scores and overall success mean score of participant 30 for the three stages. The highest grammar score was recorded at stage 3, with a continual progression from stage 1 to 3. The same applied to the overall success scores.

Table 7.12: Grammar score vs. overall success mean score of participant 30

Stage	Grammar	Overall Success Mean
1	15.25	2.62
2	17.5	4.04
3	18.75	4.19

The regression line increased because the gradient was 0.4722 (with p-value of 0.173). This indicates that there was an improvement of the overall success. In this case, the grammar and overall success scores improved together, and the detected R-value was 0.9634.

Table 7.13 shows the grammar and overall success mean scores of participant 31 in the three stages. The highest grammar score of participant 31 was detected at stage 3, with a steady

progression throughout the stages. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was noted at stage 1, followed by stage 3, with the lowest score at stage 2.

Table 7.13: Grammar score vs. overall success mean score of participant 31

Stage	Grammar	Overall Success Mean
1	11.25	4.19
2	16	3.81
3	18.25	4.04

The regressing line decreased as the gradient was -0.03112 . the grammar score of participant 31 improved over the three stages. The regression model showed a decrease, with a gradient of -0.03112 (and p-value of 0.6104). This indicates no improvement of the overall success as the highest stage 1 parameter affected the model. The R-value was 0.5745.

Table 7.14 shows the grammar and overall success mean scores of participant 32 for the three stages. As can be seen, there was a consistent upward development both in this participant's grammar scores and overall success ones.

Table 7.14: Grammar score vs. overall success mean score of participant 32

Stage	Grammar	Overall Success Mean
1	13.25	2.88
2	14.25	3.19
3	15.75	3.54

The regression model had a gradient of 0.25911 (with p-value of 0.0516), which indicates improvement in the overall success score. In this case, grammar scores and overall scores improved together, and the model had the R-value of 0.9967.

Table 7.15 shows the grammar and overall success mean scores of participant 33 for the three stages. The highest grammar score was achieved at stage 3, with a steady

progression over the three stages. The same upward development applied to the overall success scores.

Table 7.15: Grammar score vs. overall success mean score of participant 33

Stage	Grammar	Overall Success Mean
1	15	3
2	16.5	3.15
3	17.75	3.81

The regression model had a gradient of 0.2874 (with p-value of 0.252), which indicates improvement both in the overall success score and grammar, with the R-value of 0.9227.

Table 7.16 shows the grammar score and overall success mean score of participant 42 for the three stages with a clear progression from stage 1 to 2 and then a further improvement at stage 3. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was detected at stage 2, and not at 3.

Table 7.16: Grammar score vs. overall success mean score of participant 42

Stage	Grammar	Overall Success Mean
1	13.5	3.38
2	18.5	3.96
3	18.75	3.81

The regression model had a gradient of 0.09629 (with p-value of 0.193), which indicates an improvement in the overall success score, although the score at stage 2 was higher than at stage 3. The grammar score improvement affected the overall success improvement of participant 42, and the R-value was 0.9546.

In conclusion, based on the above presented analysis, grammar affected the overall success development of only five Saudi participants, excluding nos. 18, 23, and 46. On the other hand, grammar was influential to the overall success development of six Chinese participants, except nos. 26 and 31.

7.3 Interview Scores vs. Overall Success over 3 Stages

7.3.1 Saudi Participants

This section analyses the influence of interview scores on the Saudi participants' overall success.

Table 7.17 shows the interview and overall success mean scores of participant 15 for the three stages. The interview scores progressed steadily from stage 1 to stage 3. Meanwhile, the same highest overall success scores for stages 2 and 3 demonstrated improvement from stage 1.

Table 7.17: Interview score vs. overall success mean score of participant 15

Stage	Interview	Overall Success Mean
1	12	3.81
2	13	4.08
3	14	4.08

The regression line increased as the gradient was 0.13462. The regression line increased with a gradient of 0.13462 (and p-value of 0.333), which indicates an improvement in the overall success score as interview affected overall success positively, and the R-value was 0.866.

Table 7.18 shows the interview and overall success mean scores of participant 18 for the three stages. The interview score notched up at stage 3, from the same score at stages 1 and 2. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was recorded at stage 3, with a decrease from stage 1 to 2.

Table 7.18: Interview score vs. overall success mean score of participant 18

Stage	Interview	overall Success Mean
1	13	3.85
2	13	3.42
3	14	3.92

The regression model had a gradient of 0.28846 (with p-value of 0.575), which indicates that the overall success score improved together with the interview scores, despite the lack of improvement at stage 2. Hence, the interview scores influenced the overall success improvement, and the R-value was good at 0.6186. That is, there is a strong linear relationship between interview and the overall success of participant 18.

Table 7.19 shows interview and overall success mean scores of participant 19 for the three stages. The interview score notched up at stage 3 from the same score at stages 1 and 2. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score occurred at stage 2, followed by that of stage 3.

Table 7.19: Interview score vs. overall success mean score of participant 19

Stage	Interview	overall Success Mean
1	13	2.81
2	13	3.69
3	14	3.54

The regression line increased because the gradient was 0.2885 (with p-value of 0.771), which indicates that the overall success score improved together with the interview scores; despite inconsistency at stage 2. Hence, the interview scores positively influenced the overall success, and the R-value was 0.3524.

Table 7.20 displays the interview and overall success mean scores of participant 21 for the three stages, with a progression from stages 1 and 2 to stage 3, and a steady increase in the overall success score over the three stages.

Table 7.20: Interview score vs. overall success mean score of participant 21

Stage	Interview	overall Success Mean
1	11	2.54
2	11	2.85
3	13	3.08

The regression model had a gradient of 0.19231 (with p-value of 0.386), which indicates an improvement in the overall success score. In this case, the interview and overall success scores improved together, and the R-value was 0.822.

As shown in Table 7.21, participant 23 obtained the same interview score in the three stages. The highest overall success score was recorded at stage 3, followed by that at stage 1. There was no summary of the regression because the interview score was constant at 13.

Table 7.21: Interview score vs. overall success mean score of participant 23

Stage	Interview	Overall Success Mean
1	13	3.65
2	13	3.38
3	13	3.69

Table 7.22 shows the interview and overall success mean scores of participant with the highest interview scores of participant 37 at stages 2 and 3. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score at stage 3 was followed by that of stage 1.

Table 7.22: Interview score vs. overall success mean score of participant 37

Stage	Interview	Overall Success Mean
1	5	2.08
2	6	2
3	6	2.77

The regression model had a gradient of 0.17582 (with p-value of 0.725), which indicates that there was an improvement in the overall success score. In this case, the interview and overall success scores improved together, and the R-value was 0.4193.

In Table 7.23, the interview and overall success mean scores of participant 45 are displayed, showing a steady progression of the interview score over the three stages. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was detected at stage 3, followed by stage 1.

Table 7.23: Interview score vs. overall success mean score of participant 45

Stage	Interview	overall Success Mean
1	12	2.85
2	13	2.65
3	14	3.38

The increased regression model had a gradient of 0.2692 (with p-value of 0.497), which indicates an improvement in the overall success score. In this case, the interview scores of participant 45 influenced the overall success scores, and the R-value was 0.7108.

Table 7.24 shows the interview and overall success mean scores of participant 46, with the interview score progressing steadily over the three stages. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was detected at stage 1, with the same lower scores at stages 2 and 3.

Table 7.24: Interview score vs. overall success mean score of participant 46

Stage	Interview	overall Success Mean
1	12	2.96
2	13	2.62
3	15	2.62

The regression line decreased with a gradient of -0.0989 (and p-value of 0.454), which indicates that there was no improvement. So although the interview score of participant 46 improved over the three stages, it did not affect the overall success score, and the R-value was 0.7559.

7.3.2 Chinese Participants

This section analyses the influence of the interview scores on the Chinese participants' overall success.

As can be seen in Table 7.25, participant 17's interview score did not improve over the three stages. As for t, it was recorded at stage 2, followed by that at stage 3. There was no summary of the regression because the interview score was constant at 14.

Table 7.25: Interview score vs. overall success mean score of participant 17

Stage	Interview	overall Success Mean
1	14	2.58
2	14	4.04
3	14	3.92

Table 7.26 shows the interview and overall success mean scores of participant 26 with the highest interview score at stage 3, progressing steadily from stage 1, similarly to the overall success score.

Table 7.26: Interview score vs. overall success mean score of participant 26

Stage	Interview	Overall Success Mean
1	8	2.65
2	9	2.88
3	12	4.04

The regression model had a gradient of 0.35503 (with p – value of 0.055), which indicates an improvement in the overall success score. In this case, the interview scores and overall scores improved together, with the R-value of 0.99.

Table 7.27 shows the interview and overall success mean scores of participant 29 with the highest interview scores at stages 2 and 3. Meanwhile, the overall success score progressed continuously from state 1 to 3.

Table 7.27: Interview score vs. overall success mean score of participant 29

Stage	Interview	Overall Success Mean
1	10	1.96
2	12	2.42
3	12	2.96

The regression model with a gradient of 0.36538 (and p – value of 0.362). This indicates an improvement in the overall success score. In this case, the interview scores and overall scores improved together the R-value of 0.843.

Table 7.28 shows the interview and overall success mean scores of participant 30 with the highest interview score at stage 3 and the lowest at stage 1 and similar upward progression for the overall success score.

Table 7.28: Interview score vs. overall success mean score of participant 30

Stage	Interview	Overall Success Mean
1	11	2.62
2	12	4.04
3	13	4.19

The regression model with a gradient of 0.78846 (p-value of 0.277 indicates an improvement in the overall success score. In this case, the interview and overall scores improved together, and the model had the R-value of 0.9069.

Table 7.29 shows the interview and overall success mean scores of participant 31 with the same interview scores at stages 1 and 2, and a higher stage 3 score. The overall success score, on the other hand, peaked at stage 1 and the score of stage 3 was higher than that of stage 2.

Table 7.29: Interview score vs. overall success mean score of participant 31

Stage	Interview	overall Success Mean
1	12	4.19
2	12	3.81
3	13	4.04

The regression line increased because of the positive gradient of 0.03846. The interview score of participant 31 improved over the three stages. The regression model had gradient of (with p – value of 0.927), which indicates that the model was inconsistent since the overall success score improved, while the p-value was high. The improvement of interview scores led to an overall success score improvement. The R-value was low at 0.1147.

Table 7.30 shows the interview and overall success mean scores of participant 32 with the same highest interview scores at stages 2 and 3 and a steady progression of the overall success score from stage 1 to stage 3.

Table 7.30: Interview score vs. overall success mean score of participant 32

Stage	Interview	Overall Success Mean
1	10	2.88
2	11	3.19
3	11	3.54

The regression model had a gradient of 0.4808 (with p-value of 0.355), which means that the overall success score improved. In this case, the interview and overall scores improved together, and the model had 0.8485 R – value.

Table 7.31 shows the interview and overall success mean scores of participant 33 with the highest interview score at stage 1 and stages 2 and 3 sharing a 1-point lower score. This shows inconsistent development in this participant's interview scores. Meanwhile, the overall success score continually progressed over the three stages.

Table 7.31: Interview score vs. overall success mean score of participant 33

Stage	Interview	Overall Success Mean
1	12	3
2	11	3.15
3	11	3.81

The regression line decreased because of the -0.4808 gradient T (with p -value of 0.552), which means that the overall success score did not improve, and the R -value was 0.6472 . Table 7.32 shows the interview and overall success mean scores of participant 42 with the highest interview score at stage 2 and stages 1 and 3 sharing the same score. This shows inconsistent development in participant 42's interview scores. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was recorded at 2, followed by stage 3.

Table 7.32: Interview score vs. overall success mean score of participant 42

Stage	Interview	Overall Success Mean
1	11	3.38
2	12	3.96
3	11	3.81

The regression model had a gradient of 0.36538 (with p -value of 0.501), which means that the overall success score improved. The interview improvement affected the overall success improvement of participant 42, and the R -value was 0.7061 .

Based on the above analysis, the interview findings were similar for the Saudi and Chinese participants. Interview had an impact on six of the Saudi and six of the Chinese participants' overall success scores, except nos. 23 and 46 (Saudi), and nos. 17 and 33 (Chinese).

7.4 Listening vs. Overall Success over 3 Stages

7.4.1 Saudi Participants

This section analyses the influence of listening scores on the Saudi participants' overall success. Table 7.33 shows the listening and overall success mean scores of participant 15 for the three stages. The highest listening score was obtained at stage 3, following a steady progression from stage 1. Meanwhile, the overall success scores increased from stage 1 to 2, without any further increase at stage 3.

Table 7.33: Listening score vs. overall success mean score of participant 15

Stage	Listening	Overall Success Mean
1	19.5	3.81
2	20	4.08
3	20.5	4.08

The regression model had a gradient of 0.26923 (with p-value of 0.333), which means that the overall success score improved. Listening improvement affected the overall success improvement of participant 15, and the R-value was 0.866.

Table 7.34 shows the listening and overall success mean scores of participant 18 with a steady progression over the three stages. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was obtained at stage 3, followed by stage 1.

Table 7.34: Listening score vs. overall success mean score of participant 18

Stage	Listening	Overall Success Mean
1	19	3.85
2	19.5	3.42
3	21.75	3.92

The regression model had a gradient of 0.08738 (with p-value of 0.685), which means that the overall success score improved. Listening improvement affected the overall success improvement of participant 18, and the R-value was 0.685.

Table 7.35 depicts the listening and overall success mean scores of participant 19 with a steady increase in the listening score over the three stages. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was obtained at stage 2, followed by stage 3.

Table 7.35: Listening score vs. overall success mean score of participant 19

Stage	Listening	Overall Success Mean
1	19	2.81
2	22.5	3.69
3	23	3.54

The regression model had a gradient of 0.2085 (with p-value of 0.177), which means that the overall success score improved. Listening improvement thus affected the overall success improvement of participant 19, and the R-value was 0.9615.

Table 7.36 shows the listening and overall success mean scores of participant 21 in the three stages, with both clearly progressing over the three stages.

Table 7.36: Listening score vs. overall success mean score of participant 21

Stage	Listening	Overall Success Mean
1	15.75	2.54
2	19	2.85
3	21.25	3.08

The regression model had a gradient of 0.09767 (with p-value of 0.0142), which means that overall success score improved. Hence, listening improvement affected the overall success improvement of participant 21, and the R-value was 0.999.

Table 7.37 shows the listening and overall success mean scores of participant 23, with the highest listening score at stage 3, followed by stage 2. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score occurred at stage 3, with a decrease from stage 1 to stage 2.

Table 7.37: Listening score vs. overall success mean score of participant 23

Stage	Listening	Overall Success Mean
1	18.5	3.65
2	21.25	3.38
3	22.75	3.69

The regression line, which was almost horizontal, decreased because the gradient was -0.004139 (with p-value of 0.966). This indicates that the overall success score did not improve, and the overall success score was inconsistent with an increase in listening scores. In this case, the listening scores did not influence the overall success score, and the R-value was 0.05322.

Table 7.38 shows the listening and overall success mean scores of participant 37 with a clear progression from stage 1 to 2 and then further up at stage 3. Meanwhile, although the highest overall success score was obtained at, the score at stage 2 was slightly lower than that at stage 1.

Table 7.38: Listening score vs. overall success mean score of participant 37

Stage	Listening	Overall Success Mean
1	10.75	2.08
2	16.75	2
3	17.75	2.77

The regression model had a gradient of -0.05993 (with p-value of 0.640), which means that the overall success score improved. Therefore, listening improvement positively affected the overall success of participant 37, and the R-value was 0.5355.

Table 7.39 shows the listening and overall success mean scores of participant 45, the highest listening score at stage 2, followed by stage 3. As for the highest overall success score, it was obtained at stage 3, but there was a decrease in scores from stage 1 to stage 2.

Table 7.39: Listening score vs. overall success mean score of participant 45

Stage	Listening	Overall Success Mean
1	20	2.85
2	21	2.65
3	20.25	3.38

The regression model had a decreasing gradient of -0.37278 , which indicates that the overall success score did not improve. This model shows inconsistencies because p-value was high at 0.658. Although listening improved over the three stages, it did not affect the overall success score of participant 45, and the R-value was 0.5121.

Table 7.40 shows the listening and overall success mean scores of participant 46, with the same highest listening scores at stages 3 and 1. The highest overall success score, on the other hand, was noted at stage 1, with stages 2 and 3 sharing the same lower success score.

Table 7.40: Listening score vs. overall success mean score of participant 46

Stage	Listening	Overall Success Mean
1	19.5	2.96
2	18.75	2.62
3	19.5	2.62

There was an inconsistent improvement of listening and overall success observed. The regression model had a gradient 0.2308, which means that the overall success score improved, although stages 2 and 3 shared the same score. This model shows inconsistencies because p-value was high at 0.667. Listening did not improve over the three stages and did not affect the overall success score of participant 46, and the R-value was 0.5.

7.4.2 Chinese Participants

This section analyses the influence of the listening scores on the Chinese participants' overall success.

Table 7.41 shows the listening and overall success mean scores of participant 17 for the three stages, with the highest listening score at stage 2, followed by stage 3. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was detected at stage 2 with a clearly higher score at stage 3 than stage 1.

Table 7.41: Listening score vs. overall success mean score of participant 17

Stage	Listening	Overall Success Mean
1	20.5	2.58
2	22	4.04
3	21.25	3.92

The regression model had a gradient of 0.97436 (with p-value of 0.288), which means that the overall success score improved. The listening scores thus positively impacted overall success, and the R-value was 0.8993.

Table 7.42 shows the listening and overall success mean scores of participant 26, with a steady progression over the three stages.

Table 7.42: Listening score vs. overall success mean score of participant 26

Stage	Listening	Overall Success Mean
1	18.25	2.65
2	19.25	2.88
3	20.25	4.04

The regression model had a gradient of 0.6923 (with p-value of 0.234), which means that the overall success score improved. Hence, listening improvement positively affected overall success of participant 26, and the R-value was 0.9333.

Table 7.43 displays the listening and overall success mean scores of participant 29, with a progression over the three stages.

Table 7.43: Listening score vs. overall success mean score of participant 29

Stage	Listening	Overall Success Mean
1	17.75	1.96
2	21	2.42
3	21.5	2.96

The regression model had a gradient of 0.2219 (with p-value of 0.283), which means that the overall success score improved. Hence, the listening improvement positively affected overall success improvement of participant 29, and the R-value was 0.9026.

In Table 7.44, the listening and overall success mean scores of participant 30 are recorded, with a steady progression over the three stages.

Table 7.44: Listening score vs. overall success mean score of participant 30

Stage	Listening	Overall Success Mean
1	20	2.62
2	20.5	4.04
3	21.75	4.19

The regression model had a gradient of 0.75148 (with p – value of 0.431), which indicates that improvements in listening positively affected overall success of participant 30, and the R-value was 0.7791.

Table 7.45 shows the listening and overall success mean scores of participant 31, with a clear progression over the three stages. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was obtained at stage 1, followed by stage 3.

Table 7.45: Listening score vs. overall success mean score of participant 31

Stage	Listening	Overall Success Mean
1	17.5	4.19
2	19	3.81
3	20.5	4.04

The regression model had a gradient of -0.05128 (with p-value of 0.74), which means that the overall success score did not improve. Since this model had a negative gradient, the listening score improvement did not lead to overall success improvement. The R-value was 0.3974.

Table 7.46 shows the listening and overall success mean scores of participant 32, with the highest listening score at stage 3, but stage 1 score higher than that of stage 2. This shows inconsistent development in participant 32's listening scores. Meanwhile, a steady increase in the overall success scores was observed.

Table 7.46: Listening score vs. overall success mean score of participant 32

Stage	Listening	Overall Success Mean
1	19.5	2.88
2	19	3.19
3	19.75	3.54

The regression model had a gradient 0.3077 (with p-value of 0.766), which means that listening and overall scores improved together, and the model's R-value was 0.3592.

Table 7.47 shows the listening and overall success mean scores of participant 33 in the three stages, with a progression over the three stages for both.

Table 7.47: Listening score vs. overall success mean score of participant 33

Stage	Listening	Overall Success Mean
1	17.25	3
2	19	3.15
3	20.75	3.81

The regression model had a gradient of 0.23077 (with p-value of 0.219), which indicates that listening scores and overall scores improved together, and the model's-value was 0.9417.

Table 7.48 shows the listening and overall success mean scores of participant 42, with the highest scores at stage 2, followed by stage 3. This demonstrates an inconsistent development.

Table 7.48: Listening score vs. overall success mean score of participant 42

Stage	Listening	Overall Success Mean
1	18	3.38
2	21.75	3.96
3	21.25	3.81

The regression model had a gradient of 0.14534 (with p-value of 0.0874), which means that the overall success was positively affected by listening, although the highest listening score was obtained at stage 2, with the R-value of 0.9906.

In conclusion, when it comes to listening, different results have been obtained from the Saudi and Chinese participants. Listening affected the development of overall success of only five Saudi participants, excluding nos. 23, 45, and 46. By contrast, it positively impacted the development of overall success of seven Chinese participants, except participant no. 31.

7.5 Vocabulary Score vs. Overall Success over 3 Stages

7.5.1 Saudi Participants

This section analyses the influence of vocabulary scores on the Saudi participants' overall success. Table 7.49 shows the vocabulary and overall success mean scores of participant 15

for the three stages. The highest vocabulary score was obtained at stage 2, followed by stage 3. This shows inconsistent development in vocabulary scores. Meanwhile, the same highest overall success score was recorded at stages 2 and 3.

Table 7.49: Vocabulary score vs. overall success mean score of participant 15

Stage	Vocab	Overall Success Mean
1	7	3.81
2	8	4.08
3	7.5	4.08

The regression model had a gradient of 0.26923 (with p-value of 0.333), which means that the vocabulary score positively affected overall success of participant 15, and the R-value was 0.866.

Table 7.50 displays the vocabulary and overall success mean scores of participant 18, with the highest vocabulary score at stage 2, followed by stage 3. This shows inconsistent development in his vocabulary scores. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was obtained at stage 3 followed by stage 1.

Table 7.50: Vocabulary score vs. overall success mean score of participant 18

Stage	Vocab	Overall Success Mean
1	8.5	3.85
2	12	3.42
3	10	3.92

The regression model had a gradient of -0.12786 (with p-value of 0.372), which indicates that the overall success score did not improve together with the vocabulary scores; as there was an inconsistency with vocabulary score at stage 3. Thus, the vocabulary scores did not positively impact overall success, and the R-value was 0.834.

Table 7.51 shows the vocabulary and overall success mean scores of participant 19, with the highest vocabulary score at stage 2, followed by stage 1. This shows an inconsistent

development in this participant's vocabulary scores. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was detected at stage 2, followed by stage 3.

Table 7.51: Vocabulary score vs. overall success mean score of participant 19

Stage	Vocab	Overall Success Mean
1	7.5	2.81
2	8	3.69
3	7	3.54

The regression model had a gradient of 0.15385 (with p-value of 0.896), which means that overall success score did improve; but the vocabulary scores did influence overall success, and the R-value was 0.1628.

Table 7.52 shows the vocabulary and overall success mean scores of participant 21, with a clear progression over the three stages.

Table 7.52: Vocabulary score vs. overall success mean score of participant 21

Stage	Vocab	Overall Success Mean
1	6	2.54
2	7	2.85
3	10	3.08

The regression model had a gradient of 0.12130 (with p-value of 0.231), which means, in this case, that vocabulary and overall success scores improved together, and the R-value was 0.9347.

Table 7.53 shows the vocabulary and overall success mean scores of participant 23, with a steady increase in the vocabulary score over the three stages. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was obtained at stage 3, followed by stage 2.

Table 7.53: Vocabulary score vs. overall success mean score of participant 23

Stage	Vocab	Overall Success Mean
1	9	3.65
2	10.5	3.38
3	11.5	3.69

The regression model had a gradient of -2.184×10^{-16} (with p-value of 1), which means that the overall success score did not improve, and the overall success scores were inconsistent with an increase in vocabulary scores. In this case, the linear model was inconsistent, vocabulary scores did not influence the overall success score, and the R-value was 0.

Table 7.54 shows the vocabulary and overall success mean scores of participant 37 for the three stages. The highest vocabulary score was obtained at stage 2, followed by stage 3. This shows inconsistent development in this participant's vocabulary scores. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was detected at stage 3, followed by stage 1.

Table 7.54: Vocabulary score vs. overall success mean score of participant 37

Stage	Vocab	Overall Success Mean
1	4	2.08
2	6	2
3	5	2.77

The regression model had a gradient of -0.03846 (with p-value of 0.9421), which means that there was no improvement in the overall success score. This model showed inconsistencies because p-value was so high (0.9421).

Table 7.55 shows the vocabulary and overall success mean scores of participant 45, with the highest vocabulary score at stage 2, followed by stage 3. The highest overall success score was obtained at stage 3, followed by stage 1.

Table 7.55: Vocabulary score vs. overall success mean score of participant 45

Stage	Vocab	Overall Success Mean
1	4.5	2.85
2	7.5	2.65
3	6.5	3.38

The regression model had a gradient of -0.01648 (with p-value of 0.9577), which indicates that there was no overall success score improvement, although stage 3 had a higher score than stages 1 and 2. This model showed inconsistencies because p-value was very high at 0.958. Although the vocabulary score improved over the stages, it did not affect the overall success score of participant 45, and the R-value was 0.0664. Table 7.56 shows the vocabulary and overall success mean scores of participant 46, with the highest vocabulary score at stage 1, declining throughout the stages. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was obtained at stage 1 as well, while stages 2 and 3 recorded the same overall success score.

Table 7.56: Vocabulary score vs. overall success mean score of participant 46

Stage	Vocab	Overall Success Mean
1	7	2.96
2	6.5	2.62
3	6	2.62

The vocabulary score of participant 46 did not at stages 2 and 3. The regression model had a gradient of 0.34615 (with p-value of 0.333), which means that there was no improvement in the overall success score. This model showed inconsistencies because the p-value was high at 0.333. The vocabulary score thus did not affect the decreased overall success score of participant 46, and the R-value was 0.866.

7.5.2 Chinese Participants

This section analyses the influence of vocabulary scores on the Chinese participants' overall success.

Table 7.57 shows the vocabulary and overall success mean scores of participant 17, with the highest vocabulary score at stage 2, followed by stage 3. This shows inconsistent development in vocabulary scores. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was also obtained at stage 2, followed by stage 3.

Table 7.57: Vocabulary score vs. overall success mean score of participant 17

Stage	Vocab	Overall Success Mean
1	7.5	2.58
2	9	4.04
3	8	3.92

The regression model had a gradient of 0.85165 (with p-value of 0.409), which means that there was improvement in the overall success score. The vocabulary scores positively influenced overall success, and the R-value was 0.80.

Table 7.58 displays the vocabulary and overall success mean scores of participant 26, with a clear progression over the three stages.

Table 7.58: Vocabulary score vs. overall success mean score of participant 26

Stage	Vocab	Overall Success Mean
1	3.5	2.65
2	5.5	2.88
3	9	4.04

The regression model had a gradient of 0.26055 (with p-value of 0.134), which points to improvement in the overall success score. In this case, vocabulary scores and overall scores improved together, and the model's R-value was 0.9778.

Table 7.59 shows vocabulary and overall success mean scores of participant 29, with a steady progression over the three stages.

Table 7.59: Vocabulary score vs. overall success mean score of participant 29

Stage	Vocab	Overall Success Mean
1	4	1.96
2	5	2.42
3	6.5	2.96

The regression model had gradient 0.39676 (with p-value of 0.0449), which means that there was an improvement in the overall success score. In this case, vocabulary scores and overall scores improved together, and the model's R-value was 0.997.

Table 7.60 shows the vocabulary and overall success mean scores of participant 30, with the highest vocabulary score at stage 2, and stages 3 and 1 sharing the same score. Meanwhile, the overall success score advanced across the three stages.

Table 7.60: Vocabulary score vs. overall success mean score of participant 30

Stage	Vocab	Overall Success Mean
1	8	2.62
2	8.5	4.04
3	8	4.19

The regression model had a gradient of 1.26923 (with p-value of 0.7806), which means that there was improvement in the overall success score. In this case, vocabulary and overall scores improved together, the model had R-value of 0.42.

Table 7.61 displays the vocabulary and overall success mean scores of participant 31, with a progression in the vocabulary scores. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was noted at stage 1, followed by stage 3.

Table 7.61: Vocabulary score vs. overall success mean score of participant 31

Stage	Vocab	Overall Success Mean
1	7	4.19
2	11.5	3.81
3	12	4.04

The regression line, which was not very steep, decreased because the gradient was -0.05241 (with p – value of 0.4644). Since this model had a negative gradient, improvement in vocabulary did not lead to overall success improvement. The R-value was 0.7455.

Table 7.62 shows the vocabulary and overall success mean scores of participant 32, with a clear advancement in all scores over the three stages.

Table 7.62: Vocabulary score vs. overall success mean score of participant 32

Stage	Vocab	Overall Success Mean
1	6	2.88
2	8.5	3.19
3	10	3.54

The regression model had a gradient of 0.15934 (with p-value of 0.1129). In this case, vocabulary and overall success scores improved together, and the model's R-value was 0.944. Table 7.63 shows the vocabulary and overall success mean scores of participant 33, with the peak in the vocabulary score at stage 2, and a slight decline at stage 3. Meanwhile, the overall success score improved over the three stages.

Table 7.63: vocabulary score vs. overall success mean score of participant 33

Stage	Vocab	Overall Success Mean
1	5.5	3
2	8	3.15
3	7.5	3.81

The regression model had a gradient of 0.1593 (with p-value of 0.673), which means that both vocabulary and overall success improved, with the R-value of 0.4915.

Table 7.64 shows the vocabulary and overall success mean scores of participant 42, with a clear advancement in the vocabulary scores and a peak in overall success at stage 2, followed by stage 3.

Table 7.64: Vocabulary score vs. overall success mean score of participant 42

Stage	Vocab	Overall Success Mean
1	5	3.38
2	6.5	3.96
3	11.5	3.81

The regression model had a gradient of 0.04095 (with p-value of 0.691), which means that there was no improvement in the overall success score. A high p-value points to inconsistencies. Although vocabulary improved drastically, it did not affect the overall success score of participant 42, and the R-value was 0.4665.

In conclusion, there are contradictory findings when comparing the Saudi and Chinese participants in relation to the influence of vocabulary. Vocabulary only positively affected the overall success development of three Saudi participants', namely nos. 15, 19, and 21. As for the Chinese participants, vocabulary impacted the development of overall success of six out of eight Chinese participants.

7.7 Writing vs. Overall Success Scores over 3 Stages

7.7.1 Saudi Participants

This section analyses the influence of the writing scores on the Saudi participants' overall success. Table 7.65 shows the writing and overall success mean scores of participant 15, with a significant progression in the writing scores over the three stages. Meanwhile, the same highest overall success score was obtained at stages 2 and 3.

Table 7.65: Writing score vs. overall success mean score of participant 15

Stage	Writing	Overall Success Mean
1	11	3.81
2	16	4.08
3	19	4.08

The regression model had a gradient of 0.03571 (with p-value of 0.2421), which means that the writing score improved and positively affected the overall success score of participant 15, and the R-value was 0.9285.

Table 7.66 shows the writing and overall success mean scores of participant 18, with a steady progression in the writing scores and a dip in advancement of overall success.

Table 7.66: Writing score vs. overall success mean score of participant 18

Stage	Writing	Overall Success Mean
1	11	3.85
2	13	3.42
3	14	3.92

The regression model had a gradient of -0.00824 (with p-value of 0.970), which means that there was no improvement in the overall success score as the p-value was high. Overall, the writing improvement did not positively affect the overall success score of participant 18, and the R-value was low at 0.0468.

From Table 7.67, it can be seen that the writing scores of participant 19 increased over the three stages. The highest overall success score, on the other hand, was obtained at stage 2, followed by stage 3.

Table 7.67: Writing score vs. overall success mean score of participant 19

Stage	Writing	Overall Success Mean
1	10	2.81
2	14	3.69
3	16	3.54

The regression model had a gradient of 0.13599 (with p-value of 0.316), which indicates that while the writing score improved, it also positively impacted the overall success score of participant 19, and the R-value was 0.879.

Table 7.68 shows the writing and overall success mean scores of participant 21, with a clear progression over the three stages.

Table 7.68: Writing score vs. overall success mean score of participant 21

Stage	Writing	Overall Success Mean
1	9	2.54
2	12	2.85
3	14	3.08

The regression model had gradient of 0.10729 (with p – value of 0.0208), which means that the writing score improved and positively affected the overall success score of participant 21, and the R-value was 0.99.

Table 7.69 displays the writing and overall success mean scores of participant 23, with the highest writing score at stage 3, and no improvement from stage 1 to stage 2. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was obtained at stage 3, but the score of stage 1 was higher than that of stage 2.

Table 7.69: Writing score vs. overall success mean score of participant 23

Stage	Writing	Overall Success Mean
1	9	3.65
2	9	3.38
3	15	3.69

The regression model had gradient of 0.02885 (with p-value of 0.5935), which means that the writing score positively affected the overall success score of participant 23, and the R-value was 0.5961.

Table 7.70 displays the writing and overall success mean scores of participant 37, with stagnation at stage 2 and a clear progression at stage 3 in writing scores. Although the highest overall success score was also recorded at stage 3, the overall success score of stage 1 was slightly higher than that of stage 2.

Table 7.70: Writing score vs. overall success mean score of participant 37

Stage	Writing	Overall Success Mean
1	6	2.08
2	6	2
3	9	2.77

The regression model had a gradient of 0.24359 (with p – value of 0.0579), which means that the writing score improved and positively impacted the overall success score of participant 23, and the R-value was 0.99.

Table 7.71 shows the writing and overall success mean scores of participant 45, with a progression from stage 1 to 2 in writing and no advancement at stage 3. As for the highest overall success score, it was obtained at stage 3, followed by stage 1.

Table 7.71: Writing score vs. overall success mean score of participant 45

Stage	Writing	Overall Success Mean
1	12	2.85
2	14	2.65
3	14	3.38

The regression model had a gradient of 0.08654 (with p-value of 0.830), which indicates inconsistencies due to a high p-value. All in all, the writing score positively affected the overall success score of participant 45, and the R-value was 0.2638.

Table 7.72 shows the highest writing and overall success mean scores of participant 46 at stage 1, with a drop to the same level at stages 2 and three, respectively.

Table 7.72: Writing score vs. overall success mean score of participant 46

Stage	Writing	Overall Success Mean
1	14	2.96
2	13	2.62
3	13	2.62

As for the regression model, there was insufficient variance due to the fact that stages 2 and 3 shared the same scores.

7.7.2 Chinese Participants

This section is devoted to the analysis of the influence of the writing scores on the Chinese participants' overall success. Table 7.73 shows the writing and overall success mean scores of participant 17, with a steady progression in the writing score over the three stages. The highest overall success score, on the other hand, was obtained at stage 2, followed by stage 3.

Table 7.73: Writing score vs. overall success mean score of participant 17

Stage	Writing	Overall Success Mean
1	11	2.58
2	12	4.04
3	14	3.92

The regression model had a gradient of 0.37637 (with p-value of 0.50), which means that the writing score improved and positively affected the overall success score of participant 17, and the R-value was 0.7075.

Table 7.74 displays the writing and overall success mean scores of participant 26, with a peak in writing at stage 2, followed by a second best score at stage 3. Meanwhile, the highest overall success scores progressed over the three stages, with a jump from stage 2 to stage 3.

Table 7.74: Writing score vs. overall success mean score of participant 26

Stage	Writing	Overall Success Mean
1	11	2.65
2	15	2.88
3	14	4.04

The regression model had a gradient of 0.15089 (with p-value of 0.722), which indicates that the writing score improved and positively impacted the overall success score of participant 26, and the R-value was 0.4234.

Table 7.75 shows the writing and overall success mean scores of participant 29, with a clear progression over the three stages.

Table 7.75: Writing score vs. overall success mean score of participant 29

Stage	Writing	Overall Success Mean
1	12	1.96
2	15	2.42
3	16	2.96

The regression model had a gradient of 0.22781 (with p – value of 0.207), which means that the writing score improved and positively affected the overall success score of participant 17, and the R-value was 0.9475 .

Table 7.76 shows the writing and overall success mean scores of participant 30, with a progression to stage 2 and a stagnation at stage 3 in writing and a continuous advancement in overall success, with a considerable spurt from stage 1 to stage 2.

Table 7.76: Writing score vs. overall success mean score of participant 30

Stage	Writing	Overall Success Mean
1	14	2.62
2	17	4.04
3	17	4.19

The regression model had a gradient of 0.50 with p-value of implying inconsistencies due to a high p-value of 0.830. But, overall, the writing score positively impacted the overall success. From Table 7.77 it can be seen that the writing scores of participant 31 remained the same at the three stages. For this reason, there was no summary of the regression.

Table 7.77: Writing score vs. overall success mean score of participant 31

Stage	Writing	Overall Success Mean
1	16	4.19
2	16	3.81
3	16	4.04

Table 7.78 shows the writing and overall success mean scores of participant 32, with the same highest writing score at stages 2 and 3. Meanwhile, the overall success score progressed steadily over the three stages.

Table 7.78: writing score vs. overall success mean score of participant 32

Stage	Writing	Overall Success Mean
1	14	2.88
2	18	3.19
3	18	3.54

The regression model had a gradient of 0.12019 (with p – value of 0.355), that overall success score improved. In this case, so the writing scores and overall scores improved together, and the model's R-value was 0.8485.

Table 7.79 displays the writing and overall success mean scores of participant 33, with the same highest writing score at stages 2 and 3 and a steady advancement in the overall success scores over the three stages.

Table 7.79: Writing score vs. overall success mean score of participant 33

Stage	Writing	Overall Success Mean
1	14	3
2	16	3.15
3	16	3.81

The regression model had a gradient of 0.24038 (with p – value of 0.552). That is, in this case, the writing scores and overall scores improved together, and the R-value was 0.6472.

Table 7.80 shows the writing and overall success mean scores of participant 42, with the highest writing score at stage 3 and the same lower scores at the previous stages. The highest overall success score, on the other hand was obtained at stage 2, followed by stage 3.

Table 7.80: Writing score vs. overall success mean score of participant 42

Stage	Writing	Overall Success Mean
1	16	3.38
2	16	3.96
3	18	3.81

The regression model had a gradient of 0.06731 (with p-value of 0.832), which means that there was an improvement of the overall success score, although the p-value was high. Hence, the writing score improvement positively impacted overall success of participant 42, and the R-value was 0.2601.

In conclusion, it is important to note that the writing scores have been found influential and positively affected the overall success development of all the Saudi and Chinese participants.

7.8 Proficiency vs. Overall Success over 3 Stages

7.8.1 Saudi Participants

This section analyses the influence of the proficiency scores on the Saudi participants' overall success. Table 7.81 shows the proficiency and overall success mean scores of participant 15, with a clear progression in proficiency over the three stages. Meanwhile, the same highest overall success score was obtained at stages 2 and 3.

Table 7.81: Proficiency score vs. overall success mean score of participant 15

Stage	Proficiency	Overall Success Mean
1	64	3.81
2	71.75	4.08
3	76	4.08

The regression line increased because the gradient was 0.023938, as shown in Figure 7.17. The proficiency score of participant 15 improved over the three stages. The regression model had a gradient of 0.02394 (with p-value of 0.227), which proves that the proficiency scores positively influenced overall success, and the R-value was 0.937.

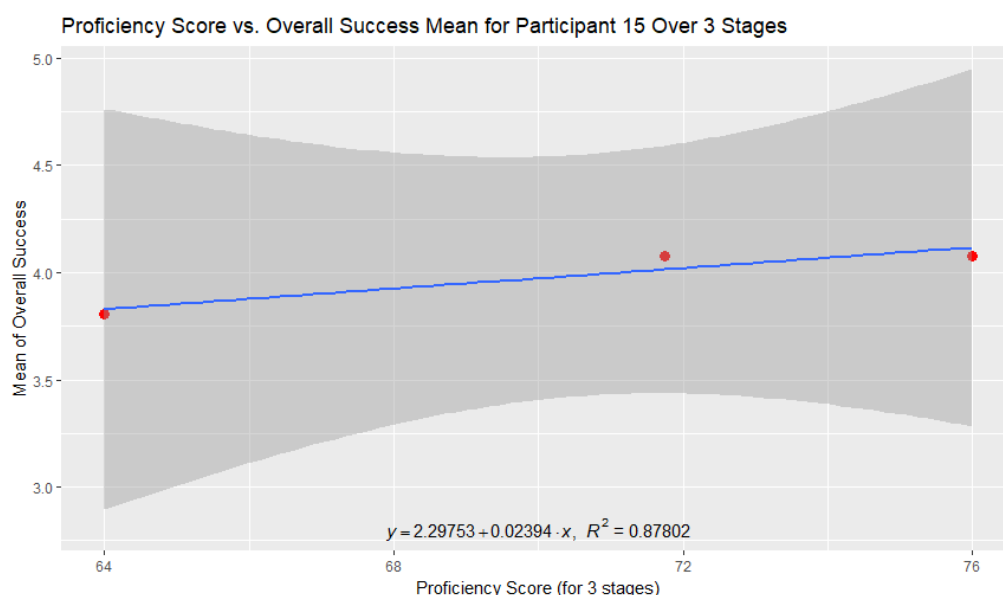


Figure 7.17: Proficiency score vs. mean score of overall success of participant 15

Table 7.82 displays the proficiency and overall success mean scores of participant 18, with a clear progression in proficiency across the three stages. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was recorded at stage 3, followed by stage 1.

Table 7.82: Proficiency score vs. overall success mean score of participant 18

Stage	Proficiency	Overall Success Mean
1	64.75	3.85
2	72.5	3.42
3	77.75	3.92

The regression line increased because the gradient was 0.001349, as shown in Figure 7.18. The p-value was high at 0.979, so there was no statistical significance. The proficiency scores influenced the overall success improvement, and the R-value was very low at 0.0328.

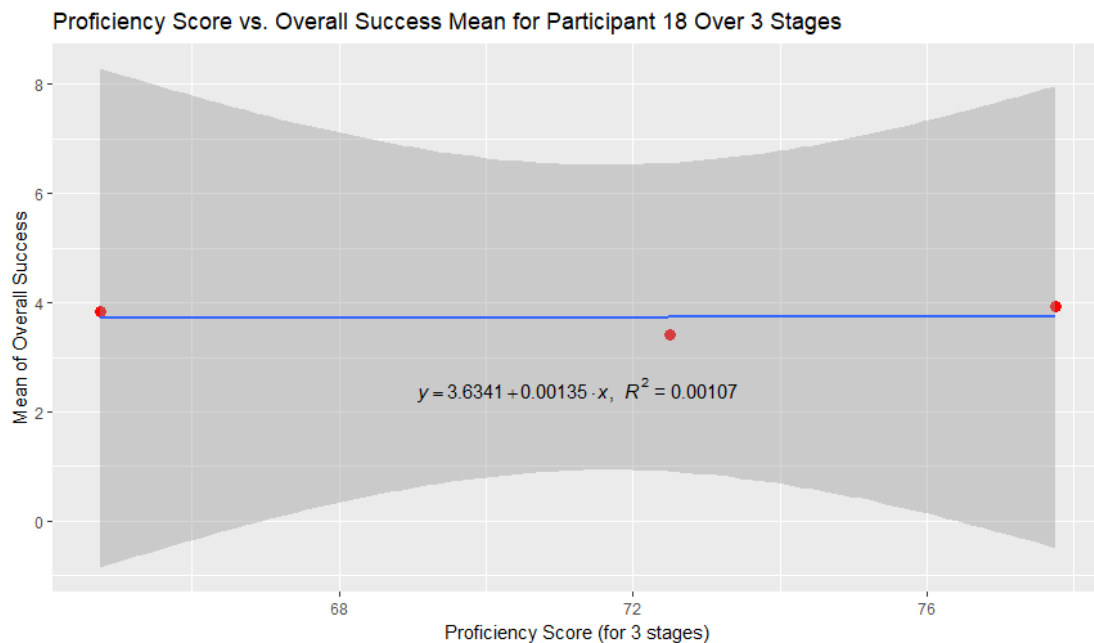


Figure 7.18: Proficiency score vs. mean score of overall success of participant 18

Table 7.83 shows the proficiency and overall success mean scores of participant 19, with a clear progression in proficiency over the three stages, and the highest overall success score at stage 2, followed by stage 3.

Table 7.83: Proficiency score vs. overall success mean score of participant 19

Stage	Proficiency	Overall Success Mean
1	62.25	2.81
2	74.25	3.69
3	78.25	3.54

The regression line increased because the gradient was 0.05214, as shown in Figure 7.19. Together with the p-value of 0.258, this indicates that the proficiency scores influenced overall success, and the R-value was 0.9187.

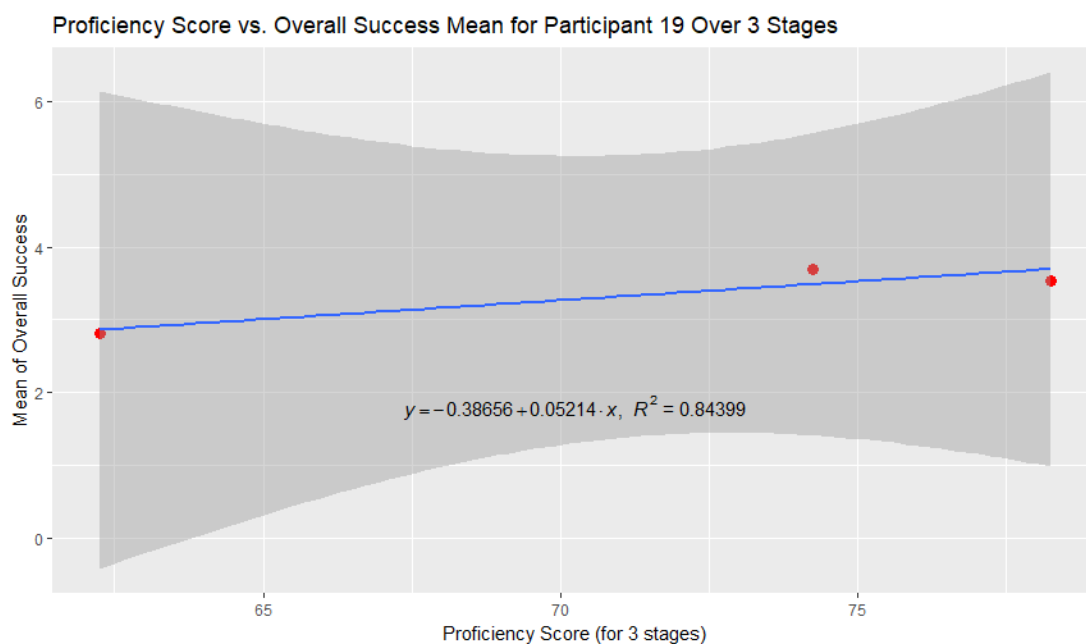


Figure 7.19: Proficiency score vs. mean score of overall success of participant 19

Table 7.84 demonstrates a clear advancement in the proficiency and overall success scores over the three stages for participant 21.

Table 7.84: Proficiency score vs. overall success mean score of participant 21

Stage	Proficiency	Overall Success Mean
1	52.25	2.54
2	64.25	2.85
3	72	3.08

The regression line increased because the gradient was 0.027125, as shown in Figure 7.20 (with the p-value of 0.0263). So the proficiency scores positively impacted overall success, and the R-value was 0.999.

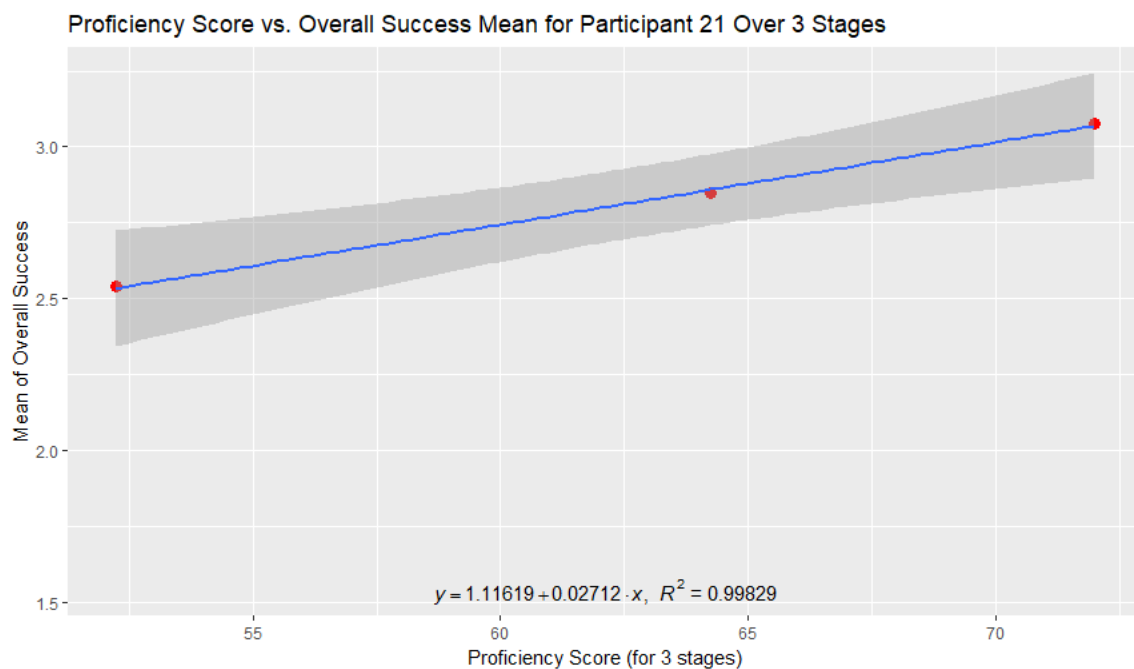


Figure 7.20: Proficiency score vs. mean score of overall success of participant 21

Table 7.85 shows the proficiency and overall success mean scores of participant 23, with a real progression in proficiency over the three stages. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was obtained at stage 3, followed by stage 1.

Table 7.85: Proficiency score vs. overall success mean score of participant 23

Stage	Proficiency	Overall Success Mean
1	60.75	3.65
2	68.75	3.38
3	79.5	3.69

The regression line, which was almost horizontal, decreased because the gradient was 0.00353, as shown in Figure 7.21. Despite the high p – value of 0.873, this indicates that although the linear model was inconsistent, the proficiency scores did influence the overall success score, and the R-value was 0.1981.

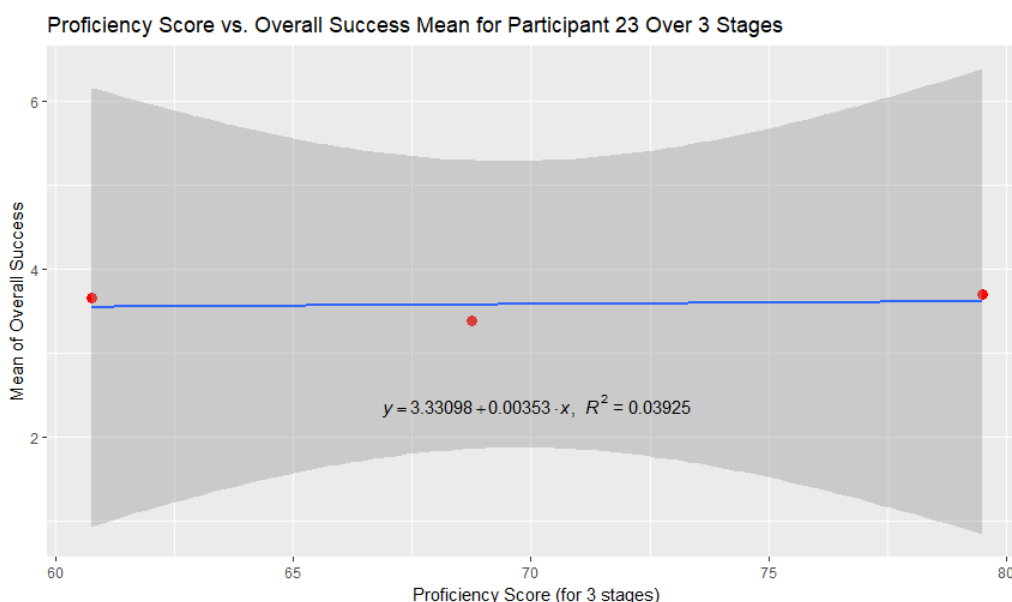


Figure 7.21: Proficiency score vs. mean score of overall success of participant 23

Table 7.86 exhibits the proficiency and overall success mean scores of participant 37, with a significant advancement in proficiency over the three stages. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was also obtained at stage 3, but there was a slight decline from stage 1 to stage 2.

Table 7.86: Proficiency score vs. overall success mean score of participant 37

Stage	Proficiency	Overall Success Mean
1	35	2.08
2	47	2
3	51.75	2.77

The regression line increased because the gradient was 0.03204, as shown in Figure 7.22. The detected p-value was 0.547 and the linear model was inconsistent, but the proficiency scores did positively influence the overall success score, and the R-value was 0.6529.

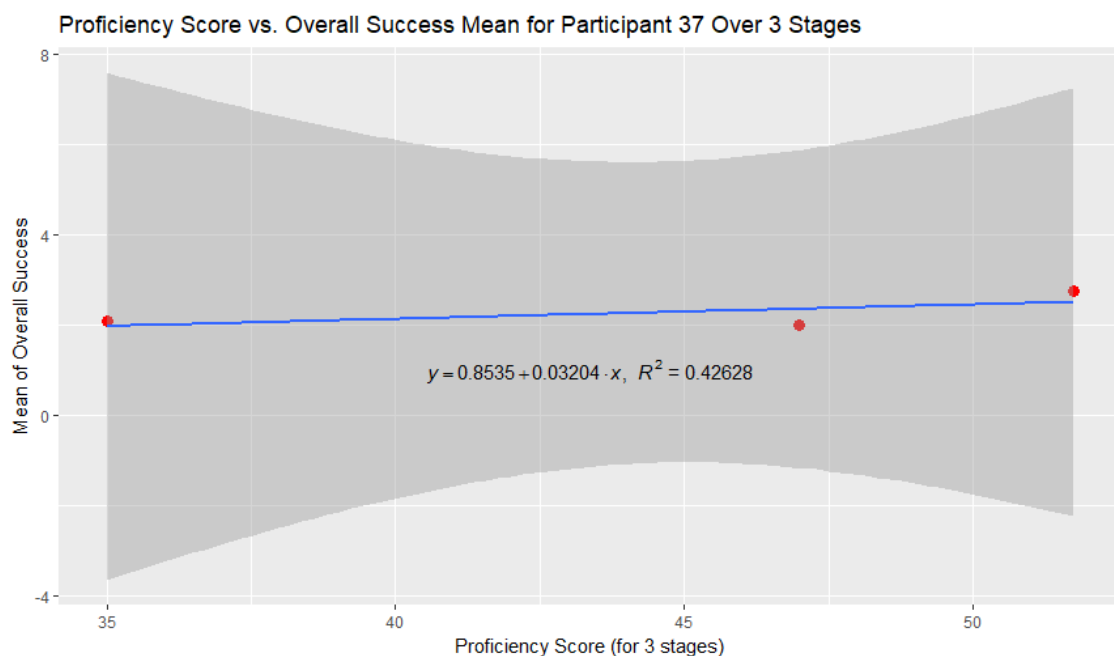


Figure 7.22: Proficiency score vs. mean score of overall success of participant 37

Table 7.87 shows the proficiency and overall success mean scores of participant 45, with advancement in proficiency over the three stages. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was noted at stage 3, followed by stage 1.

Table 7.87: Proficiency score vs. overall success mean score of participant 45

Stage	Proficiency	Overall Success Mean
1	62	2.85
2	72.75	2.65
3	73	3.38

The regression line increased because the gradient was 0.01707, as shown in Figure 7.23. This model showed inconsistencies because the p-value was high (0.817). The proficiency score improved over the three stages but it did not affect the overall success score for participant 45, and the R-value was 0.2829.

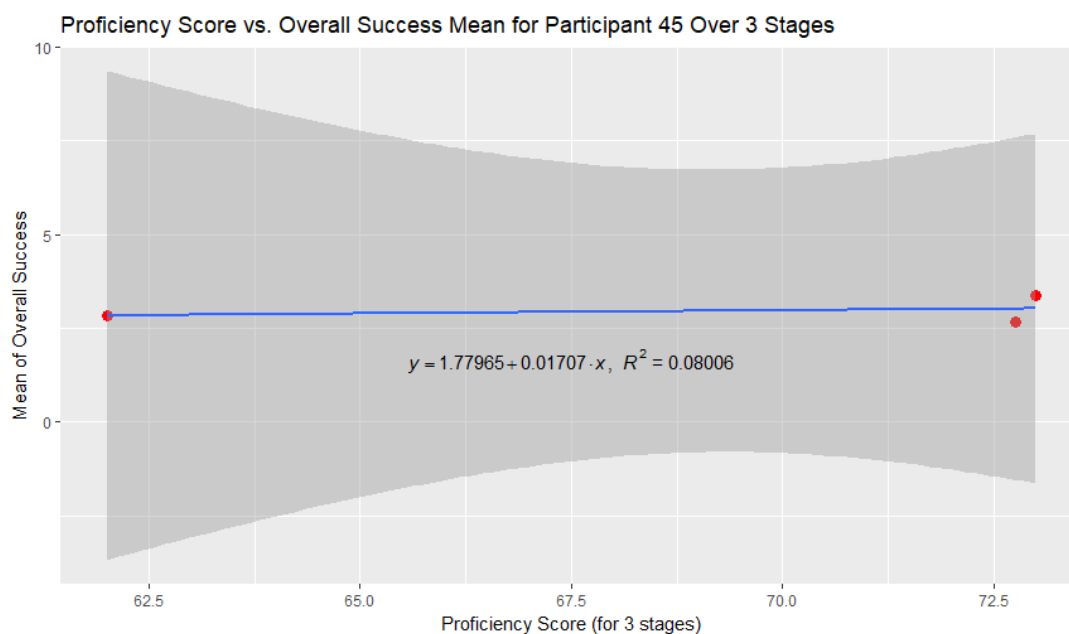


Figure 7.23: Proficiency score vs. mean score of overall success of participant 45

Table 7.88 shows proficiency score and overall success mean score of participant 46, with a steady advancement in the proficiency scores. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was obtained at stage 1, with the same lower score at stages 2 and 3.

Table 7.88: Proficiency score vs. overall success mean score of participant 46

Stage	Proficiency	Overall Success Mean
1	66	2.96
2	67.25	2.62
3	70.25	2.62

The regression line decreased because the gradient was -0.06651 , as shown in Figure 7.24. This model shows inconsistencies since the p-value was high at 0.482 . The proficiency score improved overall and positively affected the success score for participant 46, and the R-value was 0.7269 .

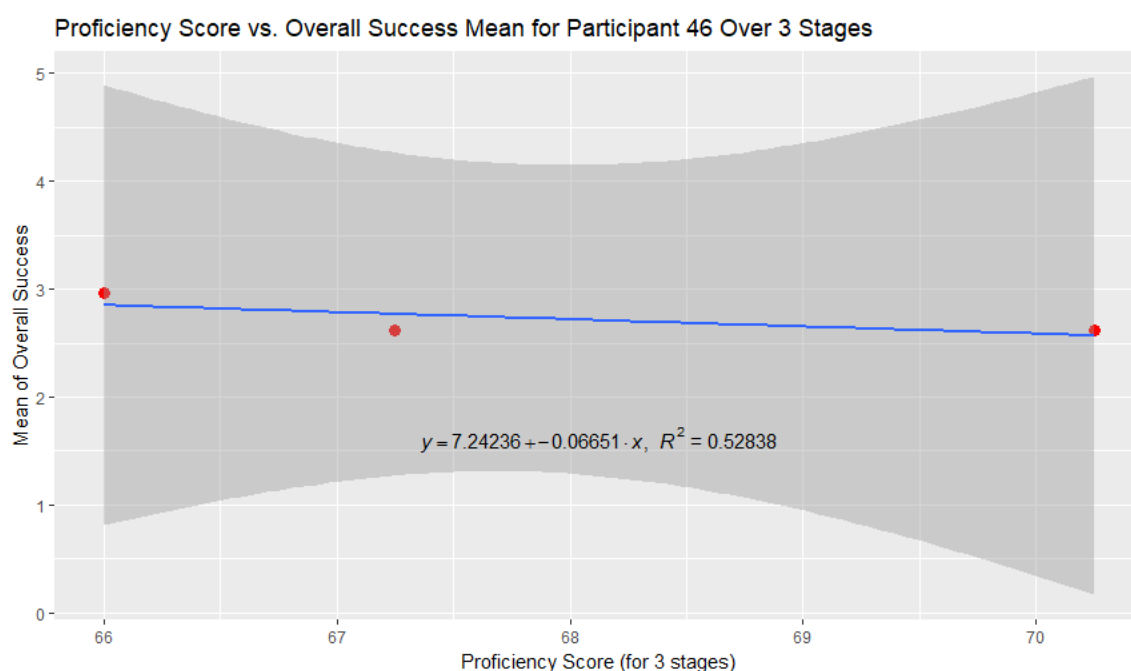


Figure 7.24: Proficiency score vs. mean score of overall success of participant 46

7.8.2 Chinese Participants

This section is devoted to the analysis of the influence of proficiency scores on the Chinese participants' overall success. Table 7.89 shows the proficiency and overall success mean scores of participant 17, with advancement in proficiency over the three stages. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was detected at stage 2, followed by stage 3.

Table 7.89: Proficiency score vs. overall success mean score of participant 17

Stage	Proficiency	Overall Success Mean
1	66	2.58
2	73	4.04
3	74	3.92

The regression line increased because the gradient was 0.18320, as shown in Figure 7.25. This, together with the p-value of 0.118, means that the proficiency scores positively impacted overall success, and the R-value was 0.983.

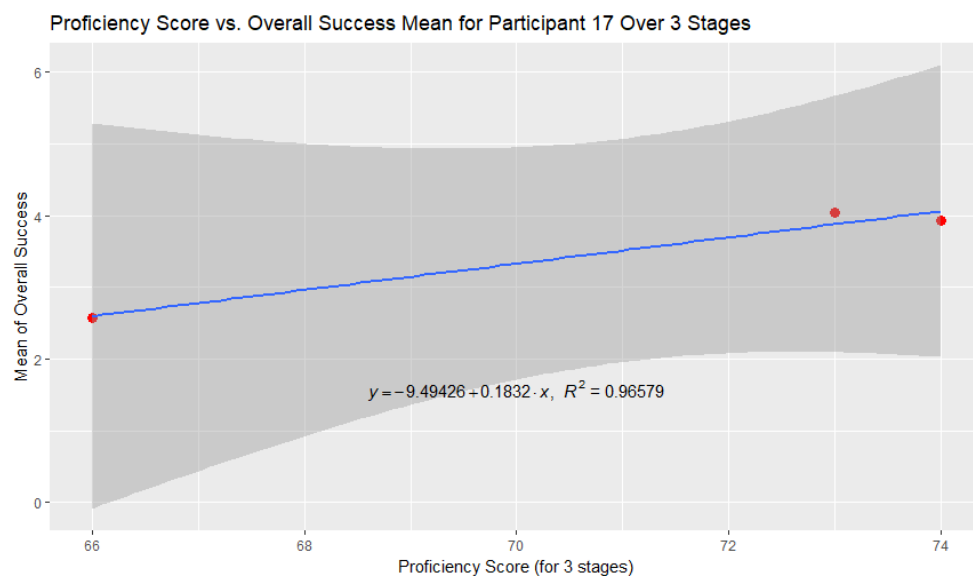


Figure 7.25: Proficiency score vs. mean score of overall success of participant 17

Table 7.90 shows the proficiency and overall success mean scores of participant 26, with a steady progression over the three stages.

Table 7.90: Proficiency score vs. overall success mean score of participant 26

Stage	Proficiency	Overall Success Mean
1	53.25	2.65
2	63.75	2.88
3	66.5	4.04

The regression line increased because the gradient was 0.08161, as shown in Figure 7.26. Combined with the p-value of 0.441 and the R – value of 0.7693, this points to a positive impact of the proficiency scores on overall success.

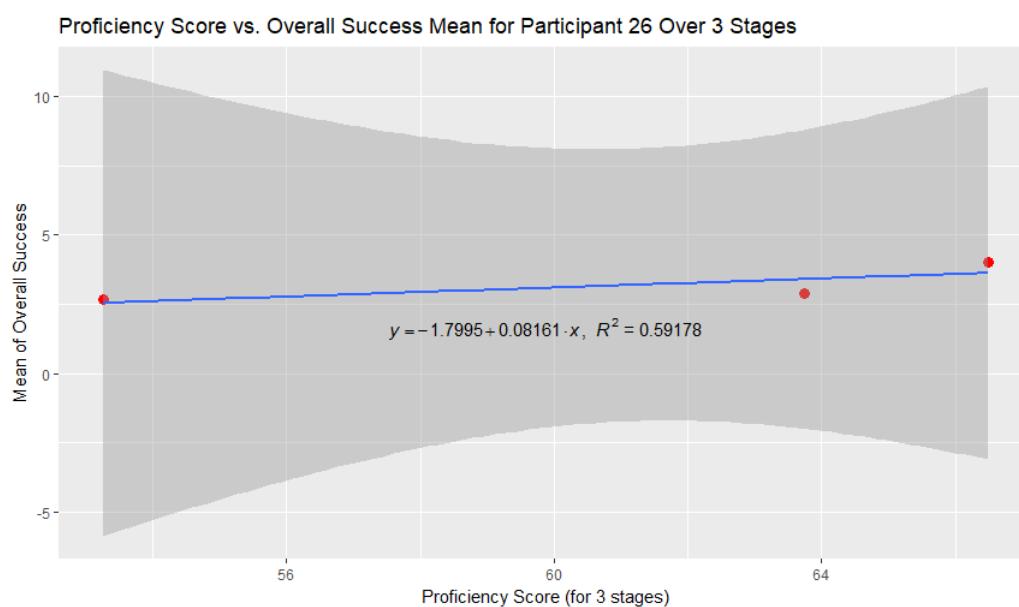


Figure 7.26: Proficiency score vs. mean score of overall success of participant 26

Table 7.91 displays the proficiency and overall success mean scores of participant 29, with a clear progression over the three stages.

Table 7.91: Proficiency score vs. overall success mean score of participant 29

Stage	Proficiency	Overall Success Mean
1	56.25	1.96
2	68.75	2.42
3	72.5	2.96

The regression line increased with a gradient of 0.05534, as shown in Figure 7.27. Given that the p – value was 0.220 and the R – value was 0.9408, this indicates that the proficiency scores influenced the overall success improvement.

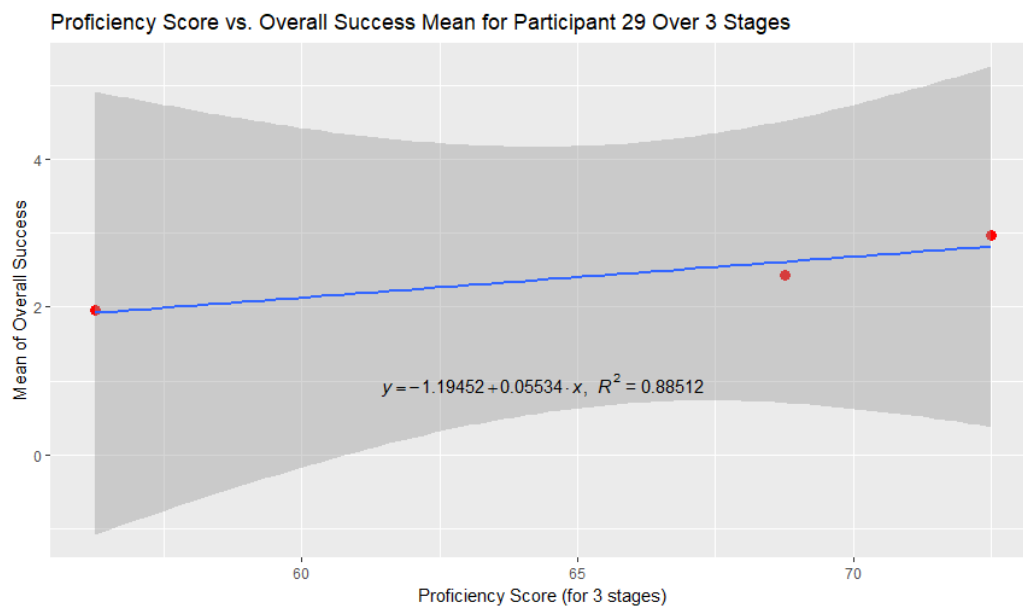


Figure 7.27: Proficiency score vs. mean score of overall success of participant 29

Table 7.92 shows how the proficiency and overall success mean scores of participant 30 increased over the three stages.

Table 7.92: Proficiency score vs. overall success mean score of participant 30

Stage	Proficiency	Overall Success Mean
1	68.25	2.62
2	75.5	4.04
3	78.5	4.19

The regression line increased because the gradient was 0.16169, as can be seen in Figure 7.28. Together with the p-value of 0.127 and the R – value of 0.98, this further indicates that the proficiency scores influenced the overall success improvement.

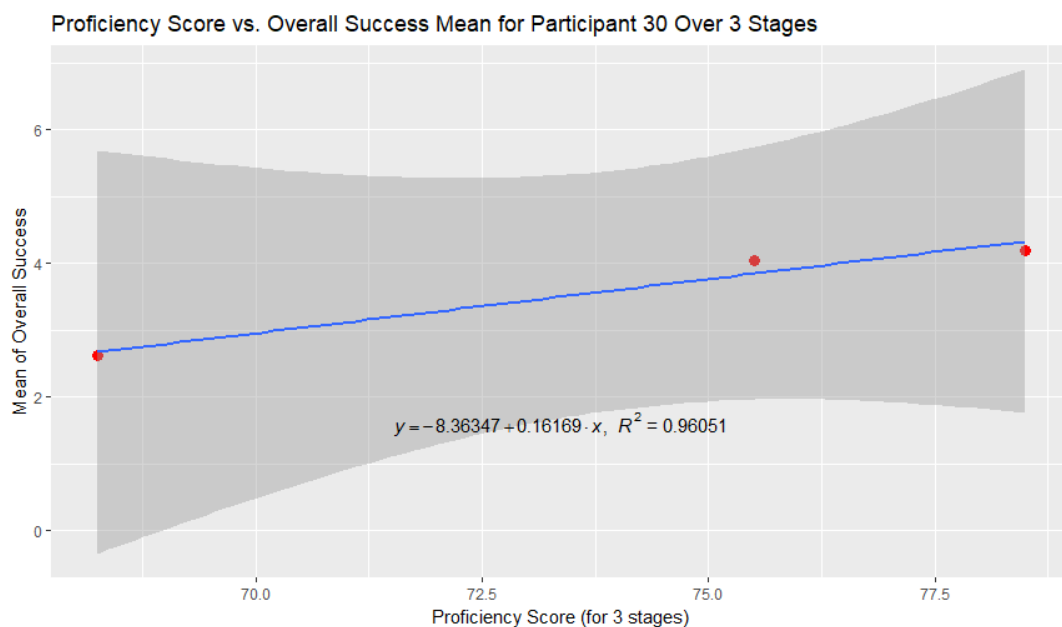


Figure 7.28: Proficiency score vs. mean score of overall success of participant 30

Table 7.93 shows the proficiency and overall success mean scores of participant 31, with a clear increase in proficiency over the three stages. Meanwhile, the highest overall success score was obtained at stage 1, followed by stage 3.

Table 7.93: Proficiency score vs. overall success mean score of participant 31

Stage	Proficiency	Overall Success Mean
1	63.75	4.19
2	74.5	3.81
3	79.75	4.04

The regression line decreased as the gradient was -0.01349 , as shown in Figure 7.29. The p-value of 0.615 and the R – value of 0.5684 were recorded, which means that there was no improvement in the overall success score. This model had a negative gradient, so improvement in proficiency did not lead to any improvement in the overall success scores and stage 1 parameters affected the model.

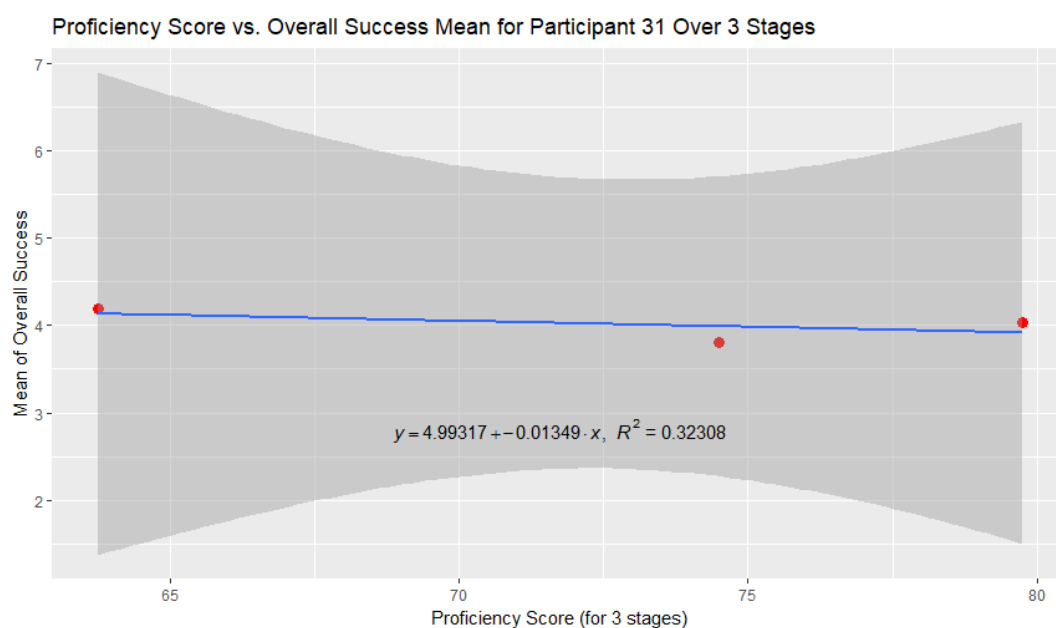


Figure 7.29: Proficiency score vs. mean score of overall success of participant 31

Table 7.94 shows the proficiency and overall success mean scores of participant 32, with a considerably increase over the three stages, especially in proficiency.

Table 7.94: Proficiency score vs. overall success mean score of participant 32

Stage	Proficiency	Overall Success Mean
1	62.75	2.88
2	70.75	3.19
3	74.5	3.54

The regression line increased because the gradient was 0.05294, as illustrated in Figure 7.30. This indicates that there was improvement in the overall success score. In this case, proficiency and overall scores improved together.

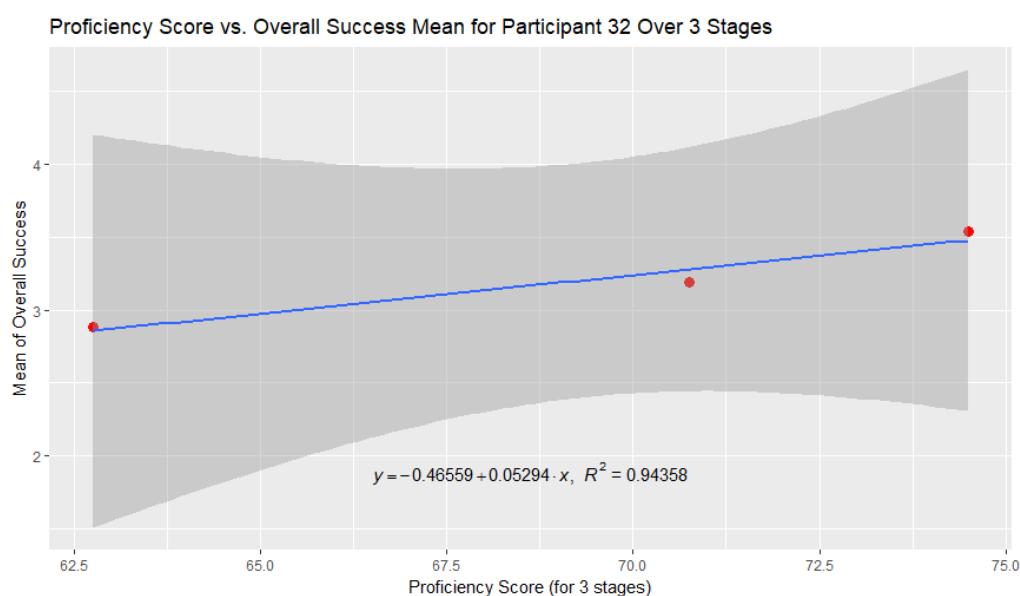


Figure 7.30: Proficiency score vs. mean score of overall success of participant 32

Table 7.95 shows the proficiency and overall success mean scores of participant 33, with a progression over the three stages.

Table 7.95: Proficiency score vs. overall success mean score of participant 33

Stage	Proficiency	Overall Success Mean
1	63.75	3
2	70.5	3.15
3	73	3.81

The regression line increased since the gradient was 0.07384 (with p – value of 0.384), as shown in Figure 7.31. In this case, the proficiency and overall scores improved together, and the model's R-value was 0.8239.

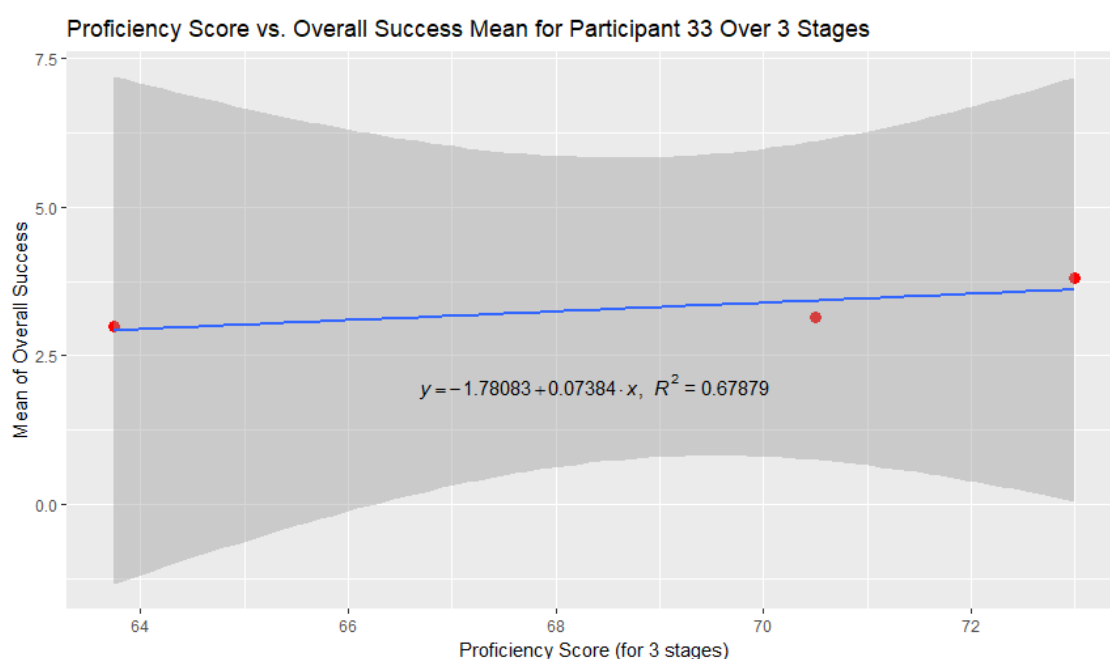


Figure 7.31: Proficiency score vs. mean score of overall success of participant 33

Table 7.96 displays the proficiency and overall success mean scores of participant 42, with a steady increase in proficiency over the three stages. As for overall success, the highest score was obtained at stage 2, followed by stage 3.

Table 7.96: Proficiency score vs. overall success mean score of participant 42

Stage	Proficiency	Overall Success Mean
1	63.5	3.38
2	74.75	3.96
3	80.5	3.81

The regression line increased for the gradient was 0.02853 (with p – value of 0.382), as shown in Figure 7.32. The proficiency score of participant 42 improved over the three stages. The regression model had gradient of 0.02853, which means that there was improvement in the overall success score. The proficiency score improved and positively affected the overall success score of participant 42, and the R-value was 0.8257.

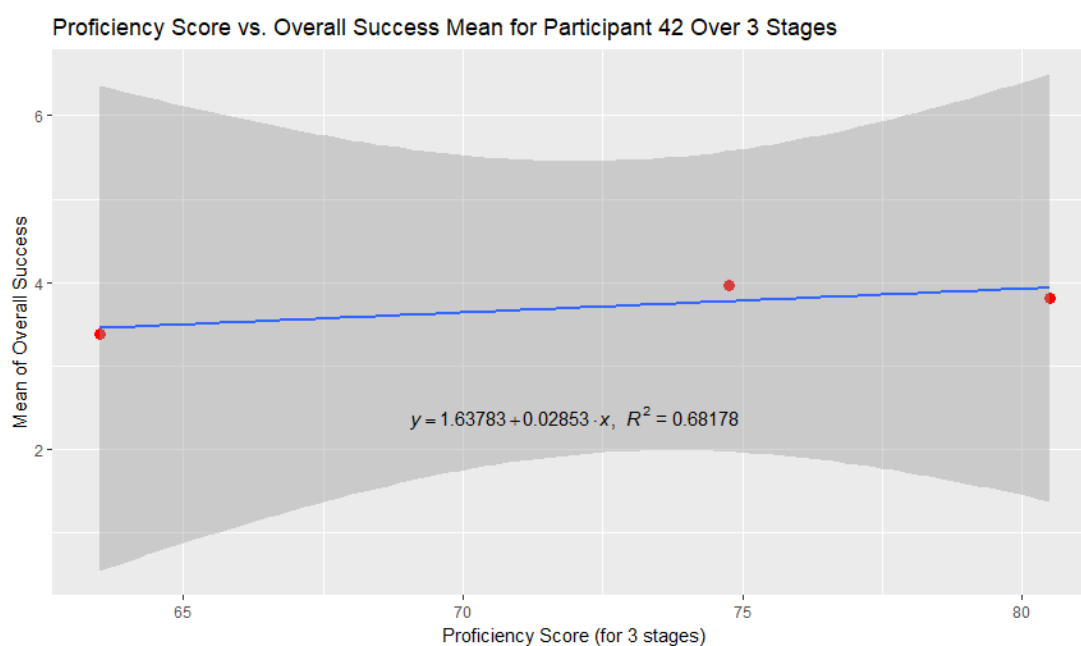


Figure 7.32: Proficiency score vs. mean score of overall success of participant 42

7.9 Discussion and Conclusion

The analyses conducted, involving the variables of the time spent in the UK, proficiency test and its components of grammar, interview, listening, vocabulary, and writing in relation to the Saudi and Chinese participants' overall success have had two purposes. Firstly, they have assisted in answering the main question of the present study regarding the

development of L2 pragmatic competence over the three stages of data collection. Secondly, have provided answers as to statistically significant/insignificant differences pertaining to all the participants' overall success in terms of environment (duration of stay in the UK) and proficiency (L2 linguistic competence).

Based on the regression analyses, all 8 Saudi participants have demonstrated no statistically significant differences between their overall successes mean scores over the three stages. This indicates that the time spent in the UK was not influential in the development of the Saudi participants' overall success. In spite of the fact that four Chinese participants (nos.26, 30, 32, and 42) showed consistent development in their mean scores of the overall success over the three stages, the regression analysis of each Chinese participant's scores showed that there was statistically insignificant difference in their overall mean scores where the p-values were > 0.05 . Thus, for the Chinese participants, duration of their stay in the UK made no essential difference on the development of their overall success.

Therefore, the present study concludes that learning environment, or time spent in the UK, was not influential when it came to the development of every single Saudi and Chinese participants' overall success and hence to the development of their L2 pragmatic competence. The data elicited from each participant over the three stages can be over fitted by a regression model with 2 parameters. Three data points only for two parameters ($a + b * \text{time in the UK}$) are not sufficient. However, when we take all the participants into account, there are $16 * 3 = 48$ data points to fit a model with 2 parameters; so there is no risk to overfit the model. The overfitted model shows a large p-value indicating no statistical significance. Fitting a regression model with 2 parameters (intercept and coefficient of time spent in the UK), the three data points may not lead to a significant result over discussion in the participants' overall success in relation to duration in the UK.

This finding contradicts those reported by Ellis (1992), Achiba (2003), Schauer (2004; 2009) that affirmed the importance of staying in an English speaking country as a condition for developing the L2 pragmatic competence. This finding also does not corroborate the findings reported by Woodfield (2011) concerning the development of the use of request strategies; those of Warga and Scholmberger (2007) with regard to the development of apology strategies; Code and Anderson (2001) in relation to the development of request strategies by Japanese EFL learners; Kondo (1997) regarding the development of apology strategies by Japanese EFL learners; and Cohen and Shively's findings (2007) related to the

development of apology strategies in Spanish. As residing in the UK did not help develop the L2 pragmatic competence of Saudi and Chinese participants, there is a need to investigate the role of teaching L2 pragmatics to Saudi and Chinese EFL learners and a need to investigate their motivations for learning English. These two suggested research topics may help reveal the reasons behind the insignificant contribution of the duration of stay in the UK to the overall L2 learning success.

Based on the gradient and R-values of the linear regression model of every Saudi participant, grammar and interview scores improved for most of the Saudi participants over the three stages, demonstrating a consistent upward development. Therefore, the Saudi participants' grammar and interview scores affected the development of overall success in most of the cases. Contrary to the Saudi participants, the gradient and R-values of every Chinese participant showed that there was no improvement in their grammar scores over the three stages. However, the grammar scores of most of the Chinese participants did not affect the improvement of overall success in the DCT and role play situations in most of the cases. This finding emphasises the importance of teaching rules of grammar to Saudi and Chinese learners and points to the evidence that the L2 pragmatic instructions should focus on the development of EFL learners' performance in English grammar. This is simply attributed to the fact that proficiency in L2 grammar may considerably affect the development of L2 pragmatic competence.

Based on the gradient and R-values of the linear regression model of every Chinese participant, there was inconsistent development in the interview score detected. The interview score did not affect the overall success improvement in most of the cases.

Based on the gradient and R-values of linear regression model of every Saudi participant, the listening score improvement for five Saudi participants (except nos. 23, 45, and 46) led to overall success improvement. That is, listening improvement in these cases affected the improvement of the overall success. Similarly, the listening score improvement of seven Chinese participant, except no. 31, influenced the improvement of their overall success as the linear regression models increased. This finding asserts the important role of listening skills for EFL learners in developing their L2 pragmatic competence. It is therefore recommended for the L2 pragmatic instructions to focus on developing the listening skills of EFL learners in order to yield better results in developing their overall L2 pragmatic competence.

Based on the gradient and R-values of the linear regression model of every Saudi participant, the vocabulary scores of six Saudi participants, nos. 15 and 21 excluded, did influence the improvement of their overall success. As for the Chinese participants, there was improvement in the overall success of six Chinese participants, with nos. 31 and 42 excluded, according to their vocabulary score improvement.

Based on the gradient and R-values of the linear regression model of every Saudi participant, the writing scores of six Saudi participants, with the exception of no. 18 and no. 46, were improved, thus influencing their overall success improvement. Similarly, the improvement of seven Chinese participants' writing scores, except participant no. 31, affected the improvement of their overall success. This indicates the important role of writing skills in developing the EFL learners' L2 pragmatic competence. In addition, the Chinese participants showed supremacy over their Saudi counterparts in their L2 writing skills.

Based on the gradient and R-values of the linear regression model of every Saudi participant, the proficiency scores of six Saudi participants, with the exception of nos. 23 and 45, affected the improvement of their overall success. This finding asserts the importance of proficiency levels in developing the L2 pragmatic competence of EFL learners in general, and Saudi EFL learners in particular. Similarly, the improvement of seven Chinese participants' proficiency scores, with the exception of participant no.31, led to the improvement of their overall success. This finding also indicated the supremacy of the Chinese participants' proficiency levels over those of their Saudi counterparts. It further affirms the influential role of L2 proficiency on the development of overall success and L2 pragmatic competence. This finding is consistent with the findings reported by Xinkun (2006) and Tian (2014). It is also compatible with that reported by Al-Gahtani and Roever (2012) where the low proficiency levels of Saudi participants impeded the development of their performance in using the request moves. As it appears, low proficiency levels of grammar and interview for the Chinese participants led to no significant contribution to the development of their L2 pragmatic competence. In this regard, the present study has found that the components of proficiency like grammar, vocabulary, and listening differently affected the development of both Saudi and Chinese participants' overall success as explained earlier. On the other hand, interview and writing similarly affected the development of the Saudi participants' overall success and that of the Chinese participants. This finding reveals the need for paying more attention to the teaching of these components of proficiency to both target groups of learners

in order to enhance the development of their L2 pragmatic competence. This is the responsibility of the educational authorities concerned in both the KSA and China to devise developmental programmes or redesign the existing EFL curricula in the way that they account for the EFL learners' needs when it comes to enhancement of their L2 linguistic skills in writing, listening, grammar, vocabulary, and interview.

In Chapter eight, the results of the quantitative analysis of the data collected are further discussed, with the focus on multivariate analysis and univariate linear models with regard to overall success.

Chapter 8: Quantitative Analysis of the Development of L2 pragmatic competence: Results and Discussion (Multivariate Analysis and Univariate Linear Models)

8. Introduction

This chapter introduces two types of statistical analysis, namely multivariate analysis and univariate regression models. The multivariate analysis has been conducted to verify the influence of the duration of the stay time in the UK and the proficiency components: (grammar, interview, listening, vocabulary, and writing) on the development of L2 pragmatic competence of the Saudi and Chinese participants in the study over the three stages of data collection. This has been achieved by means of different models of regression where each time an independent variable was removed. The univariate regression models have testified to the significant contribution of proficiency and time in the UK to the participants' overall success. The univariate regression models also help, along with other regression models introduced in Chapters six and seven, to determine which of the independent variables is the most significant contributor to the participants' development of L2 pragmatic competence. This is assessed based on the p-values of each of the independent variables.

8.1 Multivariate Analysis of Saudi and Chinese Participants' Overall Success in the DCT and Role Plays

The multivariate analysis was conducted after all participants responded to the 18 DCT situations and 8 role play situations. Thus, the participants' overall scores were chosen to represent the dependent variable. The independent variables included the following numerical variables of : (i) time in the UK as represented the duration of stay in the UK prior to the interview at the three different stages, (ii) vocabulary as represented by the vocabulary score at each of the three stages, (iii) grammar as represented by the grammar score at each of the three stages, (iv) the interview score at each of the three stages, (v) the writing score at each of the three stages, finally, (vi) the listening score at each of the three stages. There were also two categorical variables of (i) stage: it represented the three stages to measure the improvement of the participants' responses, and (ii) language: representing Arabic and Chinese languages. The multivariate analysis aimed to examine the relationship between linguistic variables and overall success scores through factoring in the language group and the stage at which data were collected.

As to the first regression model, it measured the relationship between the overall success mean as the dependent variable scores and all the independent variables except proficiency. These variables were time in the UK, vocabulary, grammar, interview, writing, listening, proficiency, stage 2, stage 3, and L1 Chinese. Proficiency had only NAs in the model (i.e. not counted). R function detected that proficiency was combined of vocabulary, grammar, interview, writing, and listening. Proficiency was removed and the analysis was carried once again. This R simulation was run just to show that proficiency score can be considered separately. The results of the first regression model show that there were statistically significant differences in the overall success according to the time in the UK (p-value 0.00617 **), vocabulary (p-value 0.01120*), writing (p-value 0.03930*), and stage 3 as a factor (p-value 0.02578*). These significant differences occurred at different coefficient levels where the p-values were > 0.001 , 0.01, 0.05, and 0.1.

The second regression model of the overall success mean scores as measured against all the independent variables except proficiency included nine variables (time in the UK, vocabulary, grammar, interview, writing, listening, stage 2, stage 3, and L1 Chinese). To better explain the factor variables results, stage and language as categorical variables were used as predictors, R used (one of the levels) as reference. This explains why stage 1 was missing (because it was used as reference for stage as a variable) and L1 Arabic was missing (because it was used as reference for L1). The coefficient of L1 Chinese, with the value of 0.042024, implied that given all other variables were the same, a Chinese participant was expected to have an overall success mean result 0.042024 points higher than a Saudi participant due to the coefficient value. The coefficients of stage 2 and stage 3, 0.303132 and 0.854179, implied that given all other variables were the same, a participant was expected to have an overall success mean scores at stage 2, 0.303132 points higher than at stage 1, and an overall success mean score at stage 3, 0.854179 points higher than at stage 1, due to their coefficient values.

As to the interpretation of statistical significance, the overall p-value of the second model was $7.773 * 10^{-6}$, which is less than the critical value of 0.05. The R -value of the model was 0.7882, which means that the variance of overall success mean score was explained by 78.82% of the variance of the other variables. The independent variables' statistically significant p-values are: vocabulary: 0.00496, writing: 0.00662, and stage 3: 0.03397. The interpretation of the coefficients of each variable in the model is presented below.

1. The time spent in the UK had a slightly negative coefficient of -0.005095 , but with a significant p-value, $0.00617 < 0.05$. This value means that when time in the UK increased by one day, the overall success mean score decreased by 0.005095 points. So success negatively correlates with the length of stay.
2. Vocabulary had a slightly positive coefficient of 0.099306, with a significant p-value of $0.01120 < 0.05$. This value means that when the vocabulary score increased by one point, the overall success mean score increased by 0.099306 points.
3. Grammar had a slightly negative coefficient of -0.056528 , with a p-value that is statistically insignificant, namely $0.26935 > 0.05$. This means that when the grammar score increased by one point, the overall success mean score decreased by -0.056528 points.
4. Interview exhibited a slightly positive coefficient of 0.087230, with a p-value that is insignificant, $0.08754 > 0.05$. This means that if interview score increased by one point, the overall success mean score increased by 0.087230 points.
5. Writing had a slightly positive coefficient score of 0.071038, with a significant p-value of $0.03930 < 0.05$. This value indicates that if the writing mean score increased by one point, the overall success mean score increased by 0.071038 points.
6. Listening had a slightly positive coefficient score of 0.063246, with a p-value that is statistically insignificant, i. e. $0.28196 > 0.05$. This value means that when the listening score increased by one point, the overall success mean score increased by 0.063246 points.

The R package 'Relaimpo' (Relative Importance of Regression in Linear Model) was used to rank the independent variables and determine the relevance of the predictors. The most influential independent variables identified were:

1. Vocabulary with 27.13%
2. Writing with 18.80%
3. Interview with 15.11%
4. Listening with 11.58%
5. Stage with 10.88%
6. Time in the UK with 7.91%
7. Grammar with 6.39%
8. L1 with 2.19%

The third regression model tested the relationship between the overall success mean scores and six predictors (time in the UK, vocabulary, interview, writing, stage 2, and stage 3). The statistically significant factors that contributed to the overall success were vocabulary (p-value 0.00496 **), interview (p-value 0.02017 *), writing (p-value 0.00662 **), time in the UK (p-value 0.01132 *), and stage 3 (p-value 0.03397 *) where their p-values were < 0, 0.001, 0.01, 0.05, and 0.1. When the categorical variables functioned as predictors, R used one of the levels as a reference. The coefficients of stage 2 and stage 3, 0.186967 and 0.672831, implied that given all other variables were the same, then a participant was expected to have then overall success mean score at stage 2, 0.186967 points higher than at stage 1, and the overall success mean score at stage 3, 0.672831 points higher than that at stage 1. The overall p-value of the third model was 5.536×10^{-7} , which was less than the critical value of 0.05. The R-value of the model was 0.7766. This means that the variance of overall success mean score was explained by 77.66% of the variance of the other variables. Below is the interpretation of the coefficient of each variable in the model:

1. Time spent in the UK had a slightly negative coefficient of -0.004358, but with a significant p-value, $0.01132 < 0.05$. The value means that if time in the UK increased by one day, the overall success mean score decreased by 0.004358 points.
2. Vocabulary had a slightly positive coefficient of 0.107457, with a significant p-value of $0.00496 < 0.05$. This value means that for any increase in the vocabulary score by one point, the overall success mean score increased by 0.107457 points.
3. Interview had a little positive coefficient of 0.092722, with a significant p-value of $0.02017 < 0.05$. This is considered an improvement from the second model, where the p-value of interview was not significant. The value of the coefficient means that when interview score increased by one point, the overall success mean score increased by 0.092722 points. This seems realistic.
4. Writing had a slightly positive score of 0.070797, with a significant p-value of $0.00662 < 0.05$. This value means that for any increase of writing score by one point, the overall success mean score increased by 0.070797 points. The R package 'Relaimpo' was used to rank the independent variables and determine the relevance of the predictors and below are the predictor variables for the development of the participants' overall success. The most influential independent variables identified are:

1. Vocabulary with 32.35%

2. Writing with 26.31%
3. Interview with 21.29%
4. Stage with 12.68%
5. Time in the UK with 7.36%.

The fourth model of linear regression included all predictors except L1 which proved not to be a strong factor in the second model. This model included all independent variables (with the exception of L1) and 'stage' as a sole factor. The tested independent variables in the fourth regression model were time in the UK, vocabulary, grammar, interview, writing, listening, stage 2, and stage 3. Based on the fourth model of linear regression, the statistically significant variables to the overall success were identified as time in the UK, vocabulary, writing, and stage 3. When the categorical variables were used as predictors, R used one of the levels as a reference. That is why stage 1 was missing because it was used as a reference for 'stage'. The coefficients of stage 2 and stage 3, 0.289820 and 0.834615, implied that given all other variables were the same, then a participant was expected to have an overall success mean score in stage 2, 0.289820 points higher than that in stage 1, and an overall Success mean score in stage 3, 0.834615 points higher than that in stage 1.

The overall p-value of the fourth model was 7.773×10^{-6} , which was less than the critical value of 0.05. The R-value of the model was 0.7878. This means that the variance of the overall success mean score was explained by 78.78% of the variance of the independent variables. The coefficient of each variable detected in the interpreted models below.

1. Time in the UK had a slightly negative coefficient of -0.005079 , but with a significant p-value of $0.00567 < 0.05$. The value means that when the time in the UK increased by one day, the overall success mean score decreased by 0.005079 points.
2. Vocabulary had a slightly positive coefficient of 0.099688, with a significant p-value of $0.00991 < 0.05$. This value means that for any increase in the vocabulary score by one point, the overall success mean score increased by 0.099688 points. This seems realistic.
3. Grammar had a slightly negative coefficient of -0.056136 , with a statistically insignificant p-value of $0.26653 > 0.05$. This means that when grammar score increased by one point, the overall success mean score decreased by -0.056136 . This seems unrealistic, as the p-value was statistically insignificant.

4. Interview had a slightly positive coefficient of 0.082432, with an insignificant p-value of $0.07820 > 0.05$. This means that when the interview score increased by one point, the overall success mean score increased by 0.082432 points.
5. Writing had a slightly positive score of 0.075935, with a significant p-value of $0.00766 < 0.05$. This value means that for any increase of the writing score by one point, the overall success mean score increased by 0.075935 points.
6. Listening had a slightly positive score of 0.065038, with a statistically insignificant p-value $0.25949 > 0.05$. This value means that for any increase of the listening score by one point, the overall success mean score increased by 0.065038 points.

The R package 'Relaimpo' was used to rank the independent variables and determine the relevance of the predictors. The most influential independent variables detected are:

1. Vocabulary with 27.27%
2. Writing with 20.83%
3. Interview with 14.80%
4. Listening with 11.87%
5. Stage with 10.80%
6. Time in the UK with 7.87%
7. Grammar with 6.56%. The grammar is the least influential among other components of proficiency on the participants' overall success.

The fifth model of linear regression included time in the UK, vocabulary, grammar, writing, stage 2 and stage 3. When the categorical variables were used as predictors, R used one of the levels as a reference. Stage 1 was missing because it was used as reference for 'stage'. The coefficients of stage 2 and stage 3, 0.006573 and 0.377339, implied that given all other variables were the same, then a participant was expected to have an overall success mean score in stage 2, 0.006573 points higher than in stage 1, and an overall success mean score in stage 3, 0.377339 points higher than in stage 1. Even though this result was low compared with the first, second, third and fourth models, it is realistic. It means that the listening and interview scores contributed to a bigger difference between stages. This should be interpreted as increasing overall success mean scores from stage to stage by considering only the scores of vocabulary, grammar and writing.

The overall p-value of the fifth regression model was $6.879 * 10^{-6}$, which was less than the critical value of 0.05. The R-value of the model was 0.7398. This means that the

variance of the overall success mean score was explained by 73.98% of the variance of the independent variables. Below is an interpretation of the detected coefficient of each variable in the model:

1. Time in the UK had a slightly negative coefficient, -0.002755 , and it had a statistically insignificant p-value of $0.094827 > 0.05$. The value means that when the time spent in the UK increased by one day, the overall success mean score decreased by 0.002755 points.
2. Vocabulary had a slightly positive coefficient of 0.143329 , with a significant p-value of $0.000208 < 0.05$. This value means that for any increase of vocabulary score by one point, the overall success mean score increased by 0.143329 points. This seems realistic.
3. Grammar had a slightly positive coefficient of 0.011326 , with a statistically insignificant p-value of $0.798701 > 0.05$. This means that when the grammar score increased by one point, there was an increase by 0.011326 points in the overall success mean score. This seems realistic, but the p-value suggested that it is statistically insignificant.
4. Writing had a slightly positive score of 0.084830 , with a significant p-value of $0.004945 < 0.05$. This value means that for any increase of the writing score by one point, the overall success mean score increased by 0.084830 points. This seems realistic.

The R package 'Relaimpo' was used to rank the independent variables and determine the relevance of the predictors. The most influential independent variables detected were:

1. Vocabulary with 43.34%
2. Writing with 30.07%
3. Stage with 10.83%
4. Grammar with 10.60%
5. Time in the UK with 5.14%

The sixth model of linear regression included vocabulary, grammar, interview, writing, listening, stage 2 and stage 3. The significant variables to the overall success in the sixth regression model were vocabulary (p-value 0.00391 **) and writing (p-value 0.01760 *).

When the categorical variables were used as predictors, R used one of the levels as the reference. That is why stage 1 was missing because it was used as a reference for 'stage'. The coefficients of stage 2 and stage 3, -0.10991 and 0.01712 , implied that given all other variables were the same, then a participant was expected to have an overall success mean score at stage 2 0.10991 points lower than at stage 1, and an Overall success mean score at stage 3 0.01712 points higher than that at stage 1. Even though

this result was low compared with the other models, it is realistic. The overall p-value of the model was 3.16×10^{-5} , which is less than the critical value of 0.05. The *R*-value of the model was 0.7329, which means that the variance of the overall success mean score was explained by 73.9% of the variance of the independent variables. Below is the interpretation of the coefficient of each variable detected in the model:

1. Vocabulary had a slightly positive coefficient of 0.12049, with a significant p-value of $0.00391 < 0.05$. This value means that for any increase of the vocabulary score by one point, the overall success mean score increased by 0.12049 points. This seems realistic.
2. Grammar had a slightly negative coefficient of -0.05206 , with a statistically insignificant p-value of $0.78043 > 0.05$. This means that when the grammar score increased by one point, there was a decrease by 0.01461 points in the overall success mean score. This seemed realistic, but the p-value suggested that it is statistically insignificant.
3. Interview had a slightly positive score, 0.04376, with a statistically insignificant p-value of $0.36315 > 0.05$. This value means that for any increase of the interview score by one point, the overall success mean score increased by 0.04376 points.
4. Writing had a slightly positive score, 0.07287, with a significant p-value of $0.01760 < 0.05$. This value means that for any increase of the writing score by one point, the overall success mean score increased by 0.07287 points.
5. Listening had a slightly positive score of 0.02476, with a statistically insignificant p-value of $0.68277 > 0.05$. This value means that for any increase in the listening score by one point, the overall success mean score increased by 0.02476 points.

The R package 'Relaimpo' was used to rank the independent variables and determine the relevance of the predictors. The most influential independent variables detected were:

1. Vocabulary with 33.33%
2. Writing with 23.88%
3. Interview with 15.30%
4. Listening with 12.68%
5. Stage with 7.43%
6. Grammar with 7.40%

All these models indicate the following:

1. The time spent in the UK has to be used as a predictor (the sixth model was unrealistic without it).

2. Stage can be kept as a factor.
3. Vocabulary and writing had statistically significant values in all models and have been identified as the best predictors. The rest of the linguistic variables were dependent on the model, but still decent predictors.

8.2 Univariate Linear Models of Saudi and Chinese Participants' Overall Success in the DCT and Role Plays

The purpose of carrying out the linear models was to verify the improvement of the participants' language skills over the three stages of data collection. In these regression tests, 'stage' was used either as a second variable or as a factor. The overall success was compared to the following independent variables:

1. Time in the UK: the number of days since the participant arrived in the UK to the date he was interviewed for the respective stage;

Linguistic variables (proficiency tests):

2. Vocabulary: scores with minimum of 3.5 and maximum of 12.0;
3. Grammar: scores with minimum of 9.25 and maximum of 18.75;
4. Interview: scores with minimum of 5.0 and maximum of 15.0;
5. Writing: scores with minimum of 6.0 and maximum of 19.0;
6. Listening: scores with minimum of 10.75 and maximum of 23.0;

Proficiency: the sum of all the linguistic variables.

Figure 8.1 shows that in the linear model proficiency was used as an independent variable and the means of overall success as dependent variable. In the plot which fits the simple regression model for all data and overall success versus proficiency, all points were coloured as explained in the figure.

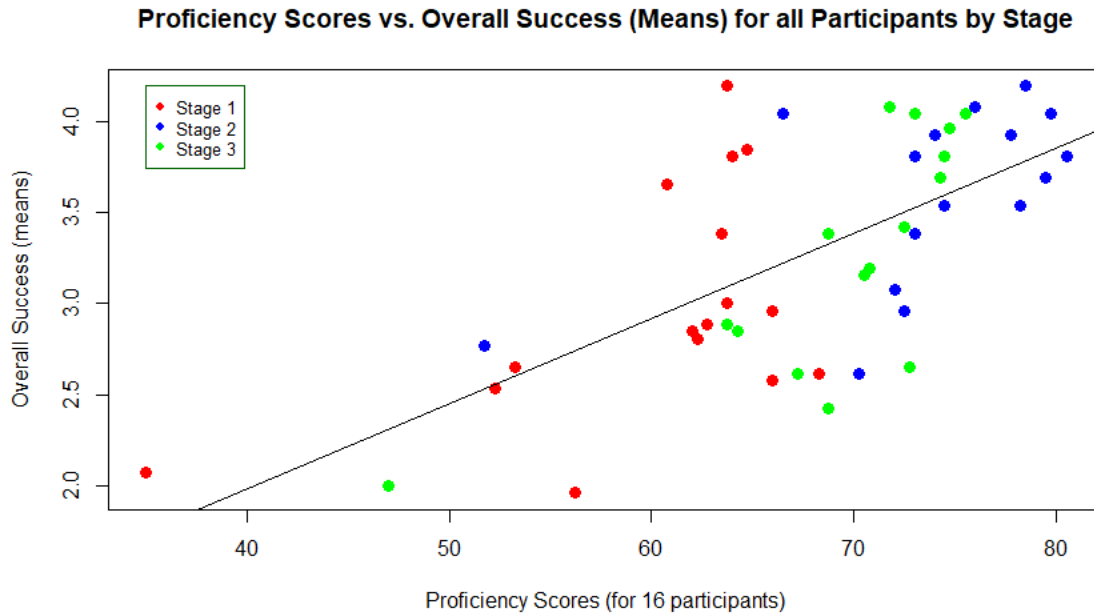


Figure 8.1: Proficiency scores vs. means of overall success for all participants by stages

Figure 8.1 and Table 8.1 show the spread of the data for every stage, together with the model's regression line, in order to indicate which of the points are better clustered (stage 2 data in this case) in reference to the development occurrence. The mean and the standard deviation at every stage were calculated to consider the means of the overall success scores. Table 8.1 indicates that the participants' overall success improved due to the influence of proficiency through the three stages. The highest rate of standard deviation occurred at stage 1 which had more variance of overall success compared to stages 2 and 3.

Table 8.1: Proficiency vs. mean and standard deviation of overall success at every stage

Stage	Mean	Standard deviation
1	60.28	8.08
2	69.37	6.94
3	73.60	6.99

The two parameters (mean and standard deviation) were shown to be consistent with an increase of the overall success (means) score.

As for proficiency, Figure 8.2 displays the consistency of the three parameters (mean, standard deviation, and gradient of regression line) with an increase of the proficiency score as the means of overall success and proficiency increased at every stage. To illustrate this, the regression models were plotted by using the three stages (in three different colours), with the distribution of the regression lines by stage.

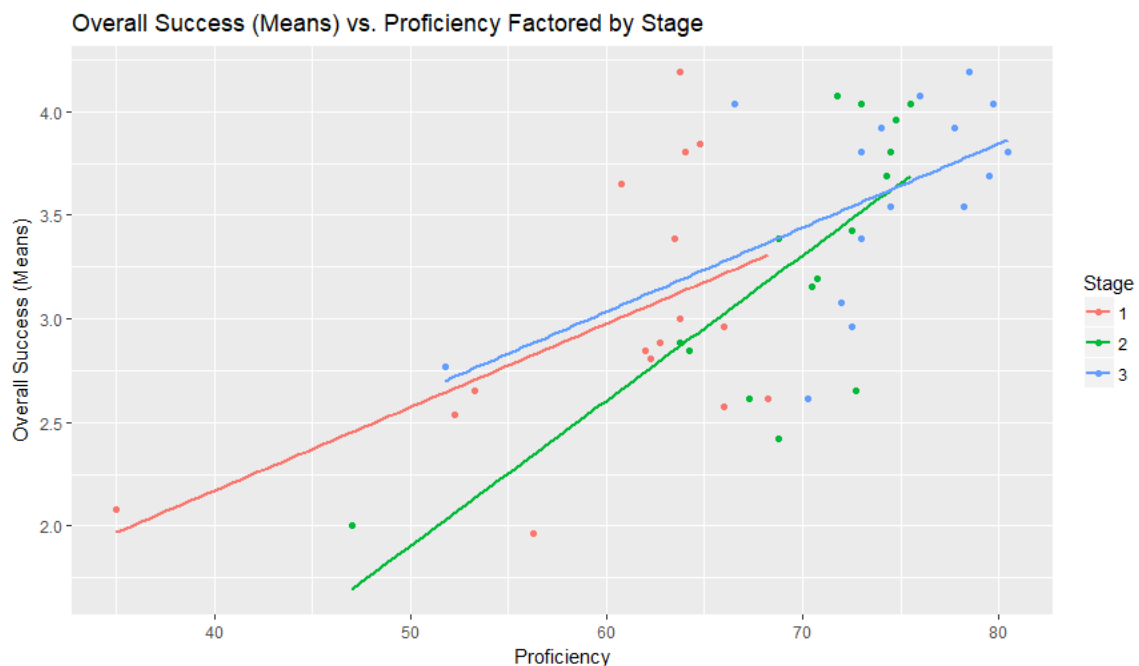


Figure 8.2: Means of overall success vs. proficiency factored by stage

In Figure 8.3, looking at the parameters (mean, standard deviation, and gradient of regression line), it can be seen that when the participants improved their proficiency scores, their overall success (means) scores would increase. However, there was a need to study the regression models in a more in-depth way. In the regression model overall success (means) versus proficiency score, when adding 'stage' as an independent variable or a factor, Figure 8.3, plotting overall success (means) scores against the proficiency scores using 'stage' as a factor indicates, in that each stage colour category shows a linear relationship between the proficiency scores and the overall success (means) scores, potentially with different gradients and/or intercepts.

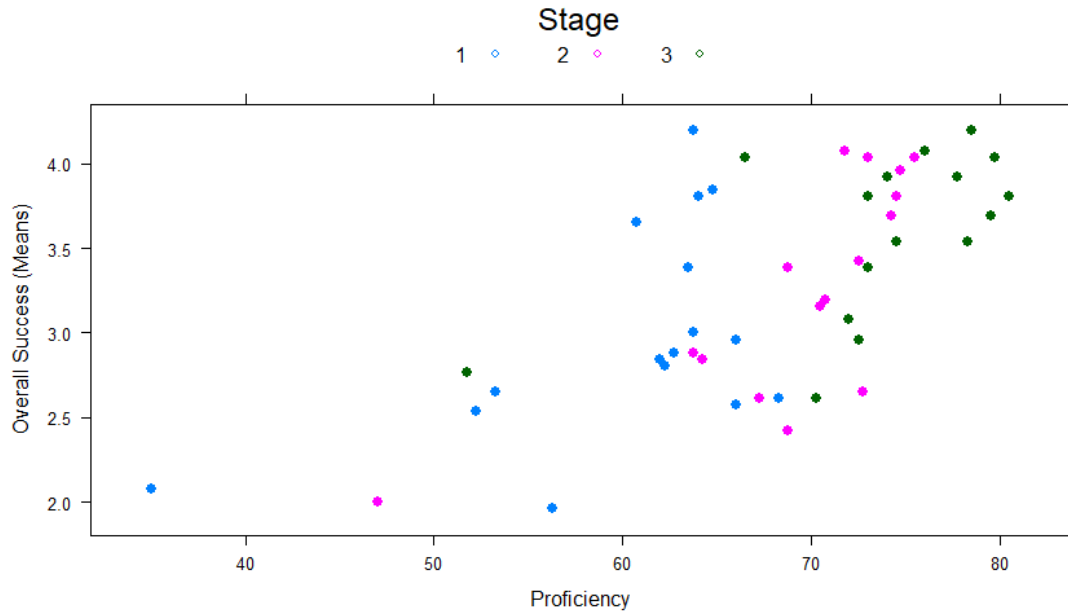


Figure 8.3: Stage vs. proficiency

As to the simple regression model of proficiency with 'stage' as an independent variable (see Figure 8.4), the p-value of the model was $3.909 * 10^{-6} < 0.05$, very little, so it is statistically significant. The coefficient of proficiency was 0.049228. This means that for each extra point in proficiency, the means of overall score increased by 0.05 points. The p-value of the proficiency coefficient was $7.5 * 10^{-6} < 0.05$, so statistically significant. The R-value of the model was 0.6822, which means that the overall success (means) scores variance was explained by 68.22% of the proficiency scores variance, given the effect of stages. A comparison of the coefficients of stage 2 and stage 3 to stage 1 indicates that the overall success scores dropped by 0.174 points at stage 2, and then dropped by 0.058 at stage 3, compared to stage 1. Therefore, 'stage' influences the intercept or constant of the model, and not the gradient. When the factor variable was used as an independent variable in the regression, it allowed a different intercept at every level of the factor. The gradient of each regression line (stages 1 to 3) was the same, 0.05. The gradient was the same for all the lines at every stage, i.e. 0.05. Given that proficiency has the same gradient, the lines can indicate which scores are higher: stage 2 < stage 3 < stage 1. The model detected stage-specific intercepts, and the gradient was the same for proficiency, 0.05.

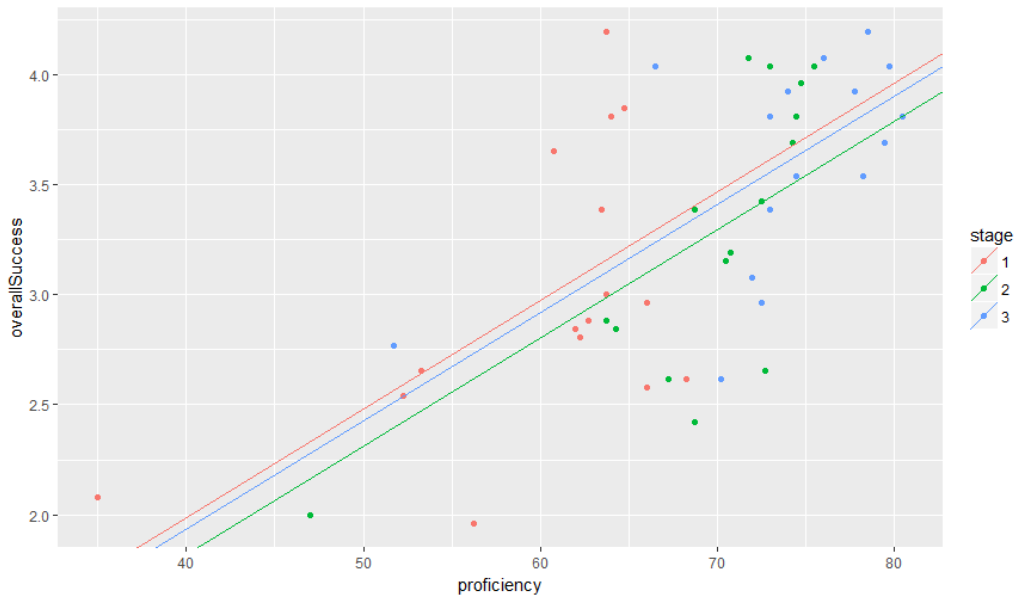


Figure 8.4: Fitting the linear model by stage

Figure 8.5 shows a simple regression model using the interaction `stage * proficiency` (stage as factor). In this case not only were there stage-specific intercepts, but also stage-specific gradients. The plot corresponds to the linear regression model, which indicates that the gradients are specific to the stage. The statistically significant p-value of this interaction model was $2.168 * 10^{-5} < 0.05$. The coefficient of proficiency was 0.0403185. This means that for each extra point in proficiency, the overall success (means) score increased by 0.04 points. The statistically significant p-value of the proficiency coefficient was $0.0117 < 0.05$. The R-value of the model was 0.6994, which means that the overall success (means) scores variance was explained by 69.99% of the proficiency scores variance, given the effect of stages (see figure 8.6).

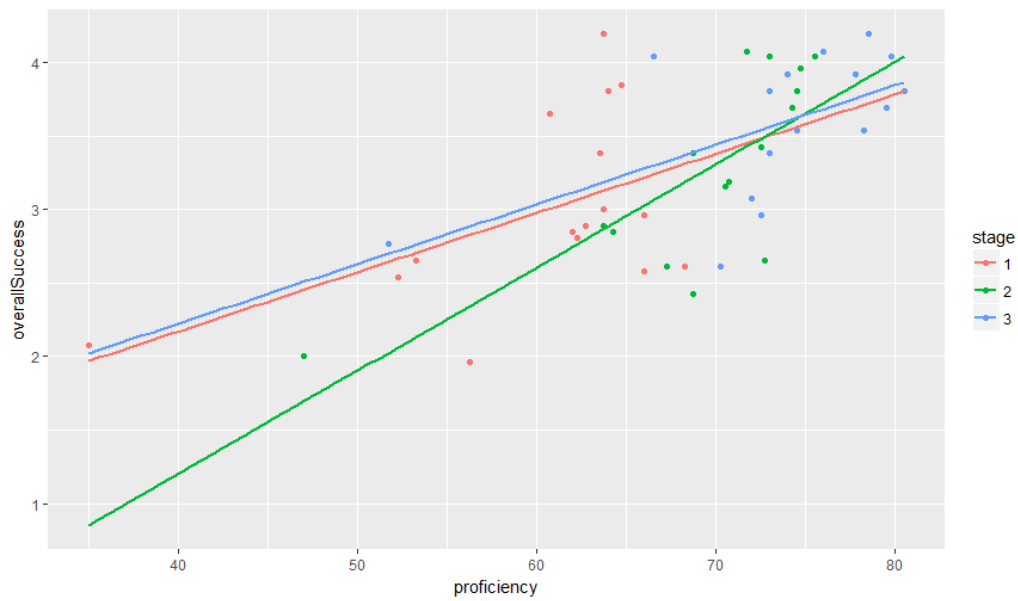


Figure 8.5: Simple regression model using the interaction stage * proficiency (stage as factor)

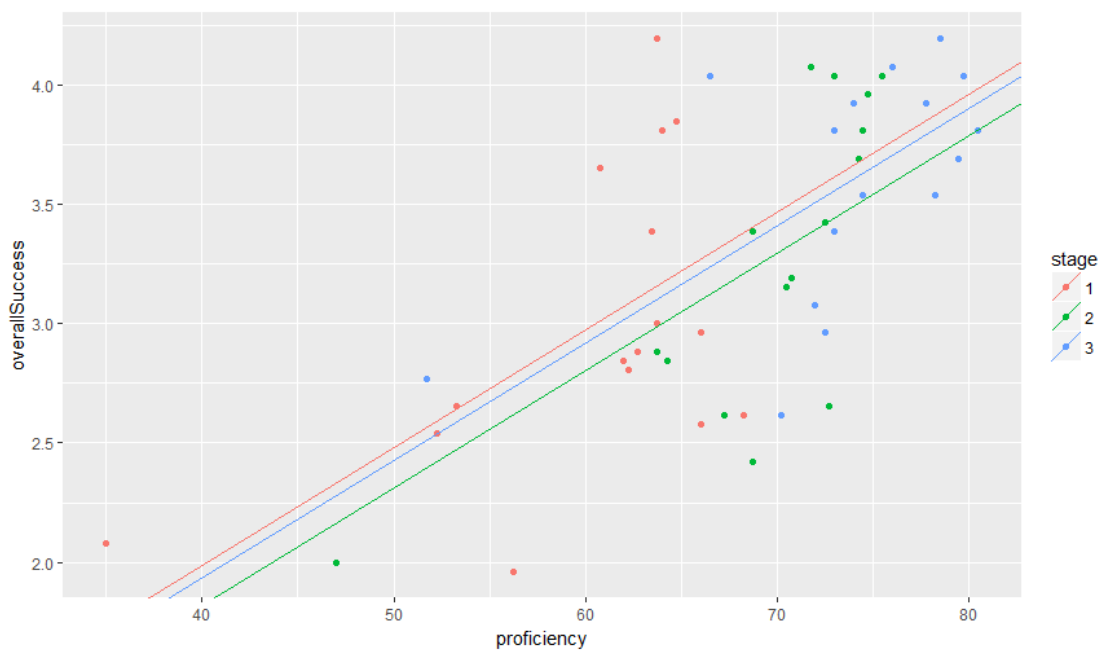
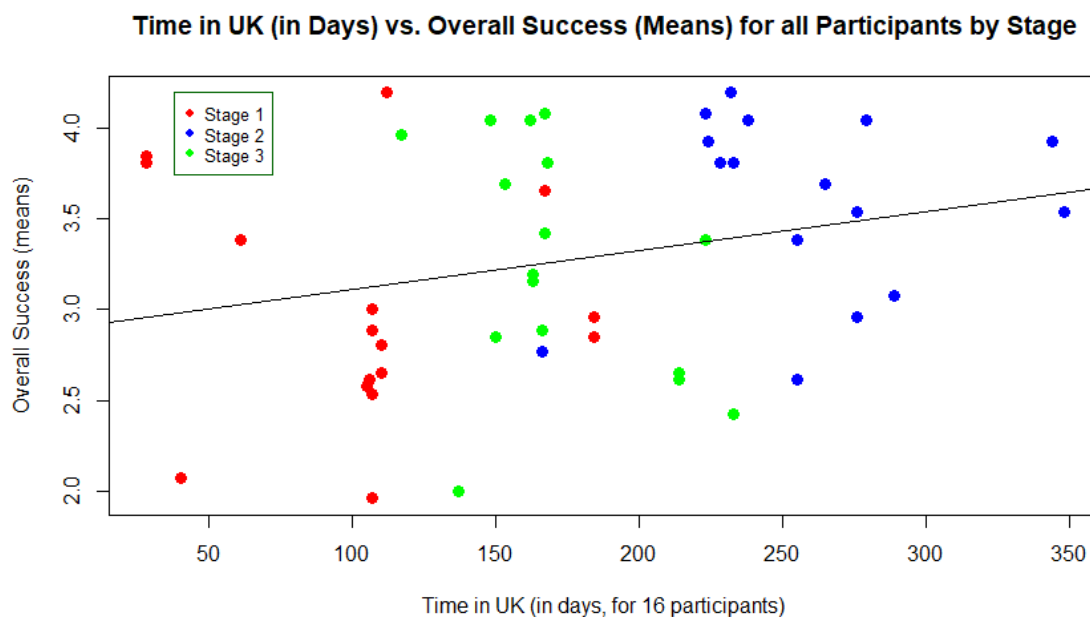


Figure 8.6: The plot of the overall success mean scores against proficiency

As to the linear regression model of overall success against time in the UK using 'stage' as an independent variable or a factor, the linear model included the time in the UK score as the independent variable and the means of overall success as a dependent variable (see Figure 8.7).



Figures 8.7: Time in the UK (in days) vs. means of overall success for all participants by stage

Table 8.2: Time in the UK vs. mean and standard deviation of overall success by stage

Stage	Mean	Standard deviation
1	103.93	47.91
2	171.56	32.53
3	258.18	45.50

These two parameters (mean and standard deviation) seemed to be consistent with an increase of the overall success (means) score. They seemed to be consistent with an increase in the number of days spent in the UK. The means of both overall success and time in the UK were increasing with every stage (see Table 8.2). Table 8.2 shows the participants' overall success improved over the three stages because of the influence of time in the UK. The highest rate of standard deviation occurred at stage 1 which had more variance of overall success compared to the other two stages. The regression models were plotted by using the three stages in separate colours in order to distribute the regression lines by stage. As shown in Figure 8.8, the number of days at stage 1 and stage 2 had a negative gradient. That is, the participants who spent less time in the UK did better on the mean scores of the overall success

scores. However, stage 3 was different. Looking at the parameters (mean, standard deviation, and gradient of regression line) when one can detect that the participants spent more time in UK, their mean scores of overall success would be increased.

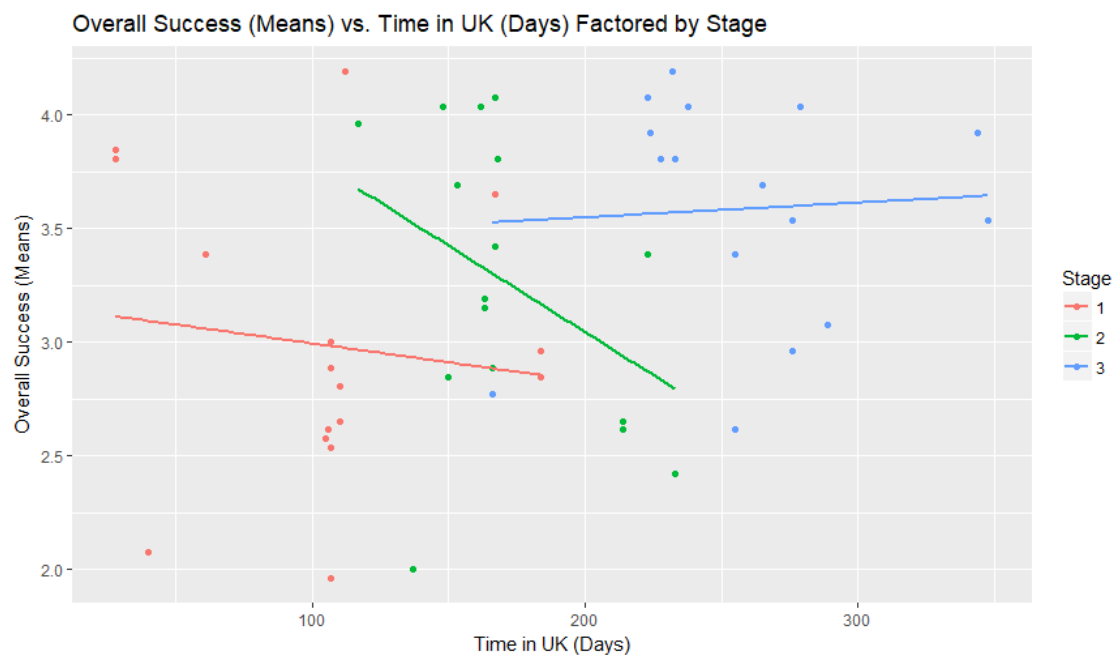


Figure 8.8: Means of overall success vs. time in the UK factored by stage

The regression model of overall success (means) versus Time in the UK was conducted by adding 'stage' as an independent variable or a factor. The means of overall success were plotted against the time in the UK, as shown in Figure 8.9. Figure 8.9 indicates that each stage colour category shows a roughly linear relationship between the time in the UK (in days) and means of overall success scores, potentially with different gradients and/or intercepts.

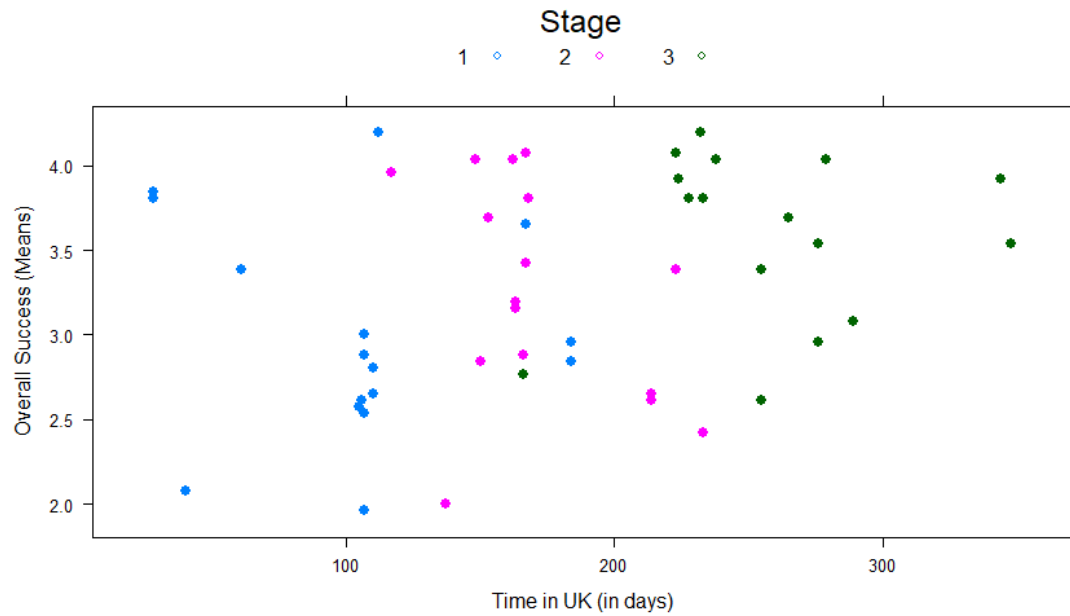


Figure 8.9: Means of overall success vs. time in the UK

A simple regression model was carried out using 'stage' and 'time in the UK' as Independent variables. It shows that the statistically significant p-value was $0.04188 < 0.05$. The coefficient of 'time in the UK' was -0.001936 . This means that for each extra day spent in UK, the overall score (means) decreased by 0.002 points, as shown in Figure 8.10. The statistically insignificant p-value of the time in the UK coefficient was $0.3600 > 0.05$.

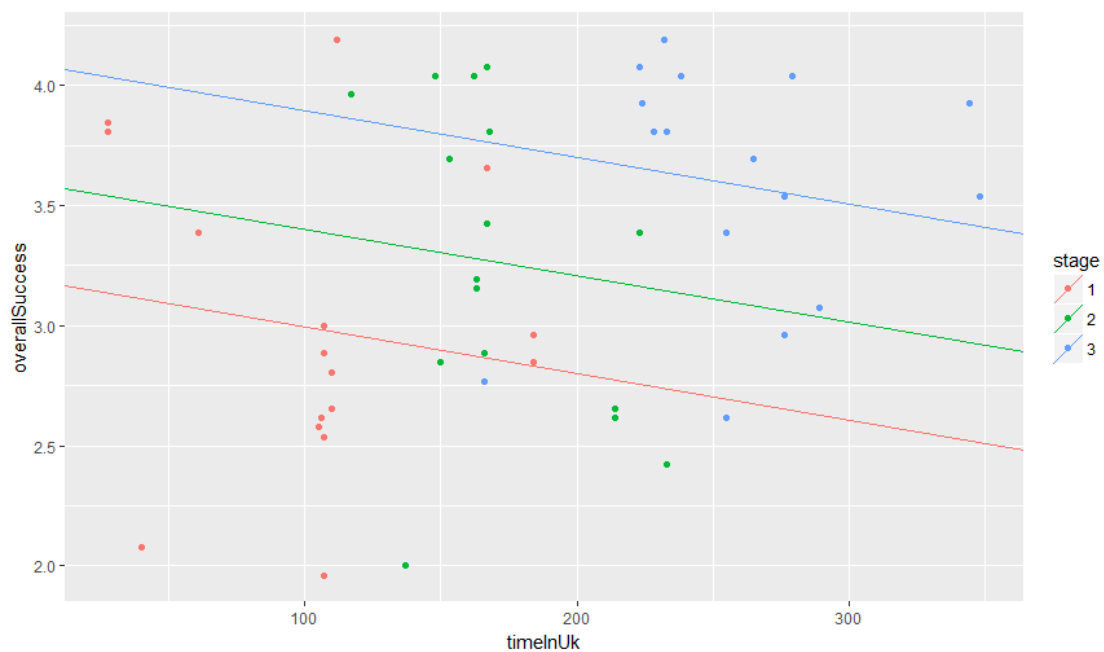


Figure 8.10: Fitting the regression models by each stage

Figure 8.11 indicates that 'stage' influenced the intercept of the model and not the gradient. When a factor variable was used as an independent variable in a regression, it allowed a different intercept at every level of the factor. The gradient of each regression line (stages 1 to 3) was the same, -0.002 . The gradient was the same for all the lines at every stage, -0.002 , i.e. given that time in the UK had the same gradient, the lines could indicate which scores are higher: $\text{stage 1} < \text{stage 2} < \text{stage 3}$. The model gives stage-specific intercepts, with the gradient being the same for 'time in the UK', -0.002 . A simple regression model was conducted by using interaction $\text{stage} * \text{time in the UK}$ (stage as factor). In this case there were both stage-specific intercepts and stage-specific gradients. The model indicates that the marginally statistically insignificant p-value of the model was $0.07373 > 0.05$. The coefficient of 'time in the UK' was -0.001657 . This means that for each extra day in the UK, the overall success (means) score decreased by 0.002 points. The statistically insignificant p-value of the time in the UK coefficient was $0.609 > 0.05$. The R-value of the model was 0.4545, which means that the overall success (means) scores variance was explained by 45.45% of the time in the UK variance, given the effect of stages.

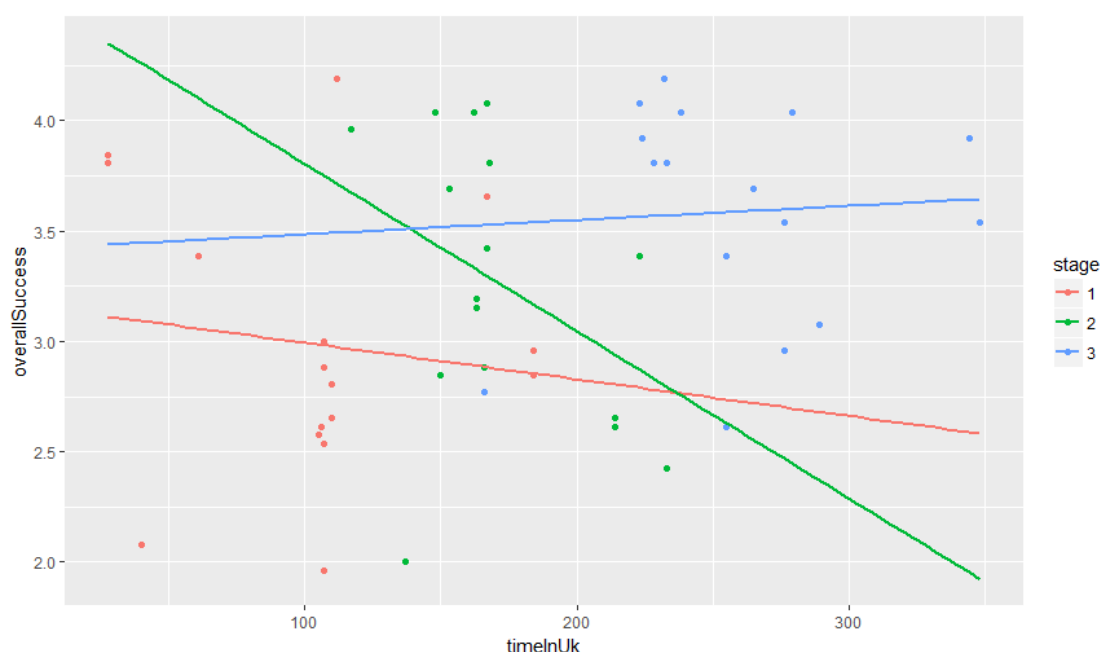


Figure 8.11: Simple regression model using interaction $\text{stage} * \text{time in the UK}$ (stage as factor)

As to the regression model of overall success against vocabulary using 'stage' as an independent variable or a factor, the linear model included the vocabulary score as the

independent variable and the means of overall success as an dependent variable, as shown in Figure 8.12. For vocabulary two parameters (mean and standard deviation) are consistent with an increase of the overall success (means) score (see Table 8.3). Table 8.3 shows that the participants' overall success improved over the three stages because of the influence of the vocabulary score. The highest rate of standard deviation was detected at stage 3 which had more variance of overall success compared to stages 1 and 2.

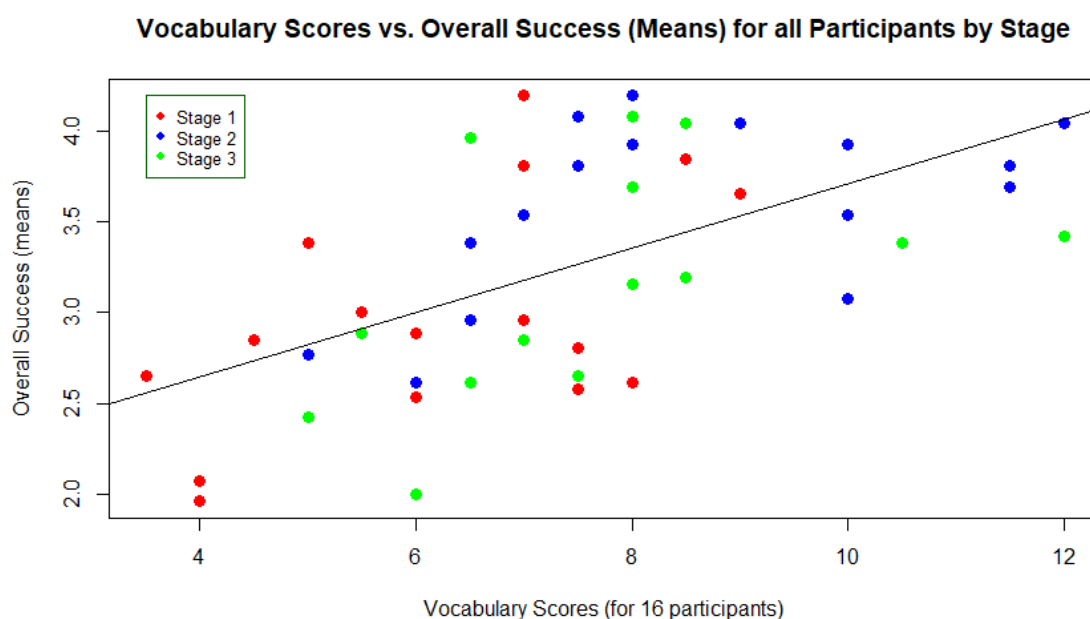


Figure 8.12: Vocabulary vs. means of overall success for all participants by stage

Table 8.3: Vocabulary vs. mean and standard deviation of overall success by stage

Stage	Mean	Standard deviation
1	6.25	1.70
2	8.00	2.01
3	8.50	2.13

As shown in Table 8.3, while these two parameters (means and standard deviation) are consistent with an increase of the overall success (means) score, the means of both overall success and vocabulary increased with every stage. This had to be tested statistically, so

regression models were plotted by using the three stages (see Figure 8.13) and to distribute the regression lines by stage.

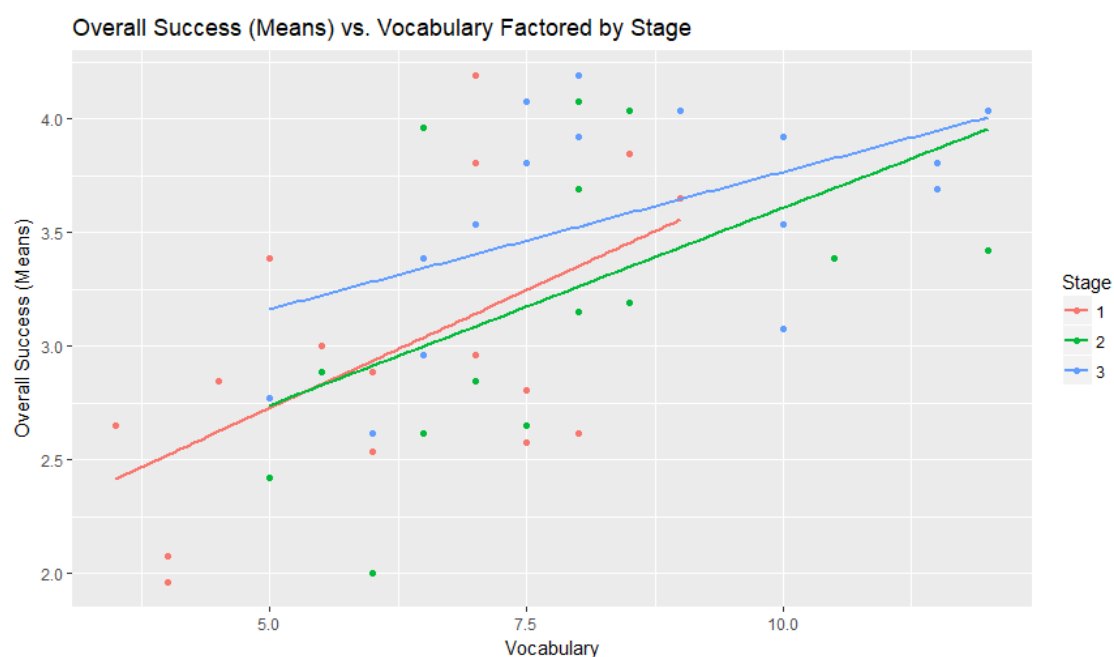


Figure 8.13: Means of overall success vs. vocabulary factored by stage

Looking at the parameters (mean, standard deviation, and gradient of regression line) one can see that provided the participants improved their vocabulary, their mean scores of overall success increase. However, the regression models had to be studied in more depth. The regression model of overall success (means) versus vocabulary was conducted by adding 'stage' as an independent variable or a factor. Figure 8.14 indicates that each stage category shows a roughly linear relationship between vocabulary and means of overall success scores, potentially with different gradients and/or intercepts.

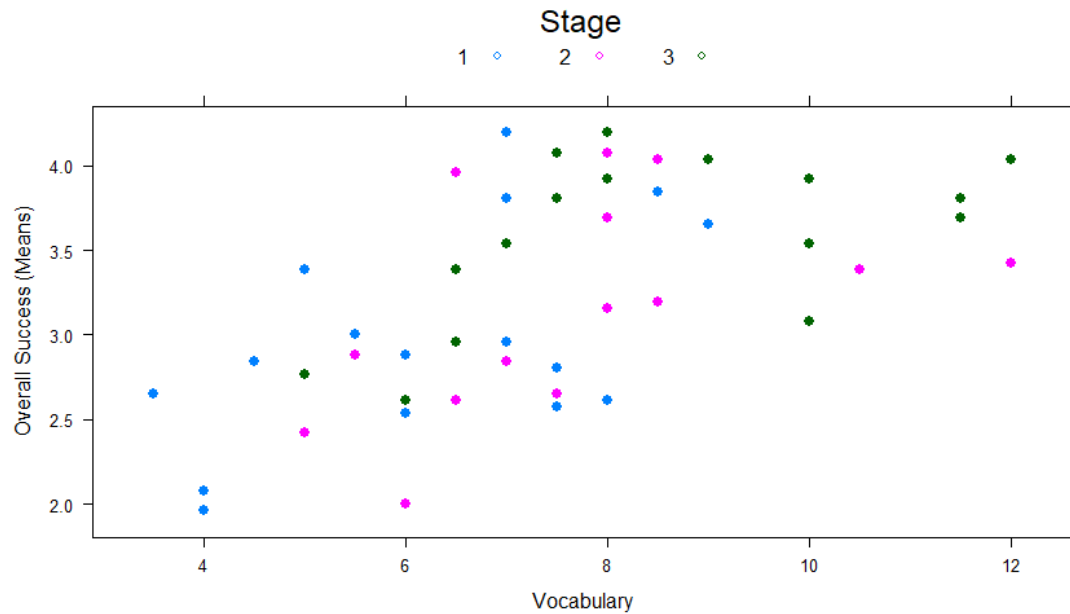


Figure 8.14: Means of overall success vs. vocabulary

A simple regression model was carried out using both 'vocabulary' and 'stage' as independent variables. It shows that was statistically significant p-value of the model at $6.244 \times 10^{-5} < 0.05$. The coefficient of vocabulary was 0.161461. This means that for each extra point on the vocabulary test, the overall score (means) increased by 0.161 points. The statistically significant p-value of the vocabulary coefficient was $0.000146 < 0.05$. The R-value of the model was 0.6257, which means that the overall success (means) score variance was explained by 62.57% of the vocabulary's variance, given the effect of stages (see Figure 8.15). The 'stage' influenced the intercept of the model and not the gradient. When a factor variable was used as an independent variable in a regression, it allowed a different intercept at every level of the factor. The gradient of each regression line (stages 1 to 3) was the same, 0.161. The gradient was the same for all lines at every stage 0.161., given that 'vocabulary' had the same gradient, the lines could indicate which scores are higher: stage 1 < stage 2 < stage 3. The model detected stage-specific intercepts, and the gradient was the same for vocabulary namely, 0.161.

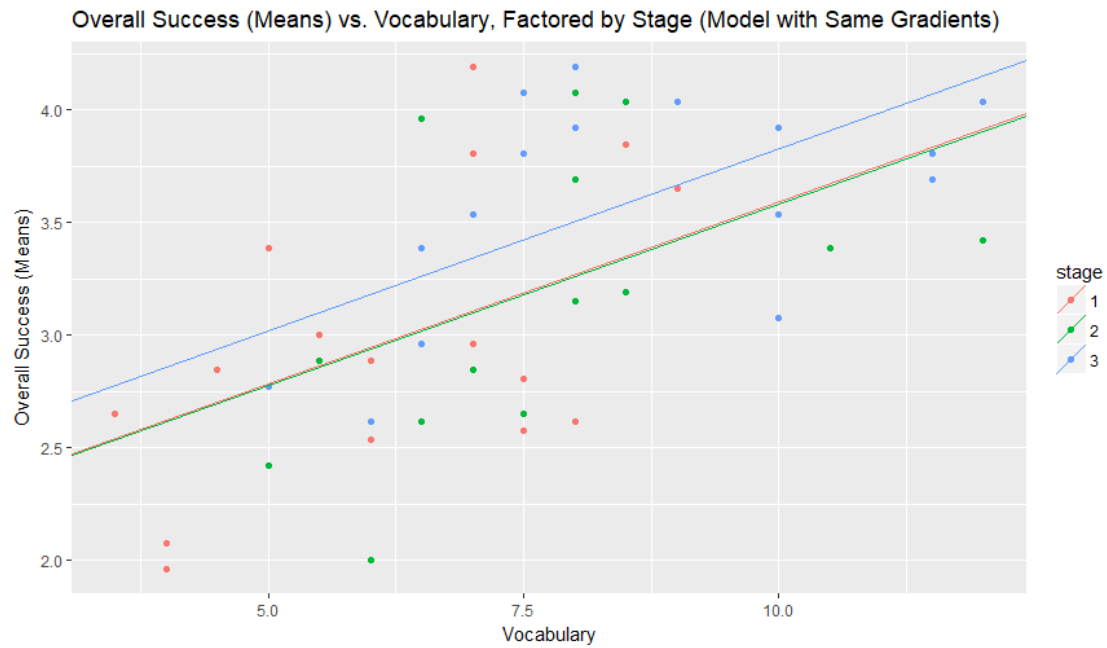


Figure 8.15: Fitting the regression models by each stage

A simple regression model was conducted by using interaction stage * vocabulary (stage as factor). Figure 8.16 indicates that in this case there were both stage-specific intercepts and stage-specific gradients.

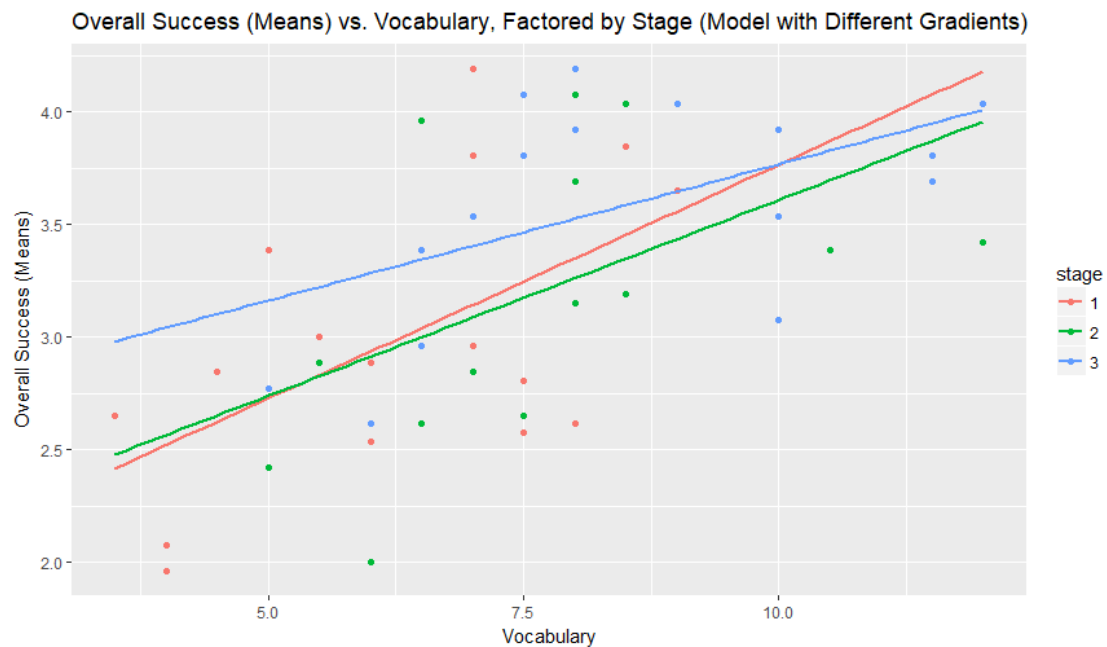


Figure 8.16: A simple regression model using interaction stage * vocabulary (stage as factor)

The simple regression model indicates that a statistically significant p -value of the model was $0.0004426 < 0.05$. The coefficient of vocabulary was 0.20756 . This means that for each point of the vocabulary score, the overall success (means) score increased by 0.208 points. A statistically significant p -value of the vocabulary coefficient was $0.01148 < 0.05$. The R -value of the model was 0.6347 , which means that the overall success (means) scores variance was explained by 63.47% of the vocabulary variance, given the effect of the stages. A regression model of overall success against grammar using 'stage' as an independent variable or a factor was carried start with a linear model, with the grammar score as an independent variable and the overall success (means) as a dependent variable. (See figure 8.17).

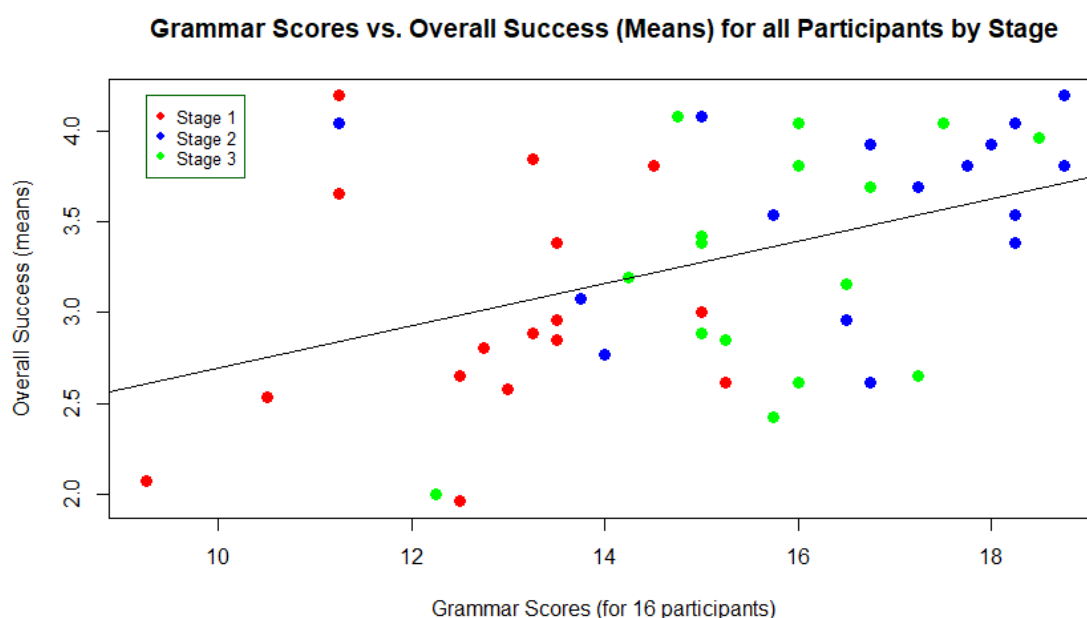


Figure 8.17: Grammar vs. means of overall success for all participants by stage

Table 8.4 indicates that the participants' overall success improved over the three stages because of the influence of the grammar score. The highest rate of standard deviation was detected at stage 3 which had more variance of overall success compared to stages 1 and 2. Then, the regression models were plotted by using the three stages in different colours and to distribute the regression lines by stage (see Figure 8.18).

Table 8.4: Grammar vs. mean and standard deviation of overall success by stage

Stage	Mean	Standard deviation
1	12.79	1.60
2	15.73	1.46
3	16.56	2.12

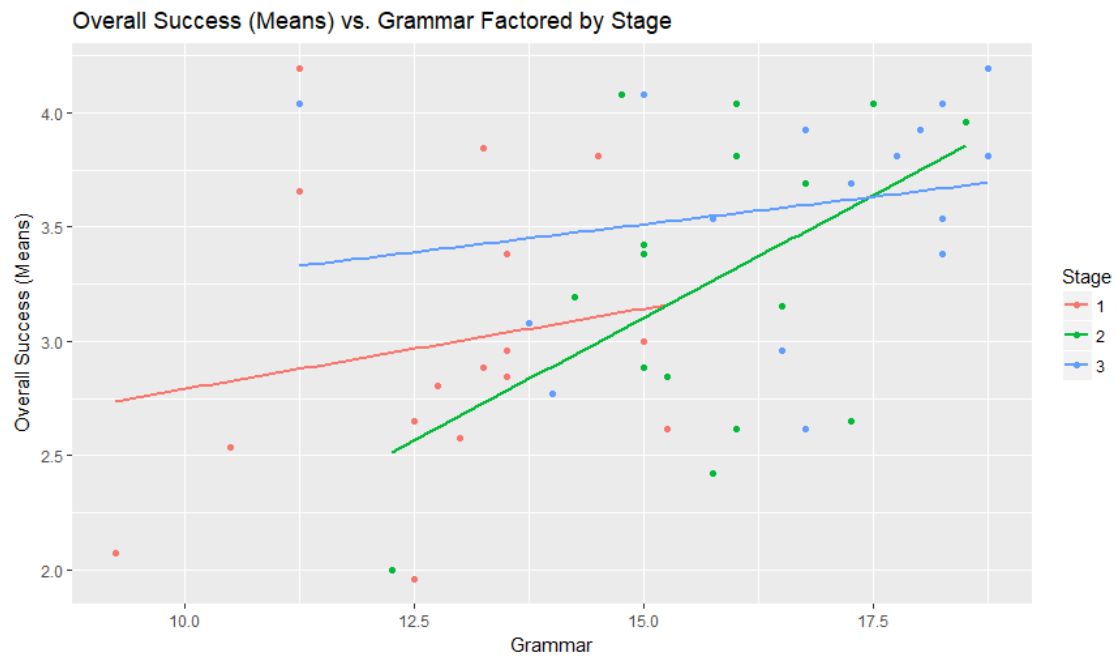


Figure 8.18: Means of overall success vs. grammar factored by stage

Looking at the parameters (mean, standard deviation, and gradient of regression line) it can be seen that when the participants improve their grammar scores, their mean scores of overall success seemed to increase. A regression model for overall success (means) versus grammar was conducted by adding 'stage' as a Factor. The means of overall success were plotted against grammar by using 'stage' as a factor, as shown in Figure 8.19. Figure 8.19 indicates that each stage category shows a roughly linear relationship between grammar and means of overall success scores, potentially with different gradients and/or intercepts.

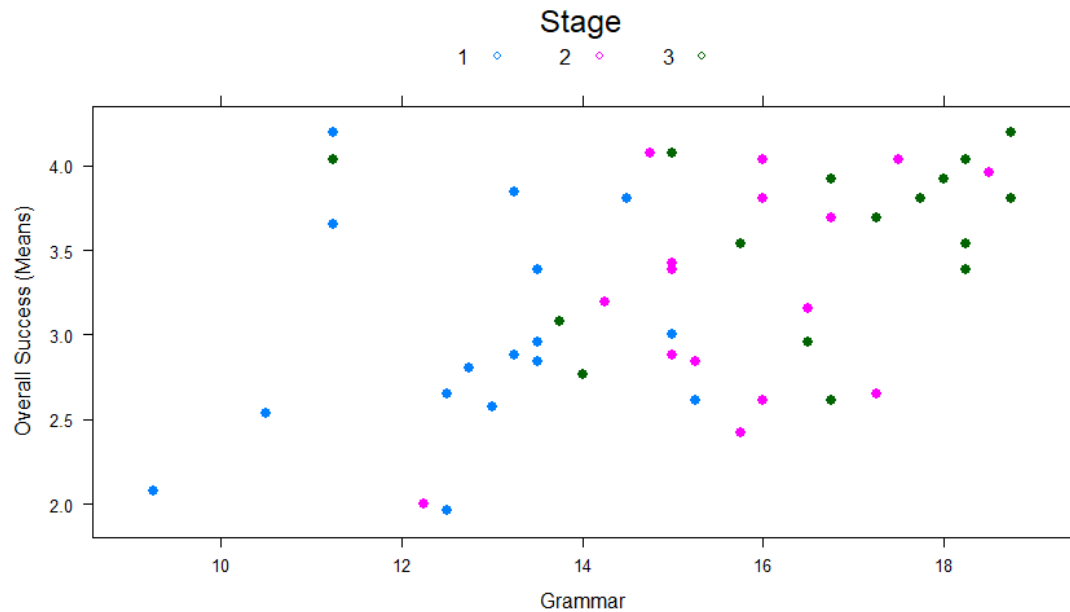


Figure 8.19: Means of overall success vs. grammar

A simple regression model was carried out using 'stage' and 'grammar' as independent variables. The regression model shows that the statistically significant p-value of the model was $0.01279 < 0.05$. The coefficient of grammar was 0.092927 . This means that for each extra point on the grammar test, the overall score (means) increased by 0.093 points. The statistically significant p-value of the grammar coefficient was $0.06585 > 0.05$. The R-value of the model was 0.6816 , which means that the overall success (means) scores variance was explained by 68.16% of the grammar's variance (see Figure 8.20).

Figure 8.21 indicates that stage influenced the intercept of the model and not the gradient. When a factor variable was used as an independent variable in a regression, it allowed a different intercept at every level of the factor. The gradient of each regression line (stages 1 to 3) was the same, namely 0.093 . The gradient was the same for all the lines at every stage, *that is* 0.093 . Given that grammar had the same gradient, the lines can indicate which scores are higher: stage 1 < stage 2 < stage 3. The model gives stage-specific intercepts, and the gradient was the same for grammar at 0.093 .

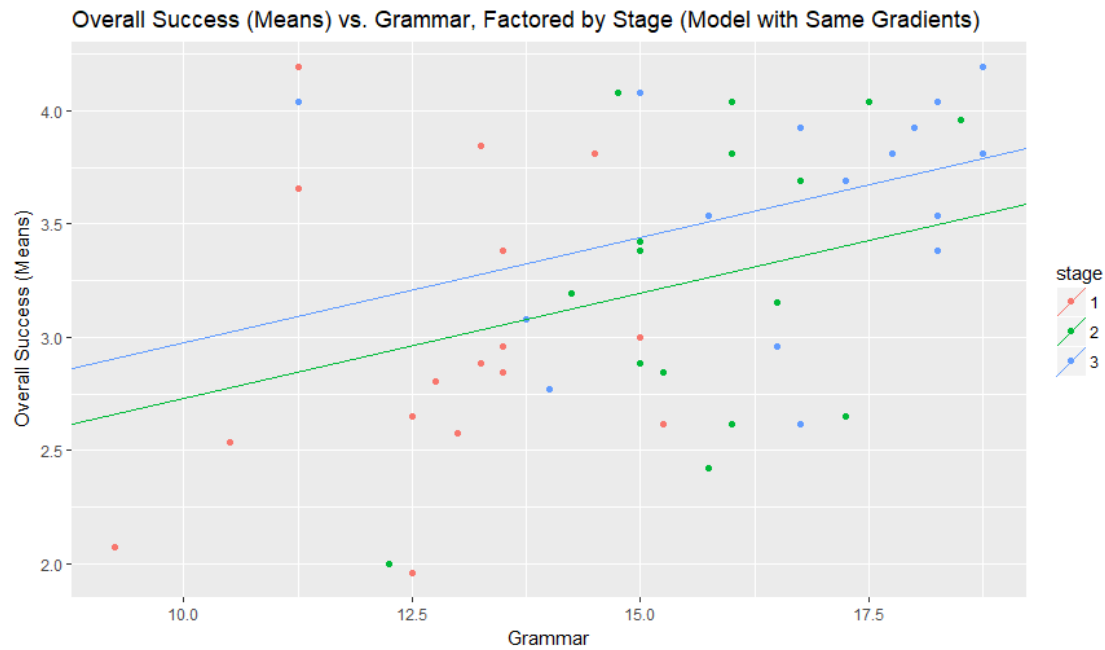


Figure 8.20: Fitting the regression models by each stage

Figure 8.21 depicts a simple regression model using interaction $\text{stage} * \text{grammar}$ (stage as factor). The regression model indicates that statistically insignificant p -value of the model was $0.02921 < 0.05$. The coefficient of grammar was 0.07036 . This means that for each extra point of the grammar score, the overall success (means) score increased by 0.07 points. The statistically insignificant p -value of the grammar coefficient was $0.4562 < 0.05$. The R -value of the model was 0.499 , which means that the overall success (means) scores variance was explained by 49.9% of the vocabulary variance.

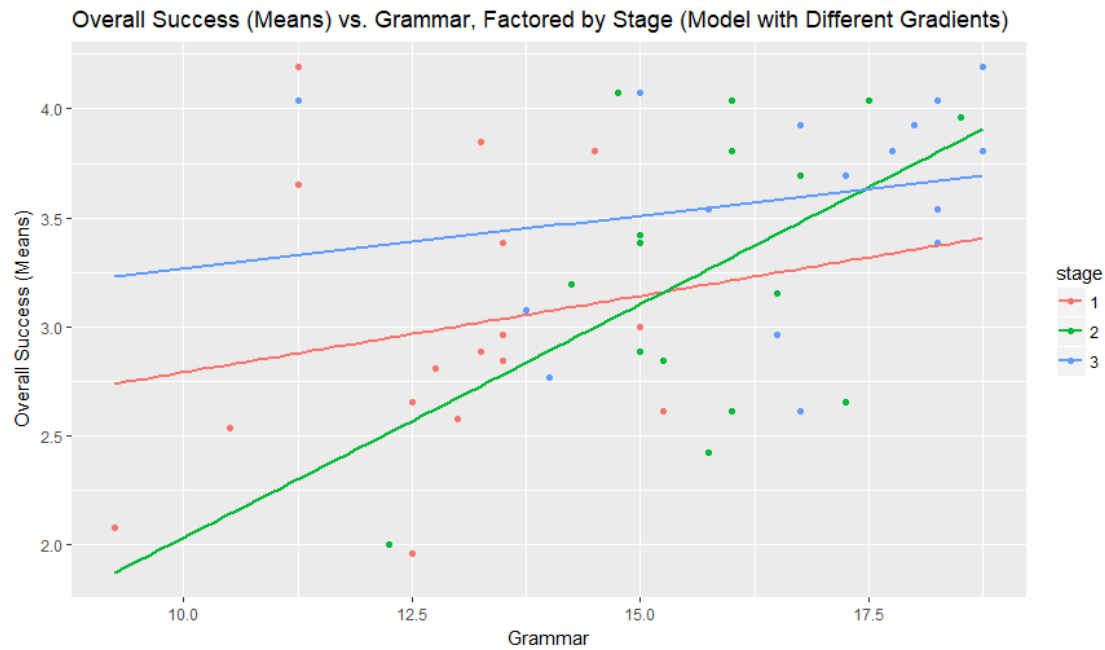


Figure 8.21: Simple regression model using interaction stage * grammar (stage as factor)

As to the regression model of overall success against interview using 'stage' as an independent variable or a factor, the linear model included the interview score as the independent variable and the means of overall success as a dependent variable (see Figure 8.22). The plot points using the three stages fitted the simple regression model for all the data, overall success versus interview. This was done to see the spread for every stage, together with the overall regression line, and to get an idea which of the points were better clustered (stage 2 data). Table 8.5 shows that the participants' overall success improved over the three stages because of the influence of the interview score. The highest rate of standard deviation was measured at stage 1 which had more variance of overall success compared to stages 2 and 3.

Table 8.5: Interview vs. mean and the standard deviation of overall success by stage

Stage	Mean	Standard deviation
1	11.18	2.19
2	11.75	1.94
3	12.50	2.12

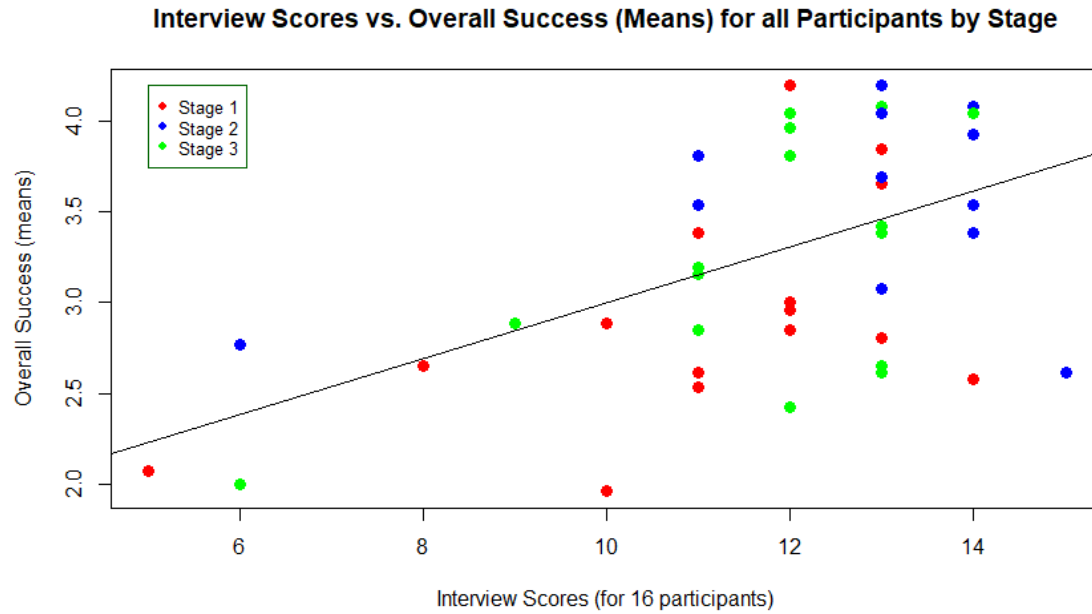


Figure 8.22: Interview vs. means of overall success for all participants by stage

Both overall success (means) and interview scores increased with every stage; which needed to be tested statistically by the linear regression. The regression models were plotted by using the three stages to distribute the regression lines by stage (see Figure 8.23). If the participants improves their interview scores, their overall success (means) scores should increase. This required, however, a further in-depth analysis of the regression models.

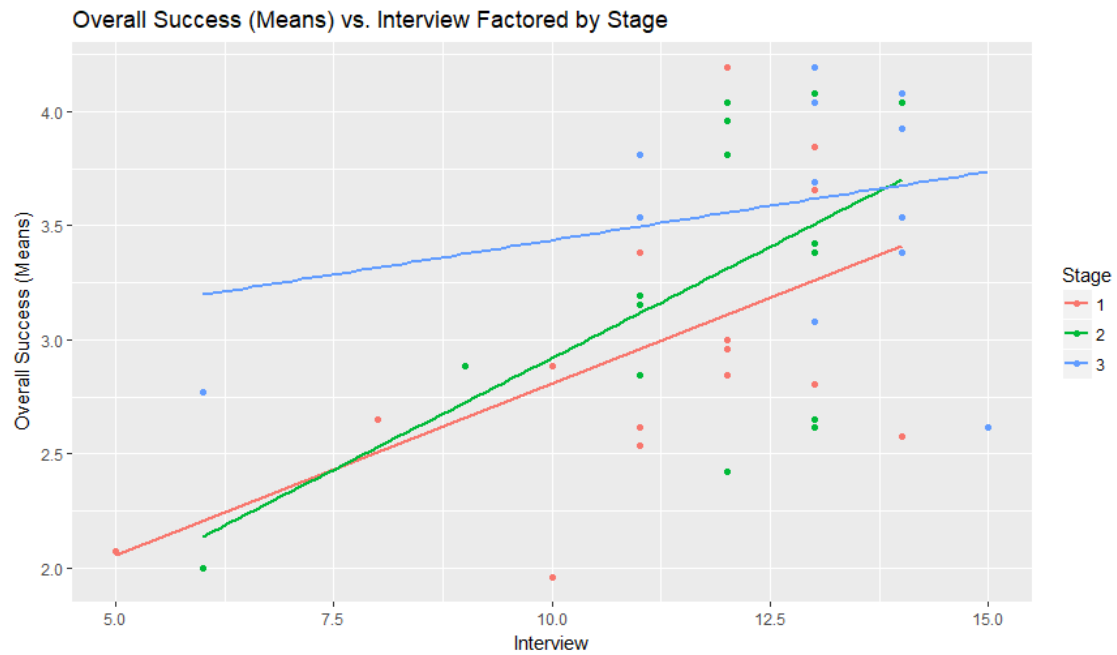


Figure 8.23: Means of overall success vs. interview factored by stage

A regression model overall success (Means) versus interview was conducted by adding 'stage' as an independent variable or a factor. The means of overall success were plotted against 'interview,' as shown in Figure 8.24. Figure 8.24 indicates that at each stage there was a roughly linear relationship between interview and means of overall success scores, potentially with different gradients and/or intercepts.

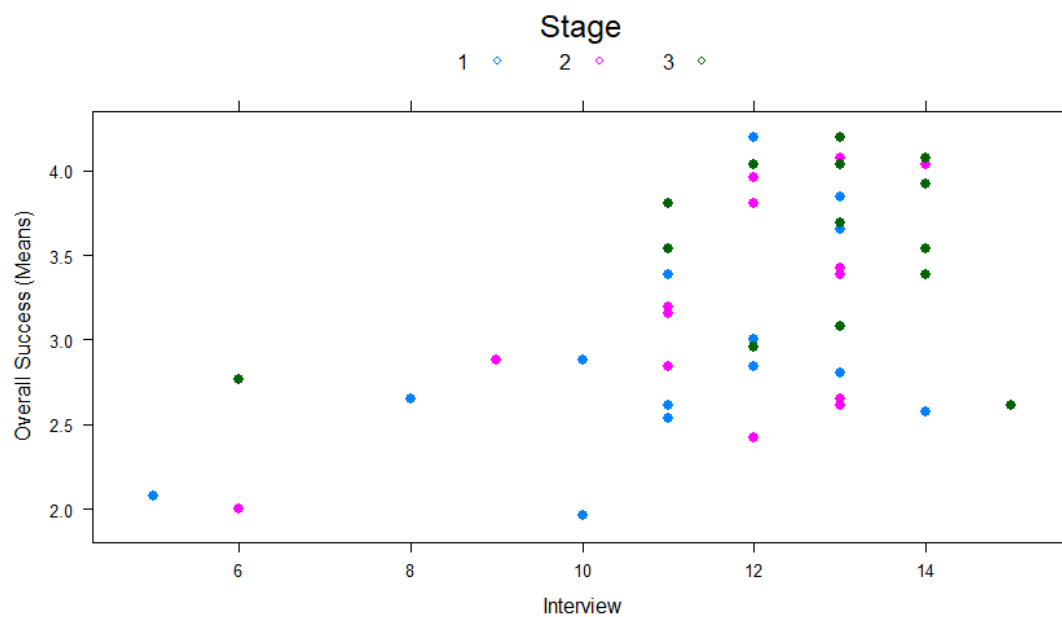


Figure 8.24: Means of overall success vs. interview

A simple regression model was carried out using 'stage' and 'interview' as independent variables. The regression model shows that a statistically significant p-value of the model was $0.0004027 < 0.05$. The coefficient of interview was 0.13231. This means that for each extra point on the interview test, the overall score (means) increased by 0.132 points. The statistically significant p-value of the interview coefficient was $0.00113 < 0.05$. The R-value of the model was 0.5793, which means that the overall success (means) scores variance was explained by 57.93% of the interview's variance (see Figure 8.25).

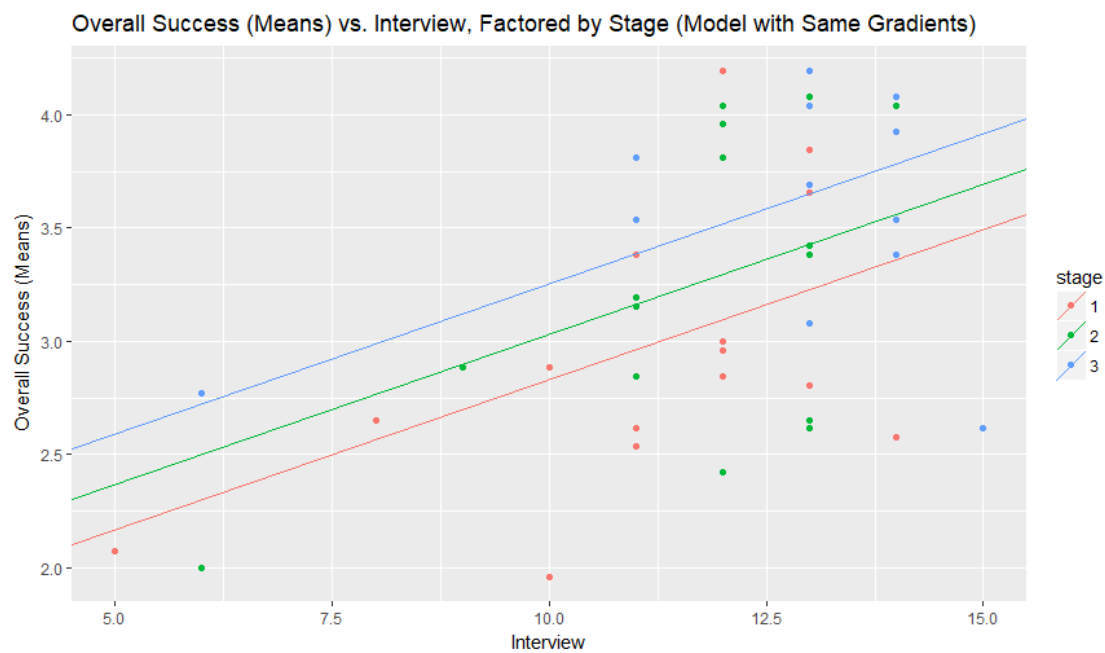


Figure 8.25: Fitting the regression models by each stage

Figure 8.26 displays a simple regression model using interaction stage * interview (stage as factor); detecting that stage influenced the intercept of the model and not the gradient. When a factor variable was used as an independent variable in a regression, it allowed a different intercept at every level of the factor. The gradient of each regression line (stage 1 to 3) was the same 0.132. The gradient was the same for all lines at every stage, namely 0.132: given that interview had the same gradient, the lines indicate which scores are higher: stage 1 < stage 2 < stage 3. The model detected stage-specific intercepts, and the gradient was the same for interview 0.132.

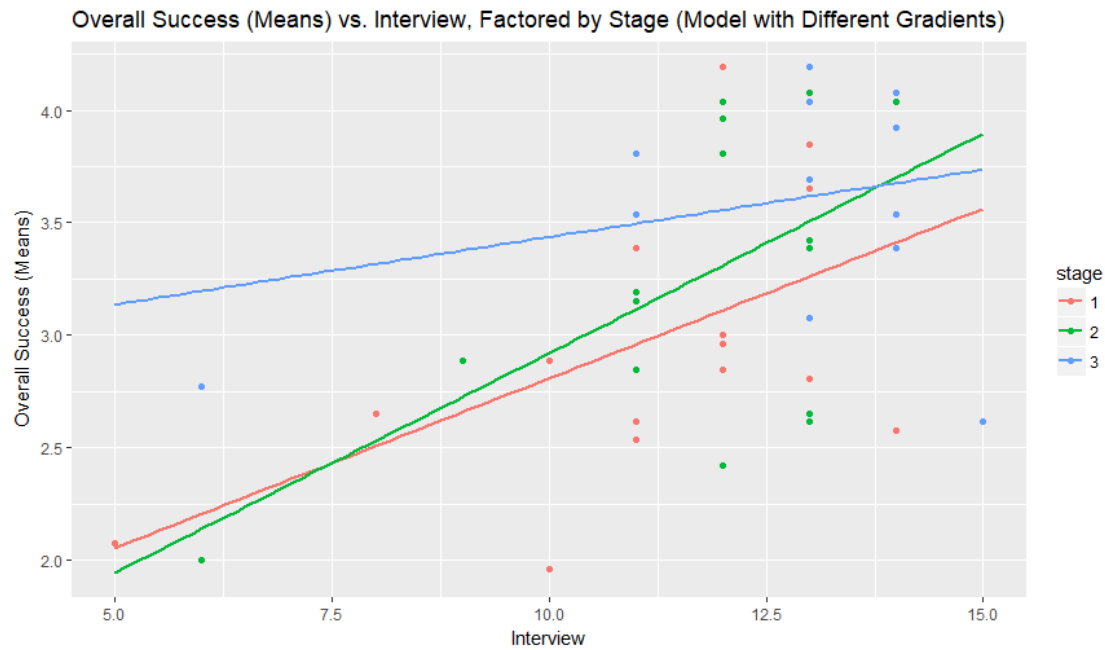


Figure 8.26: Overall success means vs. interview

The regression model indicates that the statistically significant p -value of the model was $0.001301 < 0.05$. The coefficient of interview was 0.151 . This means that for each extra point of the interview score, the overall success (means) score increased by 0.151 points. A statistically significant p -value of the interview coefficient was $0.0205 < 0.05$. The R -value of the model was 0.6064 , which means that the overall success (means) scores variance was explained by 60.64% of the interview variance.

As to the regression model of overall success against 'writing' using 'stage' as an independent variable or a factor, the linear model included the writing score as the independent variable and the means of overall success as a dependent variable (see Figure 8.27).

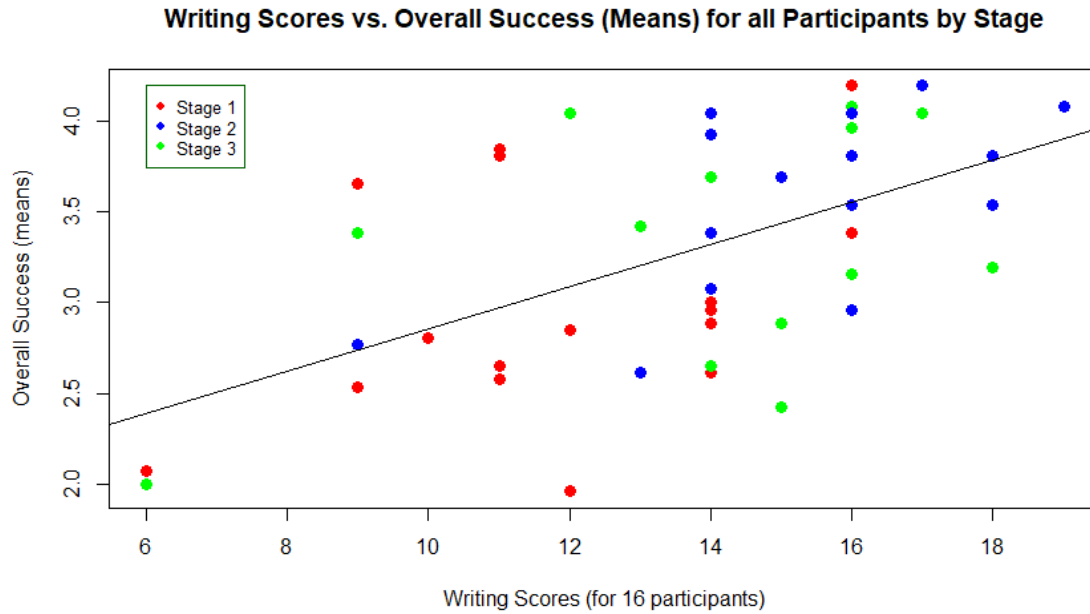


Figure 8.27: Writing vs. means of overall success for all participants by stage

The spread for every stage, together with the overall regression line was plotted to obtain a better picture as to which points were closely clustered (stage 2 data). Table 8.6 indicates that the participants' overall success improved over the three stages because of the influence of the writing score. The highest rate of standard deviation was noted at stage 2 which had more variance of overall success compared to stages 1 and 3.

Table 8.6: Writing vs. mean and standard deviation of overall success by stage

Stage	Mean	Standard deviation
1	11.87	2.70
2	13.87	3.07
3	15.18	2.40

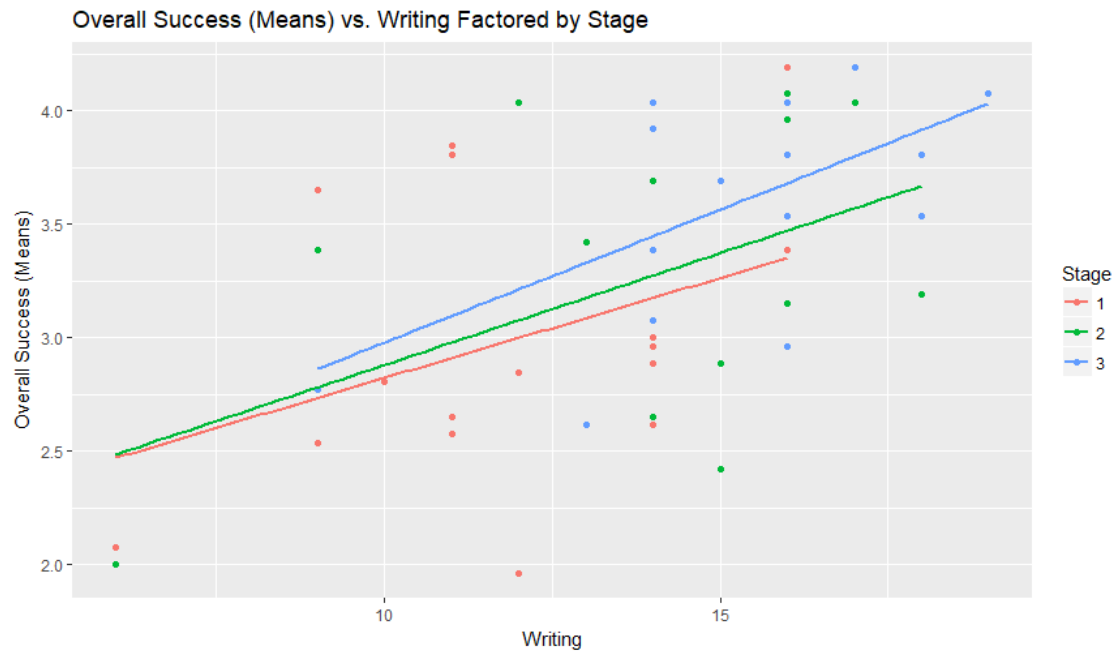


Figure 8.28: Means of overall success vs. interview factored by stage

Figure 8.28 shows the parameters (mean, standard deviation, and gradient of regression line) pointing to a positive relation between the writing scores and mean scores of overall success. A regression model overall success (means) versus writing was conducted by adding 'stage' as an independent variable or a factor. The means of overall success were plotted against 'writing,' as shown in Figure 8.29, where a roughly linear relationship between writing and means of overall success scores over the three stages is detected, potentially with different gradients and/or intercepts.

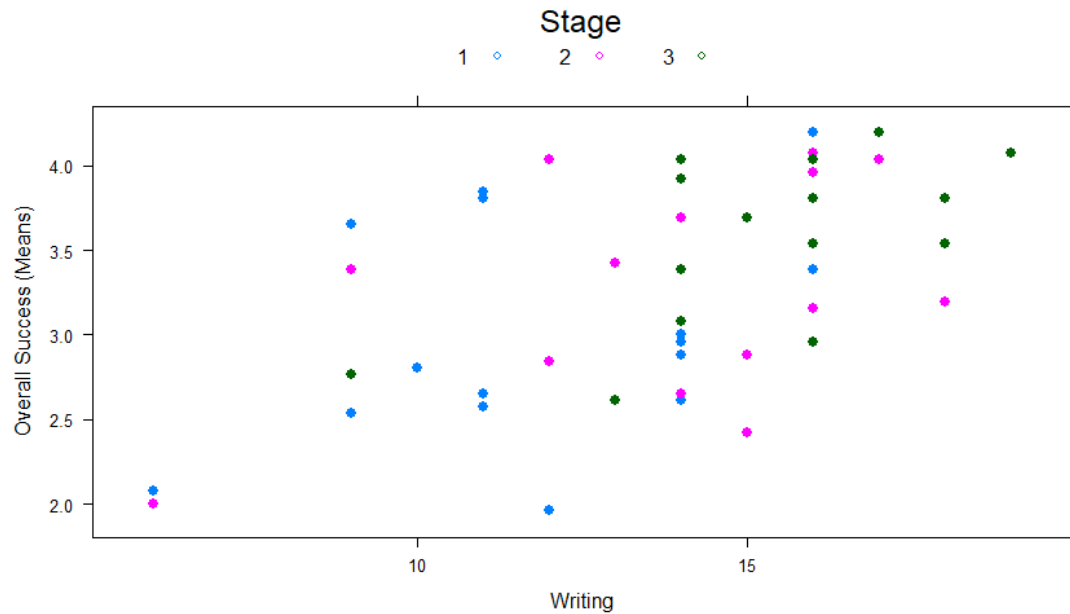


Figure 8.29: Means of overall success vs. writing

A simple regression model was carried out using 'stage' and 'writing' as independent variables. The regression model shows that a statistically significant p-value of the model was $0.0004605 < 0.05$. The coefficient of writing was 0.09996 . This means that for each extra point on the writing test, the overall score (means) increased by 0.1 points. The statistically significant p-value of the writing coefficient was $0.00131 < 0.05$. The R-value of the model was 0.5757 , which means that the overall success (means) scores variance was explained by 57.57% of the writing's variance (see Figure 8.30).

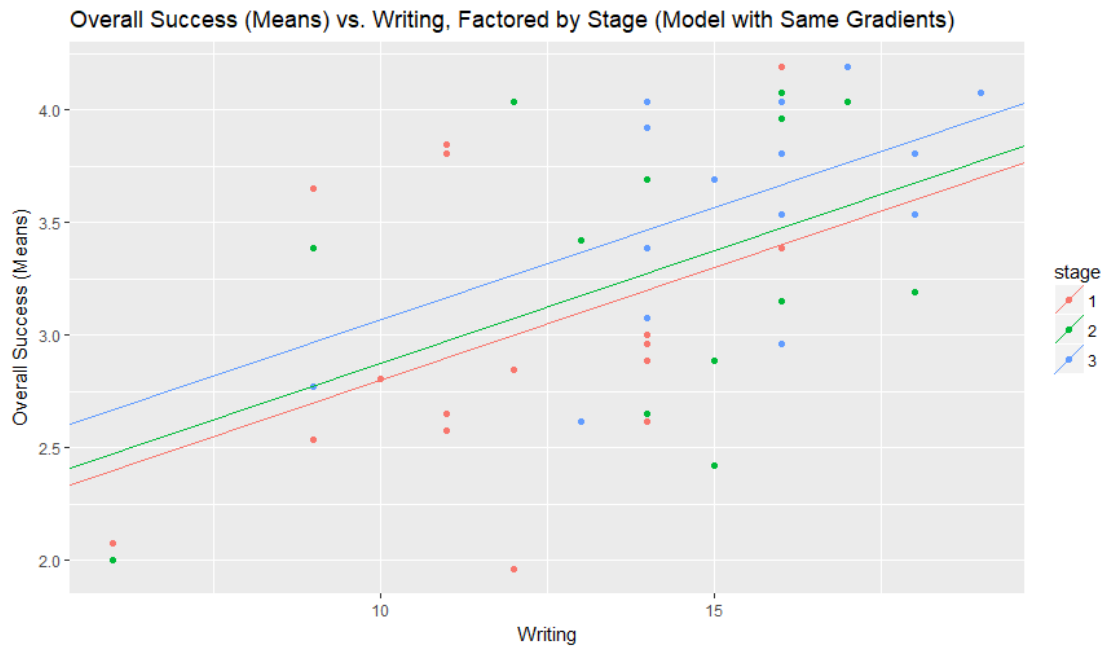


Figure 8.30: Fitting the regression models by each stage

Figure 8.31 indicates a simple regression model using interaction $\text{stage} * \text{writing}$ (stage as factor), showing that 'stage' influenced the intercept of the model and not the gradient. When a factor variable was used as an independent variable in the regression, it allowed a different intercept at every level of the factor. The gradient of each regression line (stages 1 to 3) was the same at 0.1. Given that writing had the same gradient, the lines indicate which scores are higher: $\text{stage 1} < \text{stage 2} < \text{stage 3}$. The model provided stage-specific intercepts, and the gradient was the same for writing, namely 0.1. The regression model indicates that the statistically significant t -value of the model was $0.003458 < 0.05$. The coefficient of writing was 0.088. This means that for each extra point of writing score, the overall success (means) score increased by 0.088 points. The marginally statistically significant p -value of the writing coefficient was $0.099 > 0.05$. The R -value of the model was 0.5775, which means that the overall success (means) scores variance was explained by 60.64% of the writing variance, given the effect of stages.

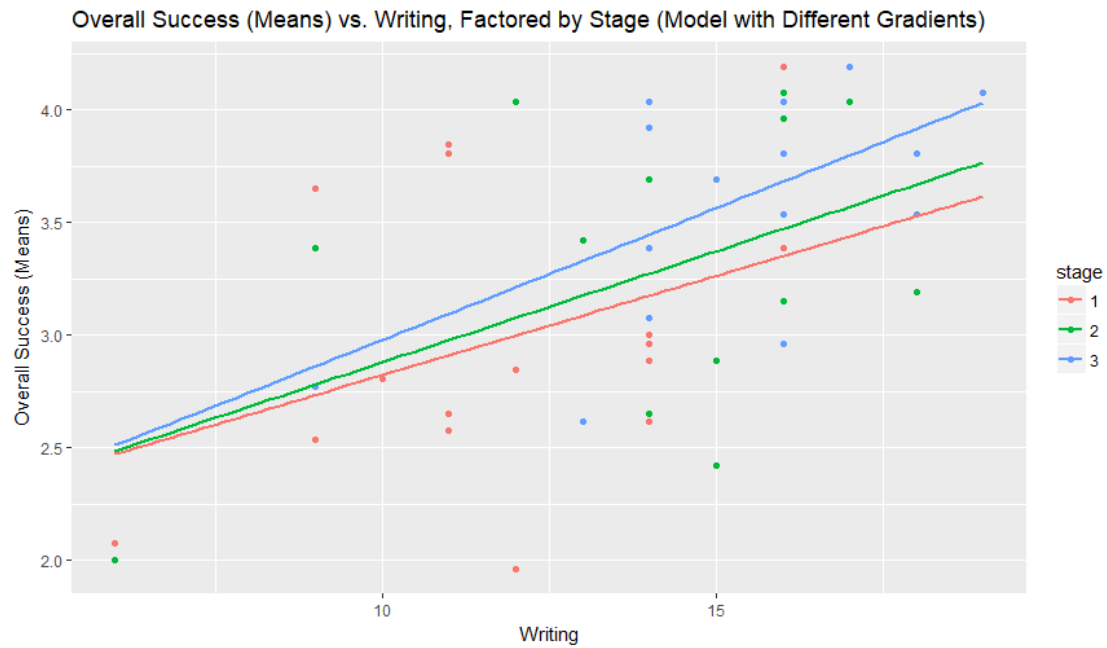


Figure 8.31: Simple regression model using interaction stage * writing(stage as factor)

As to the regression model of overall success against listening using 'stage' as an independent variable or a factor, the linear model included the listening score as the independent variable and the means of overall success as a dependent variable. Figure 8.32 displays the plots fitted for all the data, overall success versus listening, over the three stages.

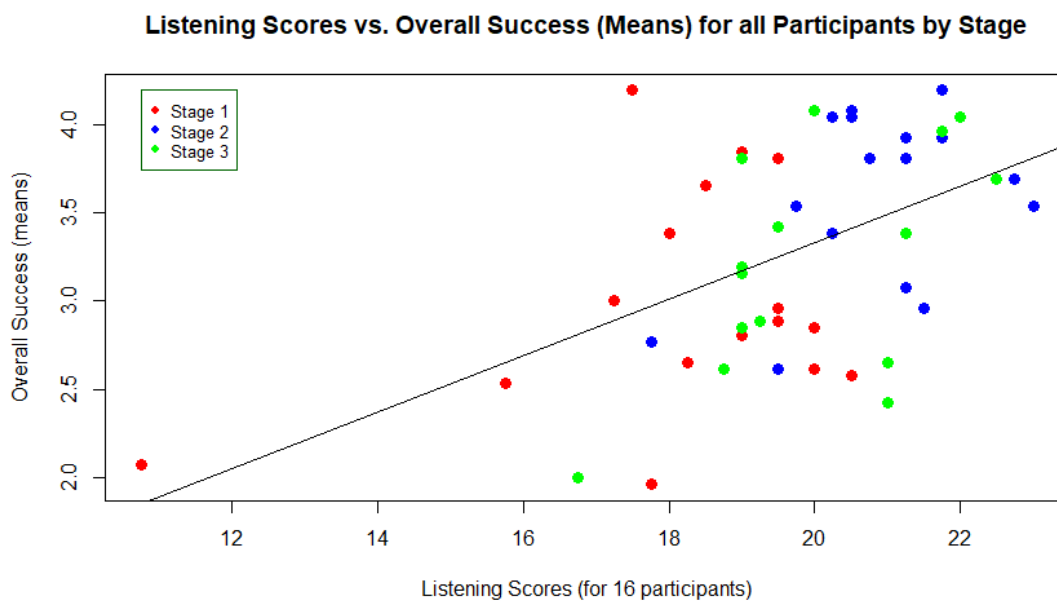


Figure 8.32: Writing vs. means of overall success for all participants by stage

Two parameters (mean and standard deviation) appeared to be consistent with an increase of the listening score. The means of both overall success and listening increased with every stage. The regression models were plotted by using the three stages with distribution of the regression lines by stage. Table 8.7 indicates that the participants' overall success improved over the three stages because of the influence of the listening score. The highest rate of standard deviation was detected at stage 1 which had more variance of overall success compared to stages 2 and 3.

Table 8.7: Listening vs. mean and standard deviation of overall success by stage

Stage	Mean	Standard deviation
1	18.17	2.32
2	20.01	1.50
3	20.85	1.27

Both overall success (means) and listening scores increased with every stage which was tested statistically. The regression models were plotted by using the three stages to distribute the regression lines by stage.

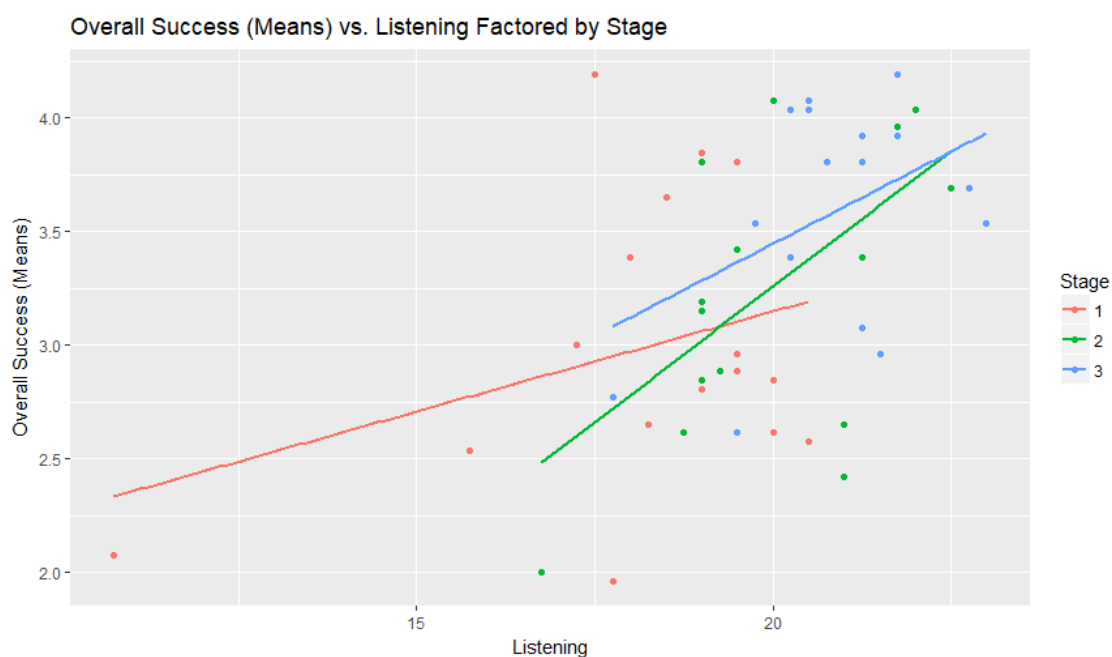


Figure 8.33: Means of overall success vs. listening factored by stage

Looking at the parameters (mean, standard deviation, and gradient of regression line) one can see that when the participants improved their listening scores, their mean scores of overall success appeared to increase, which had to be tested in depth. Regression model overall success (means) versus listening was conducted by adding 'stage' as an independent variable or a factor, as shown in Figure 8.34. Figure 8.34 depicts a plot of overall success (means) scores against the listening scores, showing a roughly linear relationship between the listening and means of overall success scores, potentially with different gradients and/or intercepts.

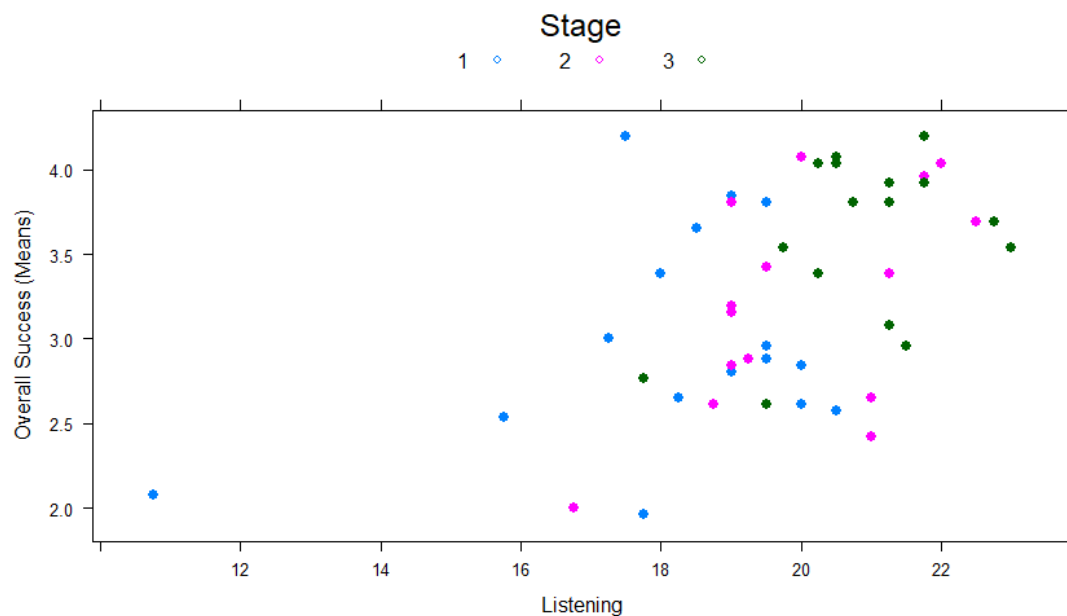


Figure 8.34: Means of overall success vs. listening

A simple regression model was carried out using 'stage' and listening as independent variable. The regression model shows that a statistically significant p-value of the model was $0.001506 < 0.05$. The coefficient of listening was 0.13758. This means that for each extra point on the listening test, the overall score (means) increased by 0.138 points. A statistically significant p-value of the listening coefficient was $0.00502 < 0.05$. The R-value of the model was 0.5409, which means that the overall success (means) scores variance was explained by 54.09% of the listening variance (see Figure 8.35).

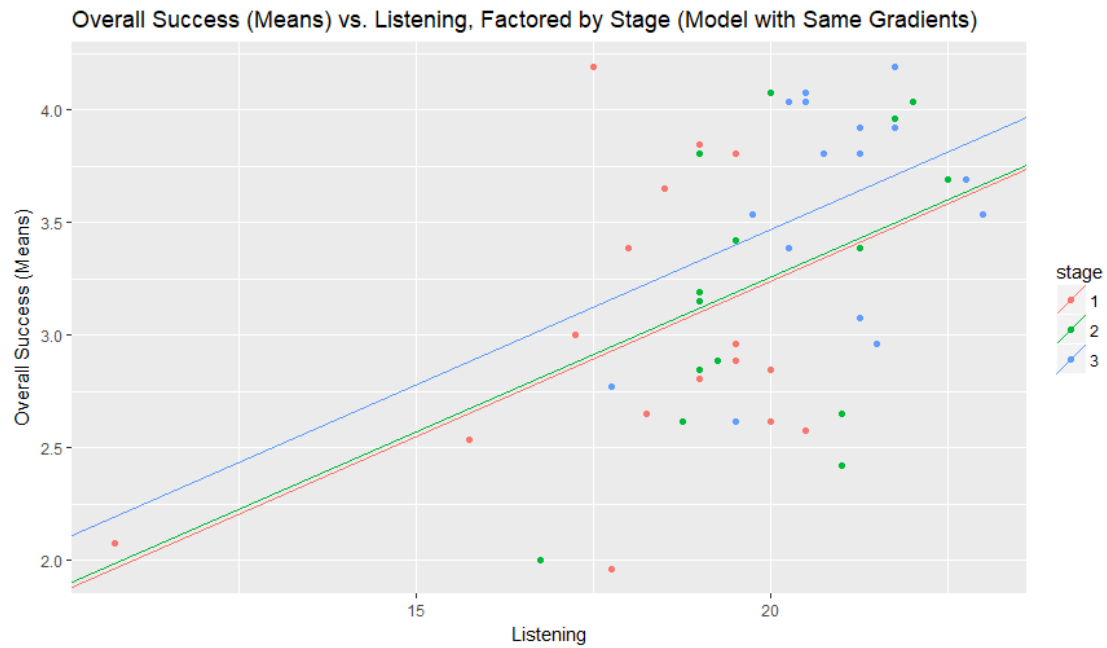


Figure 8.35: Fitting the regression models by each stage

Therefore, the stage influenced the intercept of the model and not the gradient. When a factor variable was used as an independent variable in a regression, it allowed a different intercept at every level of the factor. The gradient of each regression line (stages 1 to 3) was the same at 0.138. Given that listening had the same gradient, the lines indicate which scores are higher: stage 1 < stage 2 < stage 3. The model detected stage-specific intercepts, and the gradient was the same for listening, namely 0.138.

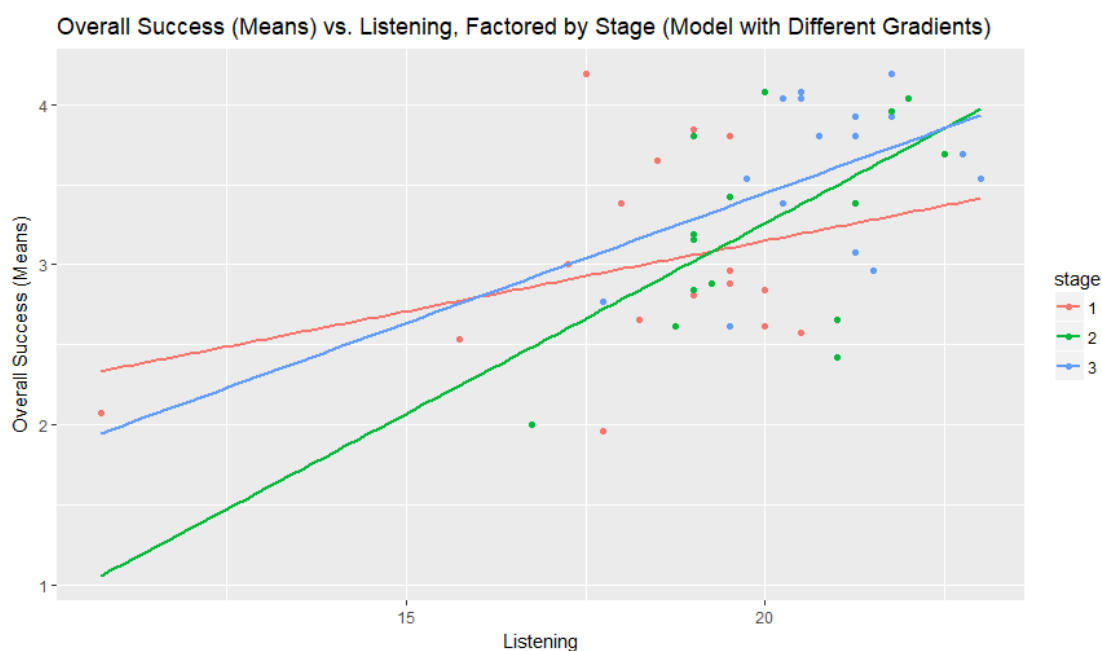


Figure 8.36: Simple regression model using interaction stage * listening (stage as factor)

A simple regression model using interaction stage * listening (stage as factor) was carried out. The regression model indicates that a statistically significant p -value of the model was $0.004714 < 0.05$. The coefficient of listening was 0.088. This means that for each extra point of the listening score, the overall success (means) score increased by 0.088 points. A statistically significant p -value of the listening coefficient was $0.157 > 0.05$. The R -value of the model was 0.5676, which means that the overall success (means) scores variance was explained by 56.76% of the listening variance.

8.3 Discussion and Conclusion

The comprehensive results of the multivariate analysis have detected the time is spent in the UK as an indispensable predictor of the overall success development. This predictor had a statistically significant contribution to the overall success in all the five linear regression models, except the sixth model in which it was excluded. This finding is consistent with the findings reported by Ellis (1992), Kondo (1997), Achiba (2003), Schauer (2004; 2009), and Warga and Scholmberger (2007). These studies demonstrated that speech acts like request and apology can be developed due to the influence of stay in an English speaking country. This is indeed also the case of the Saudi and Chinese participants who managed to develop their L2 pragmatic competence in terms of using apology strategies over the three different

stages of data collection. The development of most of the Saudi and Chinese participants in the present study was evident, as explained in Chapter seven, based on the gradient and R-values. That is, the more EFL learners are exposed to the target language, the better they can develop their use of the speech acts in a way which is similar to the native speakers. This is attributed to the fact that during their stay in a native-speaking country, they acquire the proper linguistic forms which enable them to express themselves properly and use the specific speech act appropriately.

The finding indicates that the policy of English language teaching in the KSA is on the right track. The Saudi government sends researchers to pursue their postgraduate studies in English-speaking countries. This policy assists in preparing a generation of English language instructors who are highly qualified and who have acquired the native-like use of English speech acts. They will, in turn, transfer their acquired knowledge to their Saudi students whose proficiency levels can be further developed in such a way. This finding affirms the role of a stay in an English-speaking country in the development of L2 pragmatic competence due to the exposure to NS's pragmatic output. This exposure leads EFL learners to acquisition and further development of L2 linguistic forms and pragmatic formulas. Vocabulary and writing have demonstrated statistically significant values in all linear models and appeared to be the best predictors of the overall success.

The remaining linguistic variables, dependent on the model, were proved to be also good predictors. Interview was statistically significant to the overall success specially, as in the third model of the linear regression. As for the categorical variables of stage and L1, stage 3 was found to have statistically significant differences in the overall success scores in the linear regression models 2 and 4. This is an indication of the development of the participants' overall success scores and their L2 pragmatic competence. On the contrary, L1 was not a useful predictor of the overall success and did make the linear models worse.

According to the figures of univariate analysis, the means of the participants' overall success increased when the participants improved their proficiency scores. This indicates that the Saudi and Chinese participants' L2 pragmatic competence was significantly affected by the improved levels of their L2 proficiency. This improvement was evident over the three stages, based on the different linear regression models where the proficiency p-value was < 0.05 . This finding indicates the necessity of developing the EFL learners' L2 proficiency at earlier stages of learning. Therefore, it is imperative to give priority to improving the

proficiency levels of younger Saudi and Chinese EFL learners in order to ensure that they develop their L2 linguistic competence successfully.

There was consistency between the results of the multivariate analysis and the univariate analysis of the linear regression models concerning the contribution of the proficiency components to the participants' overall success. These components include vocabulary, writing, listening, interview, and grammar. Based on the univariate analysis, environment was also found influential in affecting the development of both Saudi and Chinese participants' overall success in performing apology strategies in the DCT and role play situations. The comparison of the coefficients of stage 2 and stage 3 to stage 1 indicates that the overall success scores increased by 0.405 points at stage 2 and by 0.897 at stage 3, compared to stage 1. That is, the more time the participants spent in the UK, the better was their performance of apology strategies. However, time in the UK was found to be statistically insignificant because its p-value was $0.609 > 0.05$.

These findings of the multivariate and univariate analyses, in terms of the proficiency components and not the time spent in the UK, were consistent with the results reported by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1968), Kasper and Rose (2002), Felix-Brasdefer (2004), Taguchi (2010), Schauer (2009), and Woodfield (2011). These studies indicated that there was positive improvement in the EFL learners' L2 pragmatic competence in accordance with the duration of stay in native speaking countries. This was evident in the EFL learners' acquisition of indirect speech acts strategies while abandoning direct strategies. This acquisition indicated that the EFL learners used native like L2 speech act strategies. As such, this finding verified the claim of Woodfield (2011) that the L2 pragmatic output can be significantly developed when the EFL learners have the opportunity of staying in an English-speaking countries like the UK, Canada or New Zealand. In this regard, the findings reported by Kondo (1997) were of particular importance to the present study. Similar to the Japanese EFL learners of Kondo's study, most of the Saudi and Chinese participants managed to develop their use of apology strategies in the DCT and role play situations over the three stages.

The finding also confirms the effectiveness of the methodological instruments used for the process of data collection over the three different stages. The design of both the DCT and role play situations was adequate for collecting the data that helped measure the Saudi and Chinese participants' L2 pragmatic competence. In addition, the use of the language test covering different components of L2 proficiency, namely writing, listening, grammar,

interview, and vocabulary was found effective in revealing the effects of these components on the improvement of L2 overall success. Therefore, the present study has accomplished the goal of managed setting a methodological model for other ILP studies to build up their theoretical frameworks and data collection instruments on. The combination of both written and natural speech data along with data on the participants' linguistic skills was vital in answering the questions of the present study and verifying the null hypotheses. That is, the use of written DCT and role plays as data collection instruments is vital for ILP studies. Therefore, ILP researchers can benefit from the methodological design of the present study. This point crystallises the significant contribution of the present study to the ILP literature. Furthermore, the use of various statistical analyses like linear regression models, multivariate analysis, and correlation analysis provides ILP researchers with valuable insights into the effectiveness of using these analytical tools in analysing the ILP data.

Table 8.8 indicates that according to the p-values of all independent variables detected in the regression analyses introduced throughout the data analysis, it can be stated that proficiency is the most significant contributor to the development of the Saudi and Chinese participants' L2 pragmatic competence. Proficiency is followed by stage, familiarity, and power; whereas imposition, attitude, usage and time in the UK were not observed as significant contributors to the participants' development of L2 pragmatic competence.

Table 8.8: Regression analysis of independent variables vs. overall success

<u>Coefficients^a</u>						
Model		<u>Unstandardised</u> Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.498	.211		16.573	.000
	Proficiency	.056	.009	.804	5.898	.000
	Stage	.296	.045	.171	6.534	.000
	Familiarity	-.444	.038	-.316	-11.830	.000
	Power	-.156	.049	-.085	-3.172	.002
	Imposition	-.080	.074	-.028	-1.082	.280
	Attitude Score	.009	.010	.121	.937	.354
	Time in UK	-.002	.001	-.250	-1.837	.073
	Usage Score	.001	.008	.024	.178	.860
a: Dependent variable (overall success)						

Table 8.9 indicates that according to the p-values of all the proficiency sub-test (vocabulary, writing, interview, grammar, and listening), the variables indicated in the regression analyses introduced throughout the data analysis vocabulary, followed by writing, was the most significant contributor to the development of the Saudi and Chinese participants' L2 pragmatic competence; whereas interview, grammar, and listening were not significant contributors.

Table 8.9: Regression analysis of sub-proficiency test variables vs. overall success

Coefficients^a						
Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.615	.654		.940	.352
	Vocabulary	.118	.037	.400	3.226	.002
	Writing	.075	.029	.357	2.602	.013
	Interview	.049	.045	.162	1.090	.282
	Grammar	-.020	.045	-.075	-.447	.657
	Listening	.024	.058	.079	.415	.680
a: Dependent variable (overall success mean)						

Table 8.10 demonstrates that according to the p-values of all the independent variables indicated in the regression analyses introduced throughout the data analysis against the formality, proficiency, followed by stage, was the most significant contributor to the development of the Saudi and Chinese participants' L2 pragmatic competence; whereas the remaining independent variables were not significant contributors to that development.

Table 8.10: Regression analysis of independent variables vs. overall success

Coefficients^a						
Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.416	.175		8.083	.000
	Proficiency	.008	.002	.605	3.726	.001
	Stage	.043	.020	.304	2.168	.035
	Time in UK	.000	.000	-.069	-.426	.672
	Usage score	-.001	.002	-.132	-.809	.423
	Attitude score	.001	.002	.088	.571	.571
	Stage	.008	.034	.058	.240	.812
a: Dependent variable (formality mean)						

Table 8.11 depicts that according to the p-values of all proficiency sub-test (vocabulary, writing, interview, grammar, and listening) variables against formality as a dependant variable indicated in the regression analyses all throughout the data analysis, none of the sub-proficiency tests was not a significant contributor to the participants' development of L2 pragmatic competence.

Table 8.11: Regression analysis of independent variables vs. overall success

<u>Coefficients^a</u>						
Model		<u>Unstandardised</u> Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.444	.148		9.780	.000
	Vocabulary	.011	.008	.207	1.364	.180
	Writing	.010	.007	.258	1.540	.131
	Interview	.001	.010	.017	.091	.928
	Grammar	.003	.010	.067	.323	.749
	Listening	.008	.013	.144	.618	.540
a: Dependent variable (formality mean)						

Chapter nine will provide the summary, contribution, answers to the research questions, as well as the limitations of the present study and recommendations for further research.

Chapter Nine: Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

9. Introduction

This chapter is divided into five sections. The first section presents a summary of the whole project, which summarises the main research topic, data collection instruments and data analysis process. The second section highlights the significant contribution of the present study to the ILP literature. This section covers the theoretical framework, selection of participants of two different cultural backgrounds, and a new classification of apology strategies. The significant contribution also addresses methodological issues such as incentives for the recruitment of both participants and English NS assessors and the organisation of data collection process through a detailed scheme of data collection sessions. The adaptation of a variety of situations suitable to the present study and the avoidance of using the participants' L1 in responding to the DCT and role play situations are also discussed. The third section explains the limitations of the present study, which include the lack of investigating female participants. L2 pragmatic instruction, the inability to include data collected from ninety three participants (the sixteen participants were selected from 93 participants took part in the present study), and disregard of variables namely age and participants' level in English. The fourth section provides answers to the questions of the present study. The fifth section draws recommendation for further research in the ILP field.

9.1 Summary

The present longitudinal study has examined the differences and similarities between two different cultural background EFL learners (Saudi and Chinese) in using L2 apology strategies over three stages. The present study has been carried out based on three factors affecting L2 pragmatic competence development, drawing on Bardovi-Harlig (2013). These factors are environment, L1 culture, and L2 proficiency. The present study has also drawn from Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness based on three contextual variables in terms of the levels of familiarity (close, acquaintance, and stranger), levels of social power (high-low, equal and low-high), and levels of imposition (mild and serious). Apology strategies have been judged based on a specifically designed model which combined different schemes of coding systems in addition to newly devised apology strategies. The main question of the project has been the impact of environment, L1 culture, and L2 proficiency levels on the

development of the Saudi and Chinese participants' L2 pragmatic competence in terms of apology strategies.

For the sake of the present study, the data were collected over three stages through various data collection instruments. Firstly, an 18-item written DCT was administered to collect written data on apology strategies employed by the participants. Secondly, an 8-item role play was conducted to collect natural data on the use of apology strategies by all the participants. Thirdly, the participants were asked to respond to 44-item attitude and L2 usage social background questionnaire. Fourthly, an English proficiency test was conducted at each stage of data collection, covering easy writing task, interview, grammar, vocabulary, and listening. The data collected were analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively. The frequencies of used apology strategies were noted to determine the differences and similarities in the Saudi and Chinese participants' choice of apology strategies. The variance of used apology strategies in terms of L1 Saudi and Chinese cultures was analysed. The L1 cultural influence on the use of apology strategies was identified in light of the categories of familiarity, power and imposition. The participants' L2 pragmatic competence was referred to in the process of data analysis as 'overall success' and 'formality'. Overall success refers to the total scores of apology strategies in the 18-item DCT and the 8-item role play. Formality refers to the two English NS assessors' evaluation of the appropriateness of apology strategies employed by both Saudi and Chinese participants in of the context the British culture.

Appropriateness in relation to the British culture was based on two scales designed for the DCT and role play situations as explained in Chapter four. Correlation analyses have been conducted to measure how overall success is related to the participants' attitude and L2 usage scores. The gradient scores have been computed for the participants' overall success versus the time spent in the UK, L2 proficiency scores, and the components of L2 proficiency (writing, interview grammar, vocabulary, and listening). The purpose of gradients computation has been to assess the development of participants' overall success over the three stages of data collection. For this end, illustrative line charts have been created to indicate the mean scores of overall success versus the time in the UK, and the components of L2 proficiency over the three stages of data collection. Regression analyses have been conducted to determine the statistically significant differences among the Saudi and Chinese participants in terms of the following independent variables: environment (time in the UK), L2 proficiency, familiarity, power, imposition, attitude, and L2 usage. As such, the regression

analyses help identify the most significant independent factor contributing to the development of the Saudi and Chinese participants' overall success.

9.2 Significant Contribution

The project to ILP studies has recognised to be a successful investigation combining three different theoretical concepts, namely those of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory (1987), Bardovi-Harlig's (2013) and Scheme of Taxonomy of Apology Strategies. These coding schemes have included those proposed by Cohen and Olshtain (1981), Olshtain, and Cohen (1983), Blum-Kluka, House and Kasper (1989), and Bergman and Kasper (1993). The selection of Saudi and Chinese participants for the purpose of data collection can be considered as a significant development in the field of ILP studies. This selection fulfils the gap stated by Bardovi-Harlig (2013). It may open a new trend for ILP studies to be conducted among NN speakers who represent various cultural backgrounds instead of only relying on the comparison between EFL learners and English NS as to the use of a certain speech act. The original classification of apology strategies was somehow incomplete to meet the analysis purpose required for the data obtained. Therefore, the current study has developed a new model of apology strategies by adding: (i) silence where participants were silent and did not utter an apology response, (ii) Apparently Unrelated Response (AUR) where the participants' responses were not suitable for the DCT and role play situations (e.g. "It is very hot", "I am having headache"), (iii) Upgrader (UG) 2 or 3+ sorry (e.g. "I'm very very sorry"), and (iv) different classification of 'sorry' from that of 'I'm sorry'.

The present study indicates that both former apologetic expressions cannot have the same meaning hence 'sorry' cannot be classified as an IFID strategy like 'I'm sorry'. This distinction between 'sorry' and 'I'm sorry' changes the coding scheme for the classification of IFID strategies and, consequently, provides a new strategy for ILP studies that will examine the apology speech act. The present study also supports the claims of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory (1987) regarding the variance of FTAs strategies in terms of social familiarity and social power. However, the degree of offence severity or imposition has been deemed insignificant variable to the variance of apology strategies.

Methodologically, the current study has introduced a package of incentives (as explained in Chapter four) to help recruit and maintain participants over the three stages of data collection. Other ILP researchers can find this incentive package useful, particularly

when conducting longitudinal studies. The present study has introduced an exemplary model for the procedures for data collection in longitudinal studies, including a scheme for data collection sessions, which can serve as a guide for other ILP researchers. The organisation of data collection along with recruitment of three English NS assessors for different tasks, whether in the role play, interview or DCT, also provide a guiding example for ILP researchers. In addition, the designs of some situations have set an example for other researchers looking for representation of the intended speech act under investigation. This adaptation should further enrich the literature on ILP methodology. In this respect, the present study has adapted some situations from being request-oriented to apology-oriented situations, striking an example which other ILP researchers can follow, offering creative solutions to certain situations for DCT and role plays. Moreover, new items for the English language usage and attitude have been devised. Contrary to other ILP studies like those of Gahtani and Roever (2012) and Al-Qari (2017); in the present study L1 (Arabic or Chinese) data on apology strategies were collected. The Saudi and Chinese participants responded solely in English to the DCT and role play situations.

9.3 Limitations

The present study has only investigated three factors affecting L2 pragmatic development, as stated by Bardovi-Harlig (2013), namely environment, L1 culture, and L2 linguistic competence. Therefore, there is a need to examine the influence of L2 pragmatic instruction being the fourth factor determined by Bardovi-Harlig on the development of the participants' L2 pragmatic development. Another limitation of the present study is the participants' gender particularly, limited to male whereby a similar study conducted by Kogetsidis (2010) on the request speech participants involved male and female. The decision include any Saudi females among participants was a matter of difficulty due to religious and cultural as practices-related to Saudi females do not mix with Saudi males. This difficulty was also experienced by Al-Gahtani and Roever's (2012) in their study. The inability to include female Chinese participants was related to the general difficulty of recruiting Chinese participants in this the study. So, there was a final decision not to include the female participants in both Saudi and Chinese participants. To balance, the examination of L2 pragmatic development of Saudi and Chinese EFL learners; not to include any gender differences.

Another limitation is related to the large size of the data collected for the purpose of the present study. Indeed, the data were also collected pertaining to the participants' age, level of English proficiency (pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper intermediate). These data are available but have not been analysed due to the scope and length of the dissertation. Furthermore, the data were originally collected from ninety three Saudi and Chinese participants. However, only the data from sixteen participants (eight Saudi and eight Chinese) were used for the purpose of the present study. Sixteen participants are, however, a sufficient number for a longitudinal PhD project. Symmetrically, after the data have been tested, the outlier participants were excluded to flawlessly investigate the time in the UK for those who spent not more than 348 days in the UK. These data are still available for further research if possible. This limitation can be overcome in the future research by varying the ways of data collection whether through online distribution of the DCT or using video conference for the data collection purpose of the role play situations.

9.4 Conclusions

This section introduces answers to the research questions and verifies the research hypotheses.

9.4.1 How do Saudi and Chinese participants differ in their choice of apology strategies in terms of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory and their L1 cultures?

The Saudi and Chinese participants varied in terms of success in the choice of apology strategies in the DCT and role play situations. Whereas the Chinese participants had higher frequency of using apology strategies in the DCT, the Saudi participants outnumbered their Chinese counterparts in using apology strategies in the role play situations over the three stages of data collection. The choice of apology strategies by the Saudi and Chinese participants, whether at the DCT or the role play situations, exerted their effort to take responsibility for the offence, admit their offence, and offer compensation for the victims. As for the DCT, the Saudi and Chinese participants favoured IFID as the most frequent apology strategy. They were similar in using some apology strategies like admission and excuse but to a different extent. The Saudi participants favoured OOR and UG1, while the Chinese participants favoured the use of admission I and explanation. As for the role play situations, OOR strategy was the most frequently used one by both Saudi and Chinese participants.

There were similarities in using some apology strategies such as emotional, admission I, explanation and UG1 and differences as the Saudi participant the preferred IFID strategy while the Chinese favoured the use of sorry strategy.

This finding shows that the Saudi and Chinese participants preferred to protect the face of their interlocutors in accordance with Brown and Levinson's politeness theory (1987). It supports Brown and Levinson's notion of the concept. That is, the Saudi and Chinese participants were committed to the positive social value of interaction as they protected the face of their interlocutors. This is because face reflects the feelings of embarrassment and humiliation, according to Brown and Levinson's politeness theory. The Saudi and Chinese participants reduced the offence severity for the victims by adopting 'taking on responsibility' strategies (i.e. admission of fact, admission I, asking for forgiveness, offering apology, explanations, excuses, and self-blame) and offered repair in accordance to the positive and negative politeness proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987). Saudi participants admitted responsibility for their offences in an attempt to protect their interlocutors' wants and to be desirable in light of the positive politeness. On the other hand, the Chinese participants did not deny their responsibility for offences in order not to impede their victims' wants. As such, the responses of the Chinese participants were compatible with the notion of negative politeness. This finding also previously affirm the sound decision of selecting Brown and Levinson's politeness theory as the main concept on which the theoretical framework of the present study was to be built in spite of the criticism levelled against that theory. The finding also confirms the influence of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory on interpreting the current study's results.

The Saudi and Chinese cultures consider politeness mainly as focusing on the protection of the victims' positive and negative faces. This finding indicates similar perception among the Saudi and Chinese participants of the apology speech act as a face-threatening act. Apology is often considered as a threat to the offender's face for which he/she is required to provide admission and sympathy to the victim.

There was a similarity between the Saudi and Chinese participants in adopting apology strategies. This similarity is considered as an indication of the influence of their L1 collectivist cultures, in which speakers maximise the benefit of the hearers and minimise their own benefits. Therefore, the Saudi and Chinese participants revealed similar perception of the necessity to apologise to their victims as they did not deny responsibility for the offence. This

finding confirms that in relation to the Saudi and Chinese cultures Brown and Levinson's politeness theory, which mainly focused on individualism in the sense that the apology is a necessary need. This finding is also consistent with those reported by Danielewicz-Betz and Mamidi (2009) in terms of solidarity. However, it contradicts what Danielewicz-Betz and Mamidi (*ibid.*) observed in terms of 'eluding apology' and 'over apology as a sign of insincerity'. Consistent with their findings, this finding affirms the tendency of Saudis to favour positive face management which is based on positive face saving, full agreement, and generosity. Saudis' politeness behaviour aims to show solidarity and agreement; which means avoiding conflicts and criticism at any price. The positive face management can explain the choice of apology strategies by Saudi participants who showed solidarity with the victims by minimising differences through admission of offence. On the other hand, Danielewicz-Betz and Mamidi (2009) claimed that over apology reveals insincere apology on the part of Saudis. Culturally, this claim might be questionable since Saudis in the present study tended to employ elaborate style of communication as a way of emphasising the intended meaning and not to reflect sincerity. The use of repeated forms of apology by Saudis, just like other Arabs, is a reflection of their utmost concern of the victim's condition. In the present study, the Saudi participants did not avoid apology or kept silent instead of apologising. In addition, this finding is also consistent with Gu's (1990) criticism of Leech's politeness maxims, namely that politeness for the Chinese is not a mere act of communication; but rather a system of collective behaviour. The choice of apology strategies by the Chinese participants is also consistent with the proposed four politeness maxims by Gu (1990): 'self-denigration, address, tact and generosity'. These maxims are sequentially reflected in the use of IFID such as "I do apologise", using the address form 'boss', providing excuse: "There was terrible traffic", and offer of repair: "I will bring you a cup of coffee".

The similarity of choosing apology strategies revealed similar perception among the Saudi and Chinese participants of feeling guilty, the need apologise, compensate the victims, and protect their face. This finding affirms the definition of apology reported by Searle (1996) as the Saudi and Chinese participants considered apology as a debt which deserves compensating the victims. The finding also reflects Goffman's (1971) definition of apology; as the Saudi and Chinese participants showed keenness to restore social harmony with the victims. The finding also offers an affirmation of Bataineh et al.'s (2005) definition of apology; the Saudi and Chinese participants felt guilty and sought forgiveness from their

victims. This finding also is compatible with Holmes's (1989) comprehensive definition of apology adopted in the present study. In this context, the Saudi and Chinese participants perceived themselves as guilty, and wanted to seek forgiveness and restore social harmony with the victims.

Such a finding conforms to those reported by other studies. For instance, it affirms Xiang's (2007) finding that the Chinese favour the use of the direct apology expression. In addition, the use of 'sorry' by the Chinese participants confirmed the Xiang's (2007) finding that the Chinese prefer the use of the English word 'sorry' to express their apology because 'sorry' does not have psychological effects which they may experience when using their L1. There was a similarity between this study and those by Murad (2012), Abu-Humei (2013), Al Sulayyi (2106), and Qari (2017) since the Saudi and Chinese participants' choice of apology strategies was based on using IFID, explanation, offer of repair, admission, admission I and UG1.

9.4.2 Are the Saudi and Chinese apology responses compatible with the British culture?

The answer to this question relies on the NS assessors' rating of the formality of the Saudi and Chinese' apology responses to the DCT and the role play situations. The formality assessment was carried out based on four rankings in the DCT and three rankings in the role play situations. As to the DCT formality ranking, the Chinese participants were more varied in the formality ranking of apology response compared to their Saudi participants. For instance at stage 3, the Chinese participants had a higher percentage of 'good apology responses' (84.7%) appropriate to various DCT situations than the Saudi participants (81.3%). Indeed, most of the Saudi and Chinese participants could properly use apology responses in different DCT situations. For example, in the 'missing deadline', 'team coach' and 'evidence' situations, the Saudi participants admitted the offence, asked for forgiveness, provided reasons for the offence occurrence, and promised not the repeat the same fault again. Meanwhile, the Chinese participants' appropriate apology responses were found in the 'seminar preparation', 'lecture notes', and 'coffee' situations. The admitted the offence and offered to repair/redress the situations cause damage. However, they did not provide reasons for the offence in some of the cases. In addition, the Saudi and Chinese participants were equally rated for formality of the 'excessively formal for the situation' at the DCT. However, the excessively formal ranking increased for the Saudi participants from stage 1 to stage 3,

while it decreased for the Chinese participants at stage 3. Examples of the Saudi participants' excessively formal apology responses can be found in the 'new assistant', 'hot soup', and 'interview' situations. The Saudi participants provided apology, admitted their offence, gave reasons, and suggested solutions. Examples of the Chinese participants' formality ranking of 'excessively formal for the situation' are in the responses to the 'missing deadline', 'tuition fees', and 'crowded train' situations. They resorted to admitting the offence, offering repair for their faults, and giving reasons in some cases for the offence.

As to the appropriate apology strategies in the role play situations, the Chinese participants exhibited more variance compared to the Saudi participants. The Saudi participants' formality ranking of 'appropriate for the situation in terms of formality' (100%) was higher than that of their Chinese counterparts (98.4%) at stage 3 where both groups of participants experienced improvement of appropriate apology responses over the three stages. Examples of the Saudi participants' formality ranking of 'appropriate for the situation' are found in the 'forgetting coffee', 'heavy bag', and 'oil in car' situations. The Saudi participants provided immediate and concerned responses in which emotional expressions were often used. On the other hand, examples of the Chinese participants' formality ranking of 'appropriate for the situation' are found in the 'forgetting coffee', 'heavy bag' and 'late for appointment' situations. The Chinese participants provided convincing and appropriate apologetic responses. Examples of the Chinese participants' formality ranking of 'excessively formal for the situation' are evident in their responses to the 'car crash', 'wrong room' and 'oil in car' situations. The Chinese participants provided clear and effective explanation of the situations together with the offer of help and repair.

9.4.3 To what extent was Saudi and Chinese participants' performance of apology speech acts influenced by their attitudes towards learning English?

There was a similarity between both Saudi and Chinese participants concerning the influence of their total attitude scores on their overall success in performing L2 apology both in the DCT and the role plays. The similarity was evident according to the findings of negative correlations between both groups' attitudes and their overall success. In other words, performance of Saudi and Chinese participants in responding to the DCT and role play situations did not significantly differ because of their attitudes scores towards learning English. The finding does not confirm that reported by Clement (1985) that attitude and

motivation are good predictors of L2 acquisition. Both Saudi and Chinese participants showed positive attitudes towards learning English, but the Saudi participants had higher positive attitude scores compared to their Chinese counterparts. For examples, six of the 8 Saudi participants strongly agreed that English was the foreign language which they liked most as compared to only 3 Chinese participants. Seven Saudi participants strongly agreed that learning English was fun compared to only one Chinese participant. Five Saudi participants strongly agreed that they had no difficulty understanding English but only one Chinese participant did. Seven Saudi participants and only 3 Chinese participants strongly agreed that English had a solid position in the world.

In this regard it appears that the EFL learners who have positive attitude towards L2 learning are keen on comprehending all pragmatic aspects of L2 pragmatic instruction. However, EFL learners who have negative attitude towards L2 learning are not interested in mastering L2 pragmatic aspects (Schmidt, 1993). The interest of learning English does not necessarily match the acculturation of EFL learners to adopt the L2 communicative norms. Thus, this finding was compatible with the finding reported by LoCastro (2001) that positive attitude towards L2 learning is not necessarily accompanied with changing the identity of EFL learners. In this case, the positive attitude of Saudi and Chinese participants towards learning English did not affect their overall success. That is, the use of apology strategies by both Saudi and Chinese participants in responding to the DCT and role plays situations was not influenced by their positive nor negative oriented attitudes towards learning English. Similarly, this finding confirmed the finding reported by Hinkel (1996) that the EFL learners' attitudes towards acknowledging the L2 pragmatic norms did not affect their willingness to adopt L2 communicative norms. On the other hand, this finding did not corroborate the sensitivity between EFL learners' willingness to adopt L2 communicative norms and their attitudes towards learning English reported by Kasper and Schmidt (1996).

9.4.4 What is the influence of Saudi and Chinese participants' L2 usage of English on their overall success in performing apology speech acts?

Both Saudi and Chinese participants differed in the impact of their usage scores of English on their overall success in using apology strategies in the DCT and role play situations. The Chinese participants' scores were significantly lower due to their usage of English, which accounted for 58.84% of their overall success. However, the Saudi participants' usage of

English was negatively correlated with their overall success. There were no statistically significant differences among the Saudi participants in performing apology strategies both in the DCT and role play situation because of their usage of English. This finding indicates that the higher usage score of English does not necessarily positively correlate with the overall success because Saudi participants outperformed their Chinese counterparts in the usage of English despite negative correlation. Indeed the usage of English expresses the motivation type behind using English. EFL learners may use English to realise integrative ends like communicating with NS by using English or achieve utilitarian ends like career advancement or comprehending English in the media. This finding contradicted that of Clement (1985) who stated that motivation is a good predictor for L2 acquisition. The usage of English by Chinese participants, who had lower usage scores compared to the Saudi participants, was positively correlated with their overall success in using apology strategies in the DCT and role play situations.

9.4.5 Do Saudi and Chinese cultures and L1 the development of Saudi and Chinese L2 pragmatic competence?

It has been observed that the Arab and Chinese L1 cultures have various influences on the development of the Saudi and Chinese participants' L2 pragmatic competence according to the three contextual variables of social familiarity, social power, and imposition. For instance, the DCT apology responses of the two groups significantly varied in terms of the three levels of familiarity. Based on the high p-values, significant differences occurred between the Saudi and Chinese groups and within the two groups as well. The highest differences between the Saudi and Chinese participants subsequently occurred in the stranger familiarity DCT situations, acquaintance familiarity DCT situations, and at last in close familiarity DCT situations. That is, the higher the social distance, the higher the variance between the Saudi and Chinese participants' apology responses. On the other hand, the two familiarity levels in the role play situations did not influence the Saudi and Chinese participants' apology responses as the p-values were higher than 0.05. The reason behind differences in the results of familiarity in the DCT and role play situations is different familiarity classifications in the DCT and role play situations. Familiarity was classified into three levels in the DCT situation; whereas it was classified into two levels only in the role play situations. The different classifications of familiarity in the DCT and role play situations

are justified based on the attempt to not accept first trial of the participants for the role plays situations and to ease and reduce the assessors' task burden. This procedure was adopted due to the difficulty of recruiting and maintaining the assessors over the period of the three data collection stages.

Similarly, power was classified into three levels in the DCT situations (L-H, E, H-L) and two levels in the role play situations (L-H, E). Contrary to the familiarity influence in the role play situations, the findings of power indicated significant differences between the Saudi and Chinese participants' responses in the DCT and role play situations. This finding shows that social power has more impact on the apology responses of the Saudi and Chinese participants because they belong to hierarchical power communities. This is evident as the Saudi and Chinese participants adopted similar apology responses in the case of high-low DCT and role play situations. Indeed, power has similar sequence among all participants in the DCT and role play situations; with the highest variance in the equal power situations, the low-high power situations, and the high-low power situations.

Just as familiarity was not influential in the role play situations, the two levels of imposition did not show any significant impact on the Saudi and Chinese participants' apology expressions in the DCT and role play situations. There were no significant differences in the apology responses of both groups either internally or between them. Contrary to the role play situations, the little variance caused by imposition in the DCT situations was observed in the mild and then serious imposition situations.

9.4.6 To what extent is the development of pragmatic competence in English as a L2 influenced by the L1 and culture of Saudi and Chinese L1 speakers, relative to the influence of their general level of linguistic competence in English?

According to the p-values of the regression analyses conducted for each Saudi and Chinese participant, the time spent in the UK was not influential in affecting the development of their overall mean scores in stages 1, 2, and 3. Five Chinese participants (nos. 26, 30, 32, and 42), contrary to the Saudi participants, showed upward consistent development of their overall mean scores.

Based on the gradient and R-values of the regression model of the writing scores vs. overall success, the Chinese participants better performed in writing compared to their Saudi

counterparts. It appears that developing the proficiency level goes along with the development of L2 pragmatic competence.

Based on the gradient and R-values of the regression model of the interview score vs. overall success, there was a consistent development detected of most of the Saudi participants' interview scores over the three stages, contrary to the Chinese participants. The interview scores of the Saudi participants affected the overall success improvement. The interview scores of most of the Chinese participants were inconsistently developed over the three stages. Their interview scores, therefore, did not affect their overall success improvement over the three different stages in most of the cases.

Based on the gradient and R-values of the regression model of the observed grammar score vs. overall success, there was consistent development of the most of the Saudi participants' grammar scores over the three stages, contrary to the Chinese participants. The grammar scores of the Saudi participants affected the overall success improvement. Although some Chinese participants improved their grammar scores over the three stages, their grammar scores did not affect their overall success improvement over the three different stages.

Based on the gradient and R-values of the regression model of the vocabulary score vs. overall success, there was consistent development detected of most of the Chinese participants' vocabulary score. However, the vocabulary scores did not impact of the overall success development of the Saudi participants, except for nos. 15 and 21. This asserts the need for paying more attention to the teaching of L2 vocabulary to Saudi EFL learners in order to assist them in development of their L2 pragmatic competence.

The scores of listening were influential in developing the overall success of five Saudi participants with the exception of nos. 23, 45, and 46. With the exception of participant no. 31, the listening scores of seven Chinese participants affected the improvement of their overall success as the linear regression models increased due to the gradients and R-values. This finding asserts the importance of listening skills in developing the EFL learners' L2 pragmatic competence. It is the role of L2 pragmatic instructions to focus on listening skills through devising interactional and communicative listening activities.

Based on the gradient and R-values of the regression model of the proficiency scores vs. overall success, the improvement of six Saudi participants' proficiency scores and that of seven Chinese participants affected their overall success scores. This finding highlights the

influential role of L2 pragmatic instructions in improving and developing the awareness of the EFL learners' L2 pragmatic competence.

Based on the multivariate analysis, the time spent in the UK was proved as an indispensable predictor of the development of participants' overall success. There was a statistically significant contribution of the time in the UK to the participants' overall success, as shown in all the five linear regression models, except the sixth model where the time in the UK was excluded. This finding confirms the importance of staying in an English speaking country for the development of EFL learners' L2 pragmatic competence. This importance is attributed to the exposure to NS's pragmatic output. Such exposure facilitates the acquisition of L2 linguistic forms and pragmatic formulas. Some components of the participants' L2 linguistic competence like vocabulary and writing had statistically significant values in all the linear models and appeared to be the best predictors of the overall success. The other linguistic variables like interview still had a significant contribution to the participants' overall success. For instance, it was detected that interview had statistically significant contribution to the participants' overall success, as shown in the third model of the linear regression. As for the categorical variables of stage and L1, the participants' overall success demonstrated statistically significant differences at stage 3, as shown in the linear regressions models 2 and 4. This indicates the development of the participants' overall success scores and their L2 pragmatic competence. Contrary to the categorical variable of stage, L1 was not a good predictor of the participants' overall success development as it worsened the linear models.

9.4.7 What is the most significant contributor to the Saudi and Chinese participants' development of L2 pragmatic competence?

The present study concludes that L2 proficiency has been the most significant contributor to the development of the Saudi and Chinese participants' L2 pragmatic competence in terms of both overall success and formality. The participants' L2 proficiency is followed by social familiarity and social power as the second and third most significant contributors to developing the Saudi and Chinese participants' L2 pragmatic competence. This finding supports the results reported by Al-Gahtani and Roever (2012) where the proficiency levels of the Saudi participants determined their use of request strategies. This finding is of particular significant to the ILP literature as it determines EFL learners' proficiency level as the most important reason behind developing their L2 pragmatic competence.

As such, the present study contributes to the quest for answers to a very important question regarding the vexing problem of the key factors responsible for development of the EFL learners' L2 pragmatic competence. This finding is also significant for the policy makers concerning English language teaching in both the KSA and China. It helps achieve one of the main aims of the present study as it diagnoses one of the main reasons behind the ILP failure (i.e. low or poor proficiency levels).

Therefore, the Saudi and Chinese educational authorities should pay attention to developing the proficiency levels of Saudi and Chinese students at early educational stages of learning English. The weak and poor proficiency levels of the Saudi and Chinese students should be targeted for development on a larger scale in the KSA and China. The Saudi and Chinese EFL students should be taught from small how to use English properly with regard to different linguistic skills, namely listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The intensive and creative methods of English language teaching can yield good results. Intensity refers to the increase of ELT hours for both Saudi and Chinese EFL learners. Creativity refers to the use of unconventional methods of ELT. So, that the Saudi and Chinese EFL learners can produce creative linguistic output when speaking and writing in English.

Furthermore, the significant contribution of social familiarity and social power to the Saudi and Chinese participants' development of L2 pragmatic competence confirms the sound decision of selecting Brown and Levinson's politeness theory (1987) as the main component of the theoretical framework of the present study. As such, it is useful for ILP studies to consider Brown and Levinson's politeness theory as a framework for their data analysis and findings. The present study also verifies that imposition as the third social variable in Brown and Levinson's politeness theory was an insignificant contributor to the participants' development of L2 pragmatic competence. As such, the present study enriches the ILP literature on the influence of offence imposition on the use of FTAs like apology.

In addition, the results of the regression analyses conducted indicate that attitude, usage, and time in the UK have not been significant contributors to the development of Saudi and Chinese' L2 pragmatic competence. These results lead to rejection of the research hypothesis that L1 would be more important than the participants' L2 proficiency levels in terms of overall L2 pragmatic competence and choice of apology strategies. Hence, the null hypothesis that L2 pragmatic competence does not significantly develop among different levels of L2 linguistic competence. has been rejected Based on the significant contribution of

social familiarity and social power, the present study also rejects the null hypothesis that Arab and Chinese L1 cultures and languages do not make significant contribution to the development of L2 pragmatic competence. Based on the insignificant influence of the time in the UK, the present study corroborates the null hypothesis that length of stay does not make a significant difference to the development of L2 pragmatic competence.

9.5 Recommendations

The present study provides some recommendations for further research and studies on ILP. These recommendations are as follows:

1. The development of Saudi EFL learners' L2 pragmatic competence could be compared to that of other Arab nationalities that demonstrate some cultural differences to the Saudi culture like Moroccan, Algerian or Tunisian EFL learners. Such a study will reflect on the impact of specific national cultures under the main umbrella of Arab culture.
2. Similarly, the development of Chinese EFL learners' L2 pragmatic competence could be compared to that of other Asian nationalities like Korean, Japanese or Malaysian. Those studies could indicate the differences among Asian cultures and their impact on developing L2 pragmatic competence in English.
3. The present study can be replicated with the inclusion of some other social variables like gender and age to investigate their influence on the development of L2 pragmatic competence.
4. The methodological difficulties which ILP researchers data collection, participants and assessors recruitment, and their maintenance over different stages of data collection could be addressed.
5. The impact of using other types of DCT like free and oral DCTs on the development of L2 pragmatic competence could be examined as well.
6. The present study can be replicated using other types of FTAs like request, refusal or complaints.
7. There is a need to conduct an empirical study on the impact of L2 pragmatic instruction on the development of L2 pragmatic competence of both Saudi and Chinese participants.
8. There is a need to carry out a study on the effect of L2 linguistic competence of Saudi and Chinese EFL learners on developing their L2 pragmatic competence.

9. A study could be conducted on how Saudi and Chinese EFL learners comprehend and become competent in the L2 theoretical linguistic knowledge (rules of grammar, phonology, syntax, etc.). Such a study should investigate and devise solutions for the challenges posed to Saudi and Chinese EFL learners' by comprehension of grammatical, syntactic, structural, and phonological rules of English.
10. An expanded empirical study could be conducted on the impact of acculturation features of Saudi and Chinese EFL learners' L2 attitude types on avoiding ILP failure.
11. A study could be carried out to investigate the impact of Saudi and Chinese EFL learners' awareness of L2 cultural norms and values on the development of their L2 pragmatic competence.
12. A study could be carried out to examine the possibility of teaching L2 culture within the EFL curricula in the KSA and China.

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Appendix A
Discourse Completion Task (DCT)
English Version

Instructions

This questionnaire describes eighteen situations in which you want to apologise to someone. Please read each description carefully and write down **what you think you would really say in that situation**. Write as much or as little as you think you would actually say. You do not need to use all the space, and if you need more space you can continue overleaf.

Prior to writing your responses, please enter your participant number where indicated.

All responses will be kept anonymous and will be treated with full confidentiality. Thank you for your time.

Please complete this questionnaire in English.

Participant number:

Situations:

Situation 1: (Missing deadline)

It happened that your close friend since being small became your office manager. You promised him/her that you would complete a certain task for an important deadline but personal circumstances prevented you from doing it. The company lost an important contract because of this. You want to apologise. What do you say?

.....
.....

(Close familiarity, Low-high power, Serious imposition)

Situation 2: (Seminar preparation)

Your seminar leader is someone you know quite well as you are both in the same sports team and he/she is related to you. You have done the preparation for the seminar, on a paper handout, but have left it at home. You want to apologise to him/her. What do you say?

.....
.....

(Close familiarity, Low-high power, Mild imposition)

Situation 3: (Lecture notes)

Your classmate lent you their lecture notes, and you forgot to return them. Now it is the day before the exam and they are very upset because they needed the notes to revise. You want to apologise to your classmate for not returning their lecture notes in time for them to be able to prepare for the exam. What do you say?

.....
.....

(Close familiarity, Equal power, Serious imposition)

Situation 4: (Coffee)

You are meeting your friend for a coffee and you are 5 minutes late. You want to apologise for being late. What do you say?

.....
.....

(Close familiarity, Equal power, Mild imposition)

Situation 5: (Promotion)

Last year, you were promoted, so that you are now the boss of your old colleagues, with whom you have always had a friendly relationship. This year, one of these colleagues wanted to apply for promotion, and needed you to authorise their application. You forgot to do it by the deadline, so now they will have to wait a year before they can apply again.

What do you say?

.....
.....

(Close familiarity, High-low power, Serious imposition)

Situation 6: (Team coach)

As the coach of a football team, you criticised one of your team who missed a penalty kick. Nevertheless, your team won the match. You want to apologise to the player you criticised.

What do you say?

.....
.....

(Close familiarity, High-low power, Mild imposition)

Situation 7: (Tuition fees)

You have private tuition to help with your studies and have forgotten to bring the money to pay your tutor. This is the third time in a row that you have forgotten the money. It is your last private lesson because the tutor is moving away to work in another country.

What do you say?

.....
.....

(Acquaintance familiarity, Low-high power, Serious imposition)

Situation 8 (First day)

You are newly appointed in a job. Unfortunately you arrive late on your first working day. You apologise to the manager who happens to be in the office when you arrive.

What do you say?

.....
.....

(Acquaintance familiarity, Low-high power, Mild imposition)

Situation 9: (Offended colleague)

During a recent meeting, you seriously offended a colleague whom you know only slightly. After the meeting, they tell you they are extremely upset and threaten to make a formal complaint to your boss. What do you say?

.....
.....

(Acquaintance familiarity, Equal power, Serious imposition)

Situation 10: (Letter)

It is your job to distribute the post in your office. You realise you have given a letter to the wrong person. When you realise your mistake, you rush over to the person who mistakenly got the letter and luckily he/she has not yet opened it. You want to apologise to the person you gave the letter to. What do you say?

.....
.....
(Acquaintance familiarity, Equal power, Mild imposition)

Situation 11: (New assistant)

You are the manager of an office. A new assistant has recently started working for you. You forgot to submit a form to your wages department, so your assistant will not be paid until the following month. What do you say?

.....
.....
(Acquaintance familiarity, High-low power, Serious imposition)

Situation 12: (Marking)

You are a tutor and you left a student's work in your office. All the students got their marks except him/her. The student will be able to collect their work after the class. You want to apologise to that student. What do you say?

.....
.....
(Acquaintance familiarity, High-low power, Mild imposition)

Situation 13: (Hot soup)

You are a waiter. You accidentally spill boiling hot soup onto a customer and want to apologise. What do you say?

.....
.....
(Stranger familiarity, Low-high power, Serious imposition)

Situation 14 (Job interview)

You had a job interview at 6 pm, but you arrive 5 minutes late because of the traffic jam. You want apologise to the manager who will interview you. What do you say?

.....
.....

(Stranger familiarity, Low-high power, Mild imposition)

Situation 15: (Injured foot)

As you rush out of a building, you accidentally step on someone's injured foot. It is obvious that you have caused them a lot of pain and made the injury worse. You want to apologise.

What do you say?

.....

.....

(Stranger familiarity, Equal power, Serious imposition)

Situation 16: (Crowded train)

On a crowded train you accidentally bump into someone slightly. You want to apologise.

What do you say?

.....

.....

(Stranger familiarity, Equal power, Mild imposition)

Situation 17: (Evidence)

You give evidence in court that results in the conviction of someone you don't know. Later, you realise you made a mistake, and the conviction is overturned. You have an opportunity to apologise to the person you gave evidence against. What do you say?

.....

.....

(Stranger familiarity, High-low power, Serious imposition)

Situation 18 (Interviewer)

You are a manager, and you were supposed to meet a job applicant for an interview. However, you were half an hour late. When you arrive you find the applicant waiting. You want to apologise. What do you say?

.....

.....

(Stranger familiarity, High-low power, Mild imposition)

Thank you very much for your attention and time. I do appreciate your participation and help you have rendered me in fulfilling this task.

Appendix A1

The English and Arabic Version of the questionnaire

النسخة العربية للاستبانة

Discourse Completion Task (DCT)

Instructions

تعليمات

This questionnaire describes eighteen situations in which you want to apologise to someone. Please read each description carefully and write down **what you think you would really say in that situation**. Write as much or as little as you think you would actually say. You do not need to use all the space, and if you need more space you can continue overleaf.

تضم هذه الاستبانة ثمانية عشر موقفا تقوم أنت فيهم بالأعتذار لشخص آخر، من فضلك أقرأ بعناية كل موقف و أكتب ما تعتقد أنك حقا ستقوله في هذا الموقف، أكتب كثيرا أو قليلا مثلما تعتقد أنك سوف تقوله فعلا في مثل هذه المواقف، قد لا تحتاج أن تملأ كل الفراغ المحدد للكتابة و لكن إذا أحتجت ذلك تستطيع الاستمرار في الكتابة على ورقة الاستبانة.

Prior to writing your responses, please enter your participant number where indicated.

All responses will be kept anonymous and will be treated with full confidentiality. Thank you for your time.

قبل أن تبدأ في كتابة إجابتك، فضلا، قم بإدخال رقم المشارك في الخانة المحددة لذلك، لن يتم الكشف عن هوية المشارك وإجاباته وسيتم التعامل معها بسرية تامة.

Please complete this questionnaire in English.

من فضلك أكمل الاستبانة باللغة الإنجليزية

Participant number:

رقم المشارك:

Situations:

المواقف :

Situation 1: (Missing deadline)

الموقف 1: (تجاوز المهلة المحددة)

It happened that your close friend since being small became your office manager. You promised him/her that you would complete a certain task for an important deadline but personal circumstances prevented you from doing it. The company lost an important contract because of this. You want to apologise. What do you say?

سبق وان حدث أن صديقك المقرب منذ الصغر أصبح مديرك في العمل ، وقد وعدته/ أو وعدتها بأستكمال عمل ما خلال مهلة محددة، لكن ظروفك الشخصية قد حالت دون ذلك ، ولهذا السبب خسرت الشركة تعاقدًا هامًا، وأنت تريد أن تعتذر له/ لها فماذا تقول؟

.....

.....

Situation 2: (Seminar preparation)

الموقف 2: (الأستعداد للندوة)

Your seminar leader is someone you know quite well as you are both in the same sports team and he/she is related to you. You have done the preparation for the seminar, on a paper handout, but have left it at home. You want to apologise to him/her. What do you say?

أنك تعرف القائم على تنظيم الندوة جيدا حيث أنكما عضوان في نفس الفريق الرياضي، إضافة إلى أنك ترتبط به/بها بصلة قرابة ، وقد قمت فعلا بكتابة كافة الأستعدادات لتنظيم الندوة على ورقة عمل و لكنك تركتها بالمنزل ، وأنت تريد أن تعتذر له/ لها فماذا تقول؟

.....

.....

Situation 3: (Lecture notes)

الموقف 3: (مذكرة المحاضرات)

Your classmate lent you their lecture notes, and you forgot to return them. Now it is the day before the exam and they are very upset because they needed the notes to revise. You want to apologise to your classmate for not returning their lecture notes in time for them to be able to prepare for the exam. What do you say?

قمت بإستلاف مذكرة المحاضرات من زميلك بالدراسة ونسيت أن أعيدها إليه، و قبل الأمتحان بيوم هو غاضب لأنك تأخرت في إعادة المذكرة إليه لأنه يريد مراجعة دروسه و الأستعداد للأمتحان، فماذا تقول له؟

.....

.....

Situation 4: (Coffee)

الموقف 4: (تناول القهوة)

You are meeting your friend for a coffee and you are 5 minutes late. You want to apologise for being late. What do you say?

أعطيت موعدا للقاء صديقك لتناول القهوة ولكنك تأخرت على الموعد خمس دقائق وتريد أن تعتذر له فماذا تقول؟

.....

.....

Situation 5: (Promotion)

الموقف 5: (الترقية)

Last year you were promoted, so that you are now the boss of your old colleagues, with whom you have always had a friendly relationship. This year, one of these colleagues wanted to apply for promotion, and needed you to authorise their application. You forgot to do it by the deadline, so now they will have to wait a year before they can apply again.

What do you say?

تمت ترقيةك العام الماضى وأصبحت رئيسا لزملائك القدامى فى العمل الذين كانت تربطك بهم دائما علاقة صداقة، وفى هذا العام يريد أحد هؤلاء الزملاء التقدم للترقية ويحتاج توقيعك لأعتماد طلبه للترقية، ولكنك نسيت إعتماد الطلب والتوقيع عليه قبل المهلة المحددة لتقديمه ، لذا يجب عليه الانتظار عام آخر من أجل التقدم للترقية مرة أخرى، وتريد الاعتذار له. فماذا تقول ؟

.....

.....

Situation 6: (Team coach)

الموقف 6: (مدرب الفريق)

As the coach of a football team, you criticised one of your team who missed a penalty kick. Nevertheless, your team won the match. You want to apologise to the player you criticised.

What do you say?

بصفتك مدرب فريق كرة القدم أنتقدت أحد اللاعبين بالفريق لأنه أضاع ضربة جزاء، ومع ذلك فقد فاز فريقك بالمباراة، وتريد أن تعتذر للاعب. فماذا تقول؟

.....

.....

Situation 7: (Tuition fees)

الموقف 7: (رسوم الدرس الخاص)

You have private tuition to help with your studies and have forgotten to bring the money to pay your tutor. This is the third time in a row that you have forgotten the money. It is your last private lesson because the tutor is moving away to work in another country.

What do you say?

تأخذ درسا خصوصيا للمساعدة في تحصيلك الدراسي وقد نسيت أن تحضر رسوم الدرس للمدرس ، وهذه هي المرة الثالثة على التوالي تنسى أن تحضر رسوم الدرس، وهذه هي الحصة الأخيرة لأن المدرس سوف ينتقل للعمل في بلد آخر ، وتريد أن تعتذر فماذا تقول؟

.....
.....

Situation 8 (First day)

الموقف 8: (اليوم الأول)

You are newly appointed in a job. Unfortunately you arrive late on your first working day.

You apologise to the manager who happens to be in the office when you arrive.

What do you say?

تم تعيينك حديثا في وظيفة ولسوء الحظ وصلت متأخرا في أول أيام العمل ، وتريد أن تعتذر للمدير الذى تصادف وجوده في المكتب حال وصولك. فماذا تقول؟

.....
.....

Situation 9: (Offended colleague)

الموقف 9: (إهانة زميل)

During a recent meeting, you seriously offended a colleague whom you know only slightly.

After the meeting, they tell you they are extremely upset and threaten to make a formal

complaint to your boss. What do you say?

خلال الاجتماع الأخير أهنت بشدة زميل لك لست على معرفة وثيقة به، وبعد الاجتماع أعرب لك عن استيائه الشديد من إهانتك له وهدد بتقديم شكوى لرئيسك في العمل. فماذا تقول له؟

.....
.....

Situation 10: (Letter)

الموقف 10: (الخطاب)

It is your job to distribute the post in your office. You realise you have given a letter to the wrong person. When you realise your mistake, you rush over to the person who mistakenly got the letter and luckily he/she has not yet opened it. You want to apologise to the person you gave the letter to. What do you say?

إن مهمتك في العمل توزيع البريد على العاملين بالمكتب، وأكتشفت أنك أعطيت بطريقة الخطأ خطاباً لشخص غير صاحبه ، و مع أكتشافك للخطأ هرولت مسرعاً إلى الشخص الذي أعطيته الخطاب بطريقة الخطأ و لحسن الحظ أنه / أنها لم تفتحه بعد، و تريد أن تعتذر لذلك الشخص الذي أعطيته الخطاب. فماذا تقول له/ لها؟

.....
.....

Situation 11: (New assistant)

الموقف 11: (المساعد الجديد)

You are the manager of an office. A new assistant has recently started working for you. You forgot to submit a form to your wages department, so your assistant will not be paid until the following month. What do you say?

تعمل مديراً لأحد المكاتب حيث بدأ حديثاً المساعد الجديد لك بالعمل في المكتب ، وقد نسيت تقديم إستمارة راتبه إلى قسم المالية ، وبالتالي لن يستطيع المساعد الجديد الحصول على راتبه حتى الشهر القادم، تريد الاعتذار. فماذا تقول له؟

.....
.....

Situation 12: (Marking)

الموقف 12: (تصحيح أوراق الطلاب)

You are a tutor and you left a student's work in your office. All the students got their marks except him/her. The student will be able to collect their work after the class. You want to apologise to that student. What do you say?

تعمل معلماً وقد نسيت أوراق نتائج أحد الطلاب/الطالبات في مكتبك، وقد حصل كل الطلاب / الطالبان على درجاتهم عدا هذا الطالب /هذه الطالبة، وسوف يحصل الطالب/ه على ورقته ونتيجته بعد الحصة، و تريد الاعتذار له. فماذا تقول؟

.....
.....

Situation 13: (Hot soup)

الموقف 13: (الحساء الساخن)

You are a waiter. You accidentally spill boiling hot soup onto a customer and want to apologise. What do you say?

تعمل مباشرة في أحد المطاعم و قد قمت بسكب الحساء الساخن لدرجة الغليان على أحد الزبائن و تريد الاعتذار له. فماذا تقول؟

.....
.....

Situation 14 (Job interview)

الموقف 14: (مقابلة للحصول على فرصة عمل)

You had a job interview at 6 pm, but you arrive 5 minutes late because of the traffic jam.

You want apologise to the manager who will interview you. What do you say?

لديك مقابلة للحصول على فرصة عمل في السادسة مساء وقد وصلت متأخرا خمس دقائق لإزدحام المرور، و تريد الاعتذار للمدير الذي سيقوم بإجراء المقابلة لك، فماذا تقول؟

.....
.....

Situation 15: (Injured foot)

الموقف 15: (إصابة القدم)

As you rush out of a building, you accidentally step on someone's injured foot. It is obvious that you have caused them a lot of pain and made the injury worse. You want to apologise.

What do you say?

بينما كنت تهرول مسرعا خارج المبنى اصدمت بقدم شخص آخر ولديه أصابته، و من الواضح أنك تسببت له في ألم مبرح و أصبته إصابة بالغة، و تريد الاعتذار له. فماذا تقول؟

.....
.....

Situation 16: (Crowded train)

الموقف 16: (القطار المزدحم)

On a crowded train you accidentally bump into someone slightly. You want to apologise.

What do you say?

في القطار المزدحم أصدمت بشخص لا تعرفه، فماذا تقول له؟

.....
.....
Situation 17: (Evidence)

الموقف 17: (البرهان)

You give evidence in court that results in the conviction of someone you don't know. Later, you realise you made a mistake, and the conviction is overturned. You have an opportunity to apologise to the person you gave evidence against. What do you say?

قمت بالشهادة في المحكمة مما نتج عنها إدانة شخص لا تعرفه، ولاحقا اكتشفت أنك أرتكبت خطأ وتم إسقاط الإدانة ،
وحانت لك فرصة الاعتذار للشخص الذي أدليت خطأ بالشهادة ضده، فماذا تقول له؟

.....
.....

Situation 18 (Interviewer)

الموقف 18: (إجراء مقابلة للعمل)

You are a manager, and you were supposed to meet a job applicant for an interview. However, you were half an hour late. When you arrive you find the applicant waiting. You want to apologise. What do you say?

تعمل مديرا ومن المفترض أن تقابل أحد المتقدمين للعمل وإجراء مقابلة له ، ولكنك تأخرت نصف الساعة وعند وصولك
وجدت المتقدم للعمل في إنتظارك، وتريد الاعتذار له. فماذا تقول؟

.....
.....

Thank you very much for your attention and time. I do appreciate your participation and help you rendered in fulfilling this task.

شكرا جزيلا على اهتمامك ووقتكم ، ولك التقدير على المساعدة في إستكمال هذه الأستبانة.

Appendix A2
The English and Chinese Version of the questionnaire
問卷的英文和中文版本
Discourse Completion Task (DCT)

Instructions

说明

This questionnaire describes eighteen situations in which you want to apologise to someone. Please read each description carefully and write down **what you think you would really say in that situation**. Write as much or as little as you think you would actually say. You do not need to use all the space, and if you need more space you can continue overleaf.

本问卷描述了十八种需要你向某人道歉的情形。请仔细阅读每一段描述，写下**你认为你这样的场合里会说的话**。你认为你实际会说多少话，就如实写下多少。你不必写满所有的空白处；如果需要更多空白的话，可以在背面继续。

Prior to writing your responses, please enter your participant number where indicated.

All responses will be kept anonymous and will be treated with full confidentiality. Thank you for your time.

在写下你的回应之前，请在提示处填入你的被试号码。所有的回应都会保证匿名并完全保密。感谢您的参与。

Please complete this questionnaire in English.

请用英语完成此问卷。

Participant number:

被试号码:

Situations

题设情形

Situation 1: (Missing deadline)

情形一：（错过截止日期）

It happened that your close friend since being small became your office manager. You promised him/her that you would complete a certain task for an important deadline but personal circumstances prevented you from doing it. The company lost an important contract because of this. You want to apologise. What do you say?

你童年时的好友碰巧成为了你的办公室主任。你答应他/她在**一个重要的截止日期之前完成某项任务**，但由于**个人原因**你没能完成。由于这个问题，公司失去了一份重要的合同。你想要道歉，你会说什么？

.....
.....

Situation 2: (Seminar preparation)

情形二：（准备研讨会）

Your seminar leader is someone you know quite well as you are both in the same sports team and he/she is related to you. You have done the preparation for the seminar, on a paper handout, but have left it at home. You want to apologise to him/her. What do you say?

你所在的研讨会的组织者是一个你很熟悉的人，你们两人都在同一个体育队，而且他/她和你还有亲戚关系。你已经为研讨会做好了准备并写了纸质提纲，但把它忘在了家里。你想要对他/她道歉，你会说什么？

.....
.....

Situation 3: (Lecture notes)

情形三：（课堂笔记）

Your classmate lent you their lecture notes, and you forgot to return them. Now it is the day before the exam and they are very upset because they needed the notes to revise. You want to apologise to your classmate for not returning their lecture notes in time for them to be able to prepare for the exam. What do you say?

你的同学把课堂笔记借给了你，而你忘了把它们还回去。现在是考试前一天，他们非常沮丧，因为他们还需要笔记来复习。由于你忘了及时把笔记还回去导致同学没法准备考试，你想对你的同学道歉，你会说什么？

.....
.....

Situation 4: (Coffee)

情形四：（喝咖啡）

You are meeting your friend for a coffee and you are 5 minutes late. You want to apologise for being late. What do you say?

你和你的朋友碰面去喝咖啡，你迟到了五分钟。你想因为迟到而道歉，你会说什么？

.....
.....

Situation 5: (Promotion)

情形五：（升职）

Last year you were promoted, so that you are now the boss of your old colleagues, with whom you have always had a friendly relationship. This year, one of these colleagues wanted to apply for promotion, and needed you to authorise their application. You forgot to do it by the deadline, so now they will have to wait a year before they can apply again.

What do you say?

去年你升职了，现在你是你以前的同事的上司，而你们还维持着友好的关系。今年，你的一位同事想申请升职，需要你来批准他们的申请。而你忘记在截止日期之前做这件事情，现在他们必须再等一年才能申请。你会说什么？

.....
.....

Situation 6: (Team coach)

情形六：（球队教练）

As the coach of a football team, you criticised one of your team who missed a penalty kick. Nevertheless, your team won the match. You want to apologise to the player you criticised.

What do you say?

作为足球队的教练，你批评了一位罚失点球的队员，不过你的队伍还是赢得了这场比赛。你想向被你批评的队员道歉，你会说什么？

.....
.....

Situation 7: (Tuition fees)

情形七：（家教费）

You have private tuition to help with your studies and have forgotten to bring the money to pay your tutor. This is the third time in a row that you have forgotten the money. It is your last private lesson because the tutor is moving away to work in another country.

What do you say?

你请了家教来帮助你学习，但你忘记带钱付给你的家教。这已经是你连续第三次忘了带钱了。这是你的最后一堂家教课，因为你的家教要搬去另一个国家工作了。你会说什么？

.....
.....

Situation 8 (First day)

You are newly appointed in a job. Unfortunately you arrive late on your first working day.

You apologise to the manager who happens to be in the office when you arrive.

What do you say?

情形八：（工作的第一天）

你刚刚获得一份工作。不幸的是，你第一天工作就迟到了。你向在你到达时刚好在办公室里的经理道歉，你会说什么？

.....
.....

Situation 9: (Offended colleague)

情形九：（被惹怒的同事）

During a recent meeting, you seriously offended a colleague who you know only slightly.

After the meeting, they tell you they are extremely upset and threaten to make a formal complaint to your boss. What do you say?

在最近的一次会议中，你严重地惹怒了一位同事，而你只是略微知道他。在会议后，他们告诉你他们非常生气，威胁说要向你的老板正式投诉你。你会说什么？

.....
.....

Situation 10: (Letter)

情形十：（信）

It is your job to distribute the post in your office. You realise you have given a letter to the wrong person. When you realise your mistake, you rush over to the person who mistakenly got the letter and luckily he/she has not yet opened it. You want to apologise to the person you gave the letter to. What do you say?

你负责在办公室里分发信件。你意识到把一封信发给了错误的人。当你意识到你的错误时，你赶到了错拿了信的人身边，幸好他/她还没有拆开信。你想向你错给了信的人道歉，你会说什么？

.....
.....

Situation 11: (New assistant)

情形十一：（新来的助手）

You are the manager of an office. A new assistant has recently started working for you. You forgot to submit a form to your wages department, so your assistant will not be paid until the following month. What do you say?

你是一个办公室的经理。一位新来的助手最近刚开始为你工作。你忘了向你们财务部门提交一份表格，所以你的助手需要等到下个月才能领到工资。你会说什么？

.....
.....

Situation 12: (Marking)

情形十二：（批改作业）

You are a tutor and you left a student's work in your office. All the students got their marks except him/her. The student will be able to collect their work after the class. You want to apologise to that student. What do you say?

你是一名助教，你把一个学生的作业落在了教室里。其他所有的学生都收到了批改，只有他/她没有。这位学生能在课后领到他的作业。你想向这位学生道歉。你会说什么？

.....
.....

Situation 13: (Hot soup)

情形十三：（热汤）

You are a waiter. You accidentally spill boiling hot soup onto a customer and want to apologise. What do you say?

你是一名服务员。你不小心把滚烫的热汤洒在了一位顾客的身上，你想向他/她道歉。你会说什么？

.....

.....

Situation 14 (Job interview)

情形十四：（工作面试）

You had a job interview at 6 pm, but you arrive 5 minutes late because of the traffic jam. You want to apologise to the manager who will interview you. What do you say?

你在下午六点有一个工作面试，但是由于堵车你迟到了五分钟。你想向要面试你的经理道歉，你会说什么？

.....

.....

Situation 15: (Injured foot)

情形十五：（受伤脚）

As you rush out of a building, you accidentally step on someone's injured foot. It is obvious that you have caused them a lot of pain and made the injury worse. You want to apologise. What do you say?

当你冲出一栋大楼的时候，你不小心踩到了一个人的受伤脚。很明显这让他/她非常疼痛，让伤势更加严重了。你想要道歉。你会说什么？

.....

.....

Situation 16: (Crowded train)

情形十六：（拥挤的火车）

On a crowded train you accidentally bump into someone slightly. You want to apologise.
What do you say?

在一辆拥挤的火车上，你不小心轻轻地撞到了某个人。你想要道歉。你会说什么？

.....
.....

Situation 17: (Evidence)

情形十七：（证据）

You give evidence in court that results in the conviction of someone you don't know. Later, you realise you made a mistake, and the conviction is overturned. You have an opportunity to apologise to the person you gave evidence against. What do you say?

你在法庭上提出了证据，导致一个你不认识的人被定了罪。之后，你意识到你犯了一个错误，定罪被撤销了。你有一个机会向你作证指控的人道歉，你会说什么？

.....
.....

Situation 18 (Interviewer)

情形十八：（面试官）

You are a manager, and you were supposed to meet a job applicant for an interview. However, you were half an hour late. When you arrive you find the applicant waiting. You want to apologise. What do you say?

你是一位经理，你需要与一位工作申请人见面并进行面试。然而，你迟到了半个小时，当你到达的时候发现申请人正在等你。你想要道歉。你会说什么？

.....
.....

Thank you very much for your attention and time. I do appreciate your participation and help you rendered in fulfilling this task.

非常感谢您的关注和时间。我非常感谢在完成这项任务时您所提供的参与和帮助。

Appendix A3

Discourse Completion Task Rating Grid

Participant number:

s/n	Situation	Overall success ¹	Formality ²	Notes: Please briefly describe why you rated the way you did
1	Missing deadline			
2	Seminar preparation			
3	Lecture notes			
4	Coffee			

¹**Overall Success:** Please judge the overall success of the apology made by the respondent and rate on a scale of 0-5 as follows:

5 = I would feel very satisfied with the speaker's apology

4 = I would feel satisfied with the speaker's apology

3 = I would feel somewhat satisfied with the speaker's apology

2 = I would feel unsatisfied with the speaker's apology

1 = I would feel very unsatisfied with the speaker's apology

0 = I would feel the participant appears not to have understood either the situation or the task

²**Formality:** For rating purposes, "formality" is the degree to which the respondent's language appropriately acknowledges the social distance between you in the given social situation. Please rate the participants apology as follows:

3 = excessively formal for the situation

2 = appropriate for the situation in terms of formality

1 = excessively informal for the situation

NA = Impossible to assess the formality

5	Promotion			
6	Team coach			
7	Tuition fees			
8	First day			
9	Offended colleague			
10	Letter			
11	New assistant			
12	Marking			
13	Hot soup			
14	Job interview			
15	Injured foot			
16	Crowded train			

17	Evidence			
18	Interviewer			

Appendix B

Role Play Scenarios: Instructions for participants

Each of the following scenarios outlines a situation in which you need to apologise to someone. These differ in terms of your relationship with the other person, and how well you know one another. Please read the situations carefully. If there is anything you don't understand, ask for clarification.

You are going to act out these situations. Please speak in English and say what you think you would say in the real-life situation, as naturally as possible. Please respond in role to everything the interlocutor says. The role-play will only end when the interlocutor tells you that it has finished.

The role-plays will be audio recorded and observed by a researcher. The whole process should take no more than 15 minutes. After the role-plays, please come to Room 2.

Situation 1

You are going to the café to get a take-away cup of coffee, and your boss asks you to bring one back for them, too. However, you get talking to someone at the café, and forget the drink for your boss. Now you are back in the office with your boss.

Situation 2

You are travelling on a bus. You place a heavy bag on the overhead shelf above another passenger and sit down nearby. Suddenly the bus stops, and the bag falls onto the head of the other passenger, whom you do not know.

Situation 3

You borrow your friend's car to go to the shops. But when leaving the car park, you scrape the car against a wall, and the car is badly damaged. Now you are returning the car to your friend.

Situation 4

In a crowded elevator, you accidentally stand on someone's toe.

Situation 5

Your friend at work has a new office and you want to see it. You open the door, but it is the wrong room. The person at the desk is one of your senior managers, who you have never spoken to before.

Situation 6

Your new boss, whom you don't know very well, asks for your help with transferring some files to their computer from a USB stick. While attempting to do this, you make a mistake, and the files are lost from both the USB stick and the computer.

Situation 7

You are meeting your friend for lunch at a restaurant and you are 15 minutes late because of a traffic jam.

Situation 8

You happen to meet your boss at the supermarket, and they offer you a lift home. You put your shopping on the back seat of the car. As you are getting out of the car, you pick up your shopping bag, and realise that a bottle of olive oil has leaked all over the seat of your boss's car. It will be extremely difficult to get the seat clean again.

Appendix B1

Role Play Instructions for Interlocutor

Each of the following scenarios outlines a situation in which the participant will need to apologise to you. In each case, you and the participant have particular roles, which differ in terms of the relationship between you, and how well you know one another.

For each scenario, please outline the situation to the participant (they will already have previewed them translated into their first language), and set up the role-play, including managing the timing.

Please play your role as realistically as you can, and do not simply accept the first attempt at an apology if that is not what you think you would really do in the given situation – you might, for example, want to press for some compensation in cases of serious loss. Please try to be as consistent as possible in your initial approach and attitude to each participant, but react as naturally as possible to their response. End each role-play when you feel the interaction is concluded.

After each individual role-play, please complete the rating sheet for the participant. There are three parts for each situation: overall success, formality, and notes:

1. Overall Success: Please judge the overall success of the apology made by the respondent and rate on a scale of 1-5 as follows:

5 = I would feel very satisfied with the speaker's apology

4 = I would feel satisfied with the speaker's apology

3 = I would feel somewhat satisfied with the speaker's apology

2 = I would feel unsatisfied with the speaker's apology

1 = I would feel very unsatisfied with the speaker's apology

Please disregard grammatical errors unless they inhibit communication. If you cannot understand what the speaker is trying to communicate because of grammatical errors, then adjust your score accordingly.

2. Formality: For rating purposes, "formality" is the degree to which the respondent's language appropriately acknowledges the social distance between you in the given social situation. Please rate the participants' apology as follows:

3 = excessively formal for the situation

2 = appropriate for the situation in terms of formality

1 = excessively informal for the situation

3. Notes: Please briefly describe why you rated the way you did.

Situation 1

You are the boss and one of your staff is going to the cafe to get a take-away cup of coffee.

You ask them to bring one back for you, too. Start the role-play at the point when they return to the office. It will turn out that they have forgotten your drink.

The participant will have received these instructions:

‘You are going to the café to get a take-away cup of coffee, and your boss asks you to bring one back for them, too. However, you get talking to someone at the café, and forget the drink for your boss. Now you are back in the office with your boss.’

Situation 2

You are travelling on a bus. A passenger whom you don't know places a heavy bag on the overhead shelf above you and sits down nearby. Suddenly the bus stops, and the bag falls onto your head. It really hurts your head and neck. Start the role-play at the point when the bus stops.

The participant will have received these instructions:

‘You are travelling on a bus. You place a heavy bag on the overhead shelf above another passenger and sit down nearby. Suddenly the bus stops, and the bag falls onto the head of the other passenger, whom you do not know.’

Situation 3

You lent your car to a friend to go to the shops. Now your friend is returning the car to you. Start the role-play at the point when they come back to return the car. It will turn out that they have had an accident and damaged the car.

The participant will have received these instructions:

‘You borrow your friend's car to go to the shops. But when leaving the car park, you scrape the car against a wall, and the car is badly damaged. Now you are returning the car to your friend.’

Situation 4

In a crowded elevator, someone accidentally stands on your toe. Start the role-play at the point when they stand on your toe.

The participant will have received these instructions:

‘In a crowded elevator, you accidentally stand on someone's toe.’

Situation 5

You are a senior manager and you are working at your desk in your office. Suddenly, a junior member of staff who you have never spoken to before opens the door. Start the role-play at the point when they open the door. It will turn out that they have the wrong office.

The participant will have received these instructions:

‘Your friend at work has a new office and you want to see it. You open the door, but it is the wrong room. The person at the desk is one of your senior managers, who you have never spoken to before.’

Situation 6

You’ve recently got a new job as a manager and you ask for the help of one of your staff, whom you don’t know very well, to transfer some files to your computer from a USB stick. Start the role-play at the point when the person is already working on your computer. It will turn out that they make a mistake and delete the files from both the USB stick and the computer.

The participant will have received these instructions:

‘Your new boss, whom you don’t know very well, asks for your help with transferring some files to their computer from a USB stick. While attempting to do this, you make a mistake, and the files are lost from both the USB stick and the computer.’

Situation 7

You are waiting for your friend at a restaurant. Start the role-play at the point when they arrive, 15 minutes late.

The participant will have received these instructions:

‘You are meeting your friend for lunch at a restaurant and you are 15 minutes late because of a traffic jam.’

Situation 8

You are a manager and happen to meet one of your staff at the supermarket. You offer them a lift home. They put their shopping on the back seat of your car. Start the role-play at the point when you arrive outside their house. It will turn out that a bottle of olive oil has leaked from their shopping all over the seat of your car. It will be extremely difficult to get the seat clean again.

The participant will have received these instructions:

‘You happen to meet your boss at the supermarket, and they offer you a lift home. You put your shopping on the back seat of the car. As you are getting out of the car, you pick up your shopping bag, and realise that a bottle of olive oil has leaked all over the seat of your boss’s car. It will be extremely difficult to get the seat clean again.’

Appendix B2

Role Play Scenarios Arabic Version

سيناريوهات الأدوار المسرحية

Instructions for participants

تعليمات المشاركين

Each of the following scenarios outlines a situation in which you need to apologise to someone. These differ in terms of your relationship with the other person, and how well you know one another. Please read the situations carefully. If there is anything you don't understand, ask for clarification.

كل من السيناريوهات التالية تلخص موقفا تحتاج أنت فيه لأن تعتذر إلى شخص ما بحيث تختلف علاقتك ومعرفتك بهذا الشخص، من فضلك أقرأ المواقف بعناية، و إذا لم تفهم شيئا فعليك السؤال من أجل الاستيضاح.

You are going to act out these situations. Please speak in English and say what you think you would say in the real-life situation, as naturally as possible. Please respond in role to everything the interlocutor says. The role-play will only end when the interlocutor tells you that it has finished.

سوف تقوم بتمثيل تلك المواقف، ومن فضلك تحدث بالإنجليزية و قل ما تعتقد أنك سوف تقوله في المواقف الحياتية الحقيقية، من فضلك أجب بتناوب الأدوار على كل ما يقوله راوى الموقف، و سوف ينتهي الموقف المسرحي عندما يقول لك الراوى أن الموقف أنتهى.

The role-plays will be audio recorded and observed by a researcher. The whole process should take no more than 15 minutes. After the role-plays, please come to Room 2.

سوف يتم تسجيل المواقف المسرحية حيث يقوم الباحث بمتابعتها، وجميع السيناريوهات المسحية لن تستغرق 15 دقيقة، وبعد أداء المواقف المسرحية من فضلك توجه إلى الغرفة رقم 2

Situation 1

You are going to the café to get a take-away cup of coffee, and your boss asks you to bring one back for them, too. However, you get talking to someone at the café, and forget the drink for your boss. Now you are back in the office with your boss.

الموقف لأول

بينما أنت ذاهب إلى المقهى لأخذ فنجانا من القهوة سفريا، إذا برئيسك يطلب منك إحضار فنجانا له أيضا، و مع ذلك أخذت تتحدث في المقهى إلى شخصا ما مما أنساك إحضار المشروب لرئيسك في العمل، والآن أنت عدت إلى العمل وقابلت رئيسك.

Situation 2

You are travelling on a bus. You place a heavy bag on the overhead shelf above another passenger and sit down nearby. Suddenly the bus stops, and the bag falls onto the head of the other passenger, who you do not know.

الموقف الثاني

تستقل الحافلة ومعك أغراض ثقيلة , ووضعتها على الرف الذي يعلو راكبا آخر , وجلست بالقرب من اغراضك، وعندما توقفت الحافلة فجأة إذ بالأغراض تسقط على رأس أحد الركاب الذي لا تعرفه من قبل.

Situation 3

You borrow your friend's car to go to the shops. But when leaving the car park, you scrape the car against a wall, and the car is badly damaged. Now you are returning the car to your friend.

الموقف الثالث

استعرت سيارة صديقك للذهاب إلى الأسواق ، وعند مغادرتك لموقف السيارات أصطدمت بالسيارة بالحائط بحيث تحطمت السيارة بشدة ، والآن أنت تعيد السيارة إلى صديقك.

Situation 4

In a crowded elevator, you accidentally stand on someone's toe.

الموقف الرابع

في المصعد المزدحم وقفت دون قصد على قدم أحد الأشخاص.

Situation 5

Your friend at work has a new office and you want to see it. You open the door, but it is the wrong room. The person at the desk is one of your senior managers, who you have never spoken to before.

الموقف الخامس

ذهبت إلى رؤية صديقك في العمل في مكتبه الجديد ، وعندما فتحت الباب أكتشفت أنك دخلت غرفة أخرى بالخطأ، وجدت أن الشخص الجالس على المكتب هو أحد كبار المدراء في العمل والذي لم تتحدث إليه من قبل أبدا.

Situation 6

Your new boss, whom you don't know very well, asks for your help with transferring some files to their computer from a USB stick. While attempting to do this, you make a mistake, and the files are lost from both the USB stick and the computer.

الموقف السادس

رئيسك الجديد في العمل الذي لا تعرفه جيدا طلب منك أن تساعد في نقل بعض الملفات إلى جهاز الكمبيوتر من فلاشة، وعندما حاولت فعل ذلك أخطأت مما أدى إلى فقدان الملفات من الفلاشة ومن جهاز الكمبيوتر.

Situation 7

You are meeting your friend for lunch at a restaurant and you are 15 minutes late because of a traffic jam.

الموقف السابع

أعطيت موعدا لمقابلة صديقك في أحد المطاعم لكنك وصلت متأخرا 15 دقيقة نظرا لإزدحام المرور.

Situation 8

You happen to meet your boss at the supermarket, and they offer you a lift home. You put your shopping on the back seat of the car. As you are getting out of the car, you pick up your shopping bag, and realise that a bottle of olive oil has leaked all over the seat of your boss's car. It will be extremely difficult to get the seat clean again.

الموقف الثامن

قابلت رئيسك بالعمل في السوبر ماركت وعرض توصيلك بسيارتك، و وضعت ما قمت بشرائه على المقعد الخلفى لسيارتك، و بينما أنت تغادر السيارة أخذت أغراضك التى اشتريتها واكتشفت أن زجاجة زيت زيتون قد أنسكب بعض منها على المقعد الخلفى كله لسيارة رئيسك بالعمل، وسوف يكون من الصعب جدا تنظيف المقعد وإزالة تلك البقع.

Appendix B3

Role Play Scenarios Chinese version

角色扮演情景

Instructions for participants

参与者说明

Each of the following scenarios outlines a situation in which you need to apologise to someone. These differ in terms of your relationship with the other person, and how well you know one another. Please read the situations carefully. If there is anything you don't understand, ask for clarification.

以下的所有情景里，每一项都描述了一个你需要向人道歉的情形。在这些情形里，你和另外一人的关系有所不同，你对他们的了解也不相同。请仔细阅读这些情形。如果有任何不明白的地方，请一定提出疑问。

You are going to act out these situations. Please speak in English and say what you think you would say in the real-life situation, as naturally as possible. Please respond in role to everything the interlocutor says. The role-play will only end when the interlocutor tells you that it has finished.

你需要表演出这些情形。在这一过程中请使用英语，说出你在这些实际情形中你认为自己会说的话，越自然越好。请按照自己的角色来回应对话者所说的话。整个角色扮演的过程只有在对话者宣告结束的时候才会结束。

The role-plays will be audio recorded and observed by a researcher. The whole process should take no more than 15 minutes. After the role-plays, please come to Room 2.

角色扮演的过程会被录音，同时由一位研究者进行观察。整个环节用时不会超过十五分钟。在完成角色扮演之后，请到二号房间。

Situation 1

情形一

You are going to the café to get a take-away cup of coffee, and your boss asks you to bring one back for them, too. However, you get talking to someone at the café, and forget the drink for your boss. Now you are back in the office with your boss.

你要去咖啡馆点一杯外带的咖啡，你的老板也让你给他带一杯。然而，你在咖啡馆和人聊天，忘记给你的老板带咖啡了。你现在回到了办公室，面对你的老板。

Situation 2

情形二

You are travelling on a bus. You place a heavy bag on the overhead shelf above another passenger and sit down nearby. Suddenly the bus stops, and the bag falls onto the head of the other passenger, who you do not know.

你在公交车上，把一个很沉的背包放在了另一位乘客头顶的置物架上，然后坐到了附近的座位上。公交车突然刹车了，背包掉在了那位你不认识的乘客的头上。

Situation 3

情形三

You borrow your friend's car to go to the shops. But when leaving the car park, you scrape the car against a wall, and the car is badly damaged. Now you are returning the car to your friend.

你借了朋友的车去购物，但是在离开停车场的时候你开车蹭到了墙，车子损坏得很严重。现在你要把车还给你的朋友。

Situation 4

情形四

In a crowded elevator, you accidentally stand on someone's toe.

在拥挤的电梯里，你不小心踩到了某人的脚。

Situation 5

情形五

Your friend at work has a new office and you want to see it. You open the door, but it is the wrong room. The person at the desk is one of your senior managers, who you have never spoken to before.

和你同事的朋友有了一间新的办公室，你想去参观一下。你打开了门，发现走错了房间。坐在桌前的人是你的一位上级主管，而你从来没和他说过话。

Situation 6

情形六

Your new boss, whom you don't know very well, asks for your help with transferring some files to their computer from a USB stick. While attempting to do this, you make a mistake, and the files are lost from both the USB stick and the computer.

你和你的新老板不是很熟悉，而他叫你帮他用U盘传送一些文件。在做这件事的时候，你犯了个错误，结果U盘和电脑上的文件都丢失了。

Situation 7

情形七

You are meeting your friend for lunch at a restaurant and you are 15 minutes late because of a traffic jam.

你和你的朋友在餐馆约好吃午饭，但是你因为堵车晚到了15分钟。

Situation 8

情形八

You happen to meet your boss at the supermarket, and they offer you a lift home. You put your shopping on the back seat of the car. As you are getting out of the car, you pick up your shopping bag, and realise that a bottle of olive oil has leaked all over the seat of your boss's car. It will be extremely difficult to get the seat clean again.

你在超市里碰到了你的老板，他提出送你回家。你把你买的东西放在车子的后座上。

在你下车的时候，你拿出了你的购物袋，意识到有一瓶橄榄油漏了，洒满了车的后座，很难被清理干净。

Appendix B4

Role Plays Rating Grid

Participant number:

s/n	Situation	Overall success ³	Formality ⁴	Notes: Please briefly describe why you rated the way you did
1	Forgetting coffee			
2	Heavy bag			
3	Crash car			
4	Stand on someone's toe			
5	Wrong room			
6	Delete files			
7	Late for an appointment			
8	Oil in car			

³**Overall Success:** Please judge the overall success of the apology made by the respondent and rate on a scale of 1-5 as follows:

5 = I would feel very satisfied with the speaker's apology

4 = I would feel satisfied with the speaker's apology

3 = I would feel somewhat satisfied with the speaker's apology

2 = I would feel unsatisfied with the speaker's apology

1 = I would feel very unsatisfied with the speaker's apology

⁴**Formality:** For rating purposes, "formality" is the degree to which the respondent's language appropriately acknowledges the social distance between you in the given social situation. Please rate the participants apology as follows:

3 = excessively formal for the situation

2 = appropriate for the situation in terms of formality

1 = excessively informal for the situation

Appendix C

Background Questionnaire (Usage and attitude) English version

Participant ID:

Date:

Instructions

Please answer the questions as completely as possible.

Please write in English.

Thank you very much for your assistance in carrying out this research.

Part 1

Please give the following information:

Age:

Native Language:

Date of Arrival in the UK:

How long have you been learning English?

How long have you been in England?

What is the level of your current English class (e.g. intermediate, upper intermediate)?

Have you ever been to an English-speaking country before this visit?

Please list all your visits to English-speaking countries and complete the table below (continue on reverse of page if necessary):

Name of country	Your age on arrival	Length of stay	Purpose of visit

Part 2

Please tick (✓) the answer that best applies to you:

s/n	Items	very good	good	sufficient	poor
1	In general, how would you rate your English language proficiency before you moved to the UK?				
2	In general, how would you rate your English language proficiency at present?				

3	In general, do you have more Arabic/Chinese- or English-speaking friends in the UK?				
5	only English-speaking friends				
4	both, but more English-speaking friends				
3	as many Arabic/Chinese- as English-speaking friends				
2	both, but more Arabic/Chinese-speaking friends				
1	only Arabic/Chinese-speaking friends				

4	Do you feel more at home with Arabic/Chinese or with English culture?				
1	with both, but more with Arabic/Chinese culture				
2	with both cultures, equally				
3	with both, but more with English culture				
4	with English culture				

5	Do you feel more comfortable speaking Arabic/Chinese or English?				
1	Arabic/Chinese				
2	no preference				
3	English				

s/n	Items	very important	important	slightly important	unimportant
6	Do you consider it important to maintain your English?				
7	Do you consider it important that your children can speak and understand English?				

s/n	Items	strongly agree	somewhat agree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree
8	I do not speak English at home.				
9	I must speak English with my friends at the college.				
10	I mainly speak English in the English class.				
11	I often switch from English to Arabic/Chinese during the English classes.				

12	I make many new friends in the UK.				
13	Most of the people with whom I speak English are not native speakers of English.				
14	I was taught by English native speakers at school in my country.				
15	I was brought up by English-speaking nannies in my country.				
16	I only speak English to pursue my study.				

s/n	Items	always	often	seldom	rarely
17	I listen to English songs.				
18	I watch English television programmes.				
19	I listen to English radio programmes.				
20	I read English newspapers, books or magazines.				
21	I like listening to the BBC.				

22. In the following tables, could you please indicate to what extent you use Arabic/Chinese (table 1) and English (table 2) in the domains provided?

s/n	Item	all the time	sometimes	rarely	very rarely
	I speak Arabic/Chinese:				
1	With relatives				
2	With friends				
3	To pets				
4	At work				
5	In shops				
6	At clubs or organisations				
7	At the college				

s/n	Item	all the time	sometimes	rarely	very rarely
	I speak English:				
1	With relatives				
2	With friends				
3	To pets				

4	At work				
5	In shops				
6	At clubs or organisations				
7	At the college				

s/n	Item	strongly agree	somewhat agree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree
23	Of all foreign languages, I like English the most.				
24	I don't really like English, but I speak it because it is useful.				
25	If English weren't taught at schools, I wouldn't try to learn it.				
26	Learning English is difficult.				
27	I hate learning English.				
28	Learning English is a waste of time.				
29	Learning English is fun.				
30	I have no difficulty understanding English.				
31	People who speak English are not patriotic.				
32	I hate to hear people speaking in English.				
33	I will never be good in English.				
34	I will try my best to master English.				
35	I don't like to speak English.				
36	Learning English is a good thing to do.				
37	To succeed in life, one must learn English.				
38	It is easy to get employment if you are good at English.				
39	I don't mind people speaking English to me.				

40	I often speak English at home since small.				
41	English will continue to be used as a world language.				
42	English has attained a solid position in the world than before.				
43	I am shy to speak in English.				
44	English should not be a compulsory subject at our national schools.				

Appendix C1

Background Questionnaire (Usage and attitude) English and Arabic

الاستبانة الشخصية

Arabic version

Participant ID:

رقم المشارك:

Date:

التاريخ:

Instructions

Please answer the questions as completely as possible.

Please write in English.

Thank you very much for your assistance in carrying out this research.

من فضلك أتم إجابة الأسئلة على قدر المستطاع على أن تكون الإجابة باللغة الإنجليزية
و لك جزيل الشكر و التقدير على المساعدة في إنجاز هذا البحث

Part 1

الجزء الأول :

Please give the following information:

من فضلك أعطى المعلومات التالية:

Age:

العمر:

Native Language:

اللغة الأم :

Date of Arrival in the UK:

تاريخ الوصول إلى المملكة المتحدة:

How long have you been learning English?

مدة وجودك في إنجلترا:

How long have you been in England?

مستواك الحالي في اللغة الإنجليزية (متوسط- فوق المتوسط) :

What is the level of your current English class (e.g. intermediate, upper intermediate)?

Have you ever been to an English-speaking country before this visit?

هل سبق لك زيارة أى من الدول الناطقة بالإنجليزية قبل هذه الزيارة؟

Please list all your visits to English-speaking countries and complete the table below (continue on reverse of page if necessary):

عند الإجابة بنعم أكمل الجدول التالي:

name of country اسم البلد	your age on arrival السن عند الوصول	length of stay مدة الإقامة	purpose of visit الغرض من الزيارة

Part 2

الجزء الثاني:

Please tick (✓) the answer that best applies to you:

ضع علامة (✓) أمام الخيار الذي يمثل إجابتك:

s/n الرقم	Items البند	very good جيد جدا	good جيد	sufficient مقبول	poor ضعيف
1	In general, how would you rate your English language proficiency before you moved to the UK? بصفة عامة كيف تصنف مستواك في اللغة الإنجليزية قبل القدوم إلى المملكة المتحدة؟				
2	In general, how would you rate your English language proficiency at present? بصفة عامة كيف تصنف مستواك في اللغة الإنجليزية في الوقت الحاضر؟				

3	In general, do you have more Arab or English-speaking friends in the UK? بصفة عامة هل أغلب أصدقائك في المملكة المتحدة من العرب أو من المتحدثين للغة الإنجليزية؟	
5	only English-speaking friends فقط أصدقاء متحدثين للغة الإنجليزية	
4	both, but more English-speaking friends كلاهما، لكن أغلب الأصدقاء من المتحدثين للغة الإنجليزية	
3	as many Arab as English-speaking friends الأصدقاء العرب متساويين مع الأصدقاء المتحدثين للغة الإنجليزية	
2	both, but more Arab-speaking friends كلاهما، لكن أغلب الأصدقاء من العرب	
1	only Arabic-speaking friends فقط أصدقاء متحدثين للغة العربية	

4	Do you feel more at home with Arab or with English culture? هل تشعر بإرتياح أكثر مع الثقافة العربية أو الإنجليزية؟	
1	with both, but more with Arabic culture مع كلاهما، و لكن أكثر مع الثقافة العربية	
2	with both cultures, equally مع الثقافتين بالتساوي	
3	with both, but more with English culture مع كلاهما، و لكن أكثر مع الثقافة الإنجليزية	
4	with English culture مع الثقافة الإنجليزية	

5	Do you feel more comfortable speaking Arabic or English? هل تشعر بالأرتياح عند الحديث باللغة العربية أو الإنجليزية؟	
1	Arabic بالعربية	
2	no preference لا تفضيل	
3	English بالإنجليزية	

s/n الرقم	Items البند	very important هام جدا	important هام	slightly important هام إلى حد ما	unimportant غير هام
6	Do you consider it important to maintain your English? هل تعتقد أنه من المهم الحفاظ على لغتك الإنجليزية؟				
7	Do you consider it important that your children can speak and understand English? هل تعتقد أنه من المهم أن يستطيع أطفالك الحديث باللغة الإنجليزية و فهمها؟				

s/n الرقم	Items البند	strongly agree موافق بقوة	somewhat agree موافق نوعا ما	somewhat disagree غير موافق نوعا ما	strongly disagree غير موافق بقوة
8	I do not speak English at home لا أتحدث اللغة الإنجليزية في المنزل				
9	I must speak English with my friends at the college يجب أن أتحدث اللغة الإنجليزية مع أصدقائي في الكلية				
10	I mainly speak English in the English class أتحدث اللغة الإنجليزية بصفة أساسية في الفصل				
11	I often switch from English to Arabic during the English classes غالبا أتحوّل من الحديث باللغة الإنجليزية إلى اللغة العربية خلال فصول اللغة الإنجليزية				
12	I make many new friends in the UK أكون صداقات عديدة جديدة في المملكة المتحدة				
13	Most of the people with whom I speak English are not native speakers of English. معظم الأشخاص الذين أتحدث معهم باللغة الإنجليزية ليسوا من الناطقين الأصليين لها				
14	I was taught by English native speakers at school in my country. تعلمت اللغة الإنجليزية في بلدي على أيدي معلمين إنجليزيين من الناطقين الأصليين للغة الإنجليزية				
15	I was brought up by English-speaking nannies in my country.				

	تربيت في بلدي على أيدي مربيات يتحدثن اللغة الإنجليزية				
16	I only speak English to pursue my study أتحدث اللغة الإنجليزية فقط من أجل مواصلة دراستي				

s/n الرقم	Items البند	always دائما	often غالبا	seldom أحيانا	rarely نادرا
17	I listen to English songs أستمع إلى أغاني باللغة الإنجليزية				
18	I watch English television programmes أشاهد برامج تلفزيونية باللغة الإنجليزية				
19	I listen to English radio programmes أستمع إلى برامج إذاعية باللغة الإنجليزية				
20	I read English newspapers, books or magazines أقرأ الصحف أو الكتب أو المجلات				
21	I like listening to the BBC أحب الاستماع إلى هيئة الإذاعة البريطانية				

22. In the following tables, could you please indicate to what extent you use Arabic (table 1) and English (table 2) in the domains provided?

22- في الجداول التالية، من فضلك وضح مدى استخدامك للغة العربية (جدول 1)، ومدى استخدامك للغة الإنجليزية (جدول 2) :

s/n الرقم	Item البند	all the time كل الأوقات	sometimes أحيانا	rarely نادرا	very rarely نادرا جدا
	I speak Arabic: أتحدث اللغة العربية				
1	With relatives مع الأقارب				
2	With friends مع الأصدقاء				
3	To pets مع الحيوانات الأليفة				
4	At work في العمل				
5	In shops في المحلات				
6	At clubs or organisations في الأندية والمنظمات				
7	At the college في الكلية				

s/n الرقم	Item البند	all the time كل الأوقات	sometimes أحيانا	rarely نادرا	very rarely نادرا جدا
	I speak English: أتحدث اللغة الإنجليزية				
1	With relatives مع الأقارب				
2	With friends مع الأصدقاء				

3	To pets مع الحيوانات الأليفة				
4	At work فى العمل				
5	In shops فى المحلات				
6	At clubs or organisations فى الأندية والمنظمات				
7	At the college فى الكلية				

s/n الرقم	Items البند	strongly agree موافق بقوة	somewha t agree موافق نوعا ما	somewh at disagree غير موافق نوعا ما	strongly disagree غير موافق بقوة
23	Of all foreign languages, I like English the most اللغة الإنجليزية هي أكثر اللغات الأجنبية التي أحبها				
24	I don't really like English, but I speak it because it is useful حقيقة لا أحب اللغة الإنجليزية لكن أتحدثها لأنها مفيدة				
25	If English weren't taught at schools, I wouldn't try to learn it إذا لم يتم تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية فى المدارس لم أكن أحاول أن أتعلّمها				
26	Learning English is difficult من الصعب تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية				
27	I hate learning English أكره تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية				
28	Learning English is a waste of time تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية إضاعة للوقت				
29	Learning English is fun تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية متعة				
30	I have no difficulty understanding English لا أجد صعوبة فى فهم اللغة الإنجليزية				
31	people who speak English are not patriotic الأشخاص الذين يتحدثون اللغة الإنجليزية ليسوا وطنيين				
32	I hate to hear people speaking in English أكره الاستماع لأشخاص يتحدثون اللغة الإنجليزية				
33	I will never be good in English لن أكون جيدا أبدا فى اللغة الإنجليزية				
34	I will try my best to master English سوف أبذل قصارى جهدى لإتقان اللغة الإنجليزية				
35	I don't like to speak English لا أحب الحديث باللغة الإنجليزية				
36	Learning English is a good thing to do تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية شئ مفيد				
37	To succeed in life, one must learn English من أجل النجاح فى الحياة يجب علينا تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية				
38	It is easy to get employment if you are				

	good at English من السهل الحصول على وظيفة إذا كنت تجيد اللغة الإنجليزية				
39	I don't mind people speaking English to me لا أمانع أن يتحدث الآخرون معي باللغة الإنجليزية				
40	I often speak English at home since small غالبا أتحدث اللغة الإنجليزية في المنزل منذ الصغر				
41	English will continue to be used as a world language سوف يستمر استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة عالمية				
42	English has attained a solid position in the world than before أصبح للغة الإنجليزية مكانة أقوى في العالم عن ذي قبل				
43	I am shy to speak in English أخجل من الحديث باللغة الإنجليزية				
44	English should not be a compulsory subject at our national schools لا يجب أن تكون اللغة الإنجليزية مادة إلزامية في مدارسنا الوطنية				

Appendix C2
Background Questionnaire (Usage and attitude) English and Chinese
Chinese version

Participant ID:

被试编号:

Date:

完成日期:

Instructions

说明

Please answer the questions as completely as possible.

请尽量完整地回答以下问题。

Please write in English.

请用英语作答。

Thank you very much for your assistance in carrying out this research.

非常感谢您对本实验的支持和参与！

Part 1

第一部分

Please give the following information:

请您给出下列信息:

Age:

年龄:

Native Language:

母语:

Date of Arrival in the UK:

到达英国的日期:

How long have you been learning English?

学习英语的时间长度:

How long have you been in England?

在英国生活的时间长度:

What is the level of your current English class? (e.g. intermediate, upper intermediate)

您当前英语课程的水平（如中级或中高级）:

Have you ever been to an English-speaking country before this visit?

在本次访问之前，您是否曾经去过其他英语国家？

Please list all your visits to English-speaking countries and complete the table below (continue on reverse of page if necessary):

请列出您所去过的所有英语国家，填写以下的表格（如果有必要的话，可以在背面列出更多信息：）

Name of country 国家名称	Your age on arrival 抵达当地时的年龄	Length of stay 停留时长	Purpose of visit 访问缘由

Part 2

第二部分

Please tick (✓) the answer that best applies to you:

请在最符合您的回答下打勾(✓)

s/n	Items 问题	very good 优秀	good 良好	sufficient 充分	poor 不足
1	In general, how would you rate your English language proficiency before you moved to the UK? 整体来说，您如何评价您来到英国前的英语水平？				
2	In general, how would you rate your English language proficiency at present? 整体来说，您如何评价您现在的英语水平？				

3	In general, do you have more Chinese- or English-speaking friends in the UK? 整体来说，在英国您的朋友以汉语为母语的较多还是以英语为母语的较多？	
5	only English-speaking friends 只有以英语为母语的朋友	
4	both, but more English-speaking friends 二者都有，但以英语为母语的朋友较多	
3	as many Chinese- as English-speaking friends 以汉语为母语的朋友和以英语为母语的朋友一样多	
2	both, but more Chinese-speaking friends	

	二者都有，但以汉语为母语的朋友较多	
1	only Chinese-speaking friends 只有以汉语为母语的朋友	

4	Do you feel more at home with Chinese or with English culture? 您感觉您更熟悉中国的文化还是英国的文化？	
1	with both, but more with Chinese culture 二者兼有，但更熟悉中国的文化	
2	with both cultures, equally 二者兼有，熟悉程度相同	
3	with both, but more with English culture 二者兼有，但更熟悉英国的文化	
4	with English culture 英国的文化	

5	Do you feel more comfortable speaking Chinese or English? 在说汉语及说英语时，哪一个更让您感到舒服？	
1	Chinese 汉语	
2	no preference 没有明显倾向	
3	English 英语	

s/n	Items 问题	very important 非常重要	important 重要	slightly important 比较重要	unimportant 不重要
6	Do you consider it important to maintain your English? 您认为保持您的英语水平是否重要？				
7	Do you consider it important that your children can speak and understand English? 您认为让您的孩子理解并说英语是否重要？				

s/n	Items 问题	strongly agree 非常同意	somewhat agree 比较同意	somewhat disagree 比较不同意	strongly disagree 非常不同意
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8	I do not speak English at home 我在家不说英语。				
9	I must speak English with my friends at the college 我在学校里必须和同学说英语。				
10	I mainly speak English in the English class 我在英语课上主要说英语。				
11	I often switch from English to Chinese during the English classes 在英语课上我经常从英语转换成汉语。				
12	I make many new friends in the UK 我在英国交了许多新朋友。				
13	Most of the people with whom I speak English are not native speakers of English 很多和我说英语的人都不是英语母语者。				
14	I was taught by English native speakers at school in my country 还在自己的国家的时候，我的英语课是由英语母语者教授的。				
15	I was brought up by English-speaking nannies in my country 还在自己的国家的时候，我由说英语的保姆照料长大。				
16	I only speak English to pursue my study 我说英语的目的只是为了完成自己的学业。				

s/n	Items 问题	always 经常	often 偶尔	seldom 很少	rarely 几乎没有
17	I listen to English songs 我听英语歌曲。				
18	I watch English television programmes 我看英语电视节目。				
19	I listen to English radio programmes				

	我听英语广播节目。				
20	I read English newspapers, books or magazines? 我读英文报纸、书籍或杂志。				
21	I like listening to the BBC 我喜欢听BBC的节目。				

22. In the following tables, could you please indicate to what extent you use Chinese (table 1) and English (table 2) in the domains provided?

请在以下的表格里说明你在不同领域里使用汉语（表格一）和英语（表格二）的程度。

s/n	Item 问题	all the time 总是	sometimes 有时	rarely 很少	very rarely 非常少
	I speak Chinese: 我在以下情况里说汉语				
1	with relatives 与亲人交谈				
2	with friends 与朋友交谈				
3	to pets 与宠物交谈				
4	at work 在工作时				
5	in shops 在商店里				
6	at clubs or organisations 在社团与学生组织里				
7	at the college 在学校里				

s/n	Item 问题	all the time 总是	sometimes 有时	rarely 很少	very rarely 非常少
	I speak English: 我在以下情况里说英语				
1	with relatives 与亲人交谈				
2	with friends 与朋友交谈				
3	to pets 与宠物交谈				
4	at work 在工作时				
5	in shops 在商店里				

6	at clubs or organisations 在社团与学生组织里				
7	at the college 在学校里				
s/n	Items 问题	strongly agree 非常同意	somewhat agree 比较同意	somewhat disagree 比较不同意	strongly disagree 非常不同意
23	Of all foreign languages, I like English the most 在所有的外语里，我最喜欢英语				
24	I don't really like English, but I speak it because it is useful 我并不很喜欢英语，但是我说英语，因为它很有用				
25	If English weren't taught at schools, I wouldn't try to learn it 如果学校不教授英语，我不会去学				
26	Learning English is difficult 学英语很难				
27	I hate learning English 我讨厌学英语				
28	Learning English is a waste of time 学英语是在浪费时间				
29	Learning English is fun 学英语很有趣				
30	I have no difficulty understanding English 我理解英语时毫无困难				
31	people who speak English are not patriotic 说英语的人不爱国				
32	I hate to hear people speaking in English 我讨厌听到别人说英语				
33	I will never be good in English 我将永远学不好英语				
34	I will try my best to master				

	English 我会尽我所能掌握英语				
35	I don't like to speak English 我不喜欢说英语				
36	Learning English is a good thing to do 学习英语是一件好事				
37	To succeed in life, one must learn English 一个人要想在生活中成功就必须学英语				
38	It is easy to get employment if you are good in English 如果你擅长英语的话就很容易找到工作				
39	I don't mind people speaking English to me 我不介意别人对我说英语				
40	I often speak English at home since small 我从小就经常在家说英语				
41	English will continue to be used as a world language 英语将会一直被用作世界通用的语言				
42	English has attained a solid position in the world than before 与以前相比，英语在世界上获得了一个稳固的位置				
43	I am shy to speak in English 我说英语会害羞				
44	English should not be a compulsory subject at our national schools 我国的公立学校里，英语不应该作为必修课出现				

Appendix C3
Background Questionnaire (Usage and attitude) Description of the Scores and Sources

s/n	Items	very good	good	sufficient	poor	source
1	In general, how would you rate your English language proficiency before you moved to the UK?	4	3	2	1	Current Study
2	In general, how would you rate your English language proficiency at present?	4	3	2	1	Current Study

3	In general, do you have more Arabic/Chinese - or English - speaking friends in the UK?	score		Source Gardner, 2004, items 40 & 71		
5	only English-speaking friends	5		Current Study		
4	both, but more English-speaking friends	4		Current Study		
3	as many Arabic/Chinese- as English-speaking friends	3		Current Study		
2	both, but more Arabic/Chinese-speaking friends	2		Current Study		
1	only Arabic/Chinese-speaking friends	1		Current Study		

4	Do you feel more at home with Arabic/Chinese or with English culture?	score		Source Gardner, 2004, item 49		
1	with both, but more with Arabic/Chinese culture	1		Current Study		
2	with both cultures, equally	2		Current Study		
3	with both, but more with English culture	3		Current Study		
4	with English culture	4		Current Study		

5	Do you feel more comfortable speaking Arabic/Chinese or English?	score		Source Duan, 2004, p. 55, item 11 , Gardner, 2004, item 83		
1	Arabic/Chinese	1		Current Study		
2	no preference	2		Current Study		
3	English	3		Current Study		

s/n	Items	very important	important	slightly important	unimportant	source
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6	Do you consider it important to maintain your English?	4	3	2	1	Gardner, 2004, item 50, Al Sulayyi
7	Do you consider it important that your children can speak and understand English?	4	3	2	1	Marzouq Al Sulayyi

s/n	Items	strongly agree	somewhat agree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree	source
8	I do not speak English at home	1	2	3	4	Current Study
9	I must speak English with my friends at the college	4	3	2	1	Gardner, 2004, item 45
10	I mainly speak English in the English class	4	3	2	1	Gardner, 2004, item 45
11	I often switch from English to Arabic/Chinese during the English classes	1	2	3	4	Current Study
12	I make many new friends in the UK	4	3	2	1	Current Study
13	Most of the people with whom I speak English are not native speakers of English.	1	2	3	4	Current Study
14	I was taught by English native speakers at school in my country.	4	3	2	1	Current Study
15	I was brought up by English-speaking nannies in my country.	4	3	2	1	Current Study
16	I only speak English to pursue my study	1	2	3	4	Gardner, 2004, item 100

s/n	Items	always	often	seldom	rarely	source
17	I listen to English songs	4	3	2	1	Current Study
18	I watch English television programmes	4	3	2	1	Duan, 2004, p. 55 Gardner, 2004, item 95
19	I listen to English radio programmes	4	3	2	1	Gardner, 2004, item 95
20	I read English newspapers, books or magazines	4	3	2	1	Duan, 2004, p. 55
21	I like listening to the BBC	4	3	2	1	Current Study

22. In the following tables, could you please indicate to what extent you use Arabic/Chinese (table 1) and English (table 2) in the domains provided?

s/n	item	all the time	sometimes	rarely	very rarely	source
	I speak Arabic/Chinese:					
1	with relatives	1	2	3	4	Current Study
2	with friends	1	2	3	4	Current Study
3	to pets	1	2	3	4	Current Study
4	at work	1	2	3	4	Current Study
5	in shops	1	2	3	4	Current Study
6	at clubs or organisations	1	2	3	4	Current Study
7	at the college	1	2	3	4	Current Study

s/n	Item	all the time	sometimes	rarely	very rarely	source
	I speak English:					
1	with relatives	4	3	2	1	Current Study
2	with friends	4	3	2	1	Current Study
3	to pets	4	3	2	1	Current Study
4	at work	4	3	2	1	Current Study
5	in shops	4	3	2	1	Current Study
6	at clubs or organisations	4	3	2	1	Current Study
7	at the college	4	3	2	1	Current Study

s/n	Item	strongly agree	Somewhat agree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree	Source
23	Of all foreign languages, I like English the most	4	3	2	1	Marzouq Al Sulayyi
24	I don't really like English, but I speak it because it is useful	1	2	3	4	Gardner, 2004, item 52
25	If English weren't taught at schools, I wouldn't try to learn it	1	2	3	4	Gardner, 2004, item 9
26	Learning English is difficult	1	2	3	4	Gardner, 2004, item 82
27	I hate learning English	1	2	3	4	Gardner, 2004, items 18 & 81

28	Learning English is a waste of time	1	2	3	4	Gardner, 2004, item 62
29	Learning English is fun	4	3	2	1	Gardner, 2004, items 6 & 26
30	I have no difficulty understanding English	4	3	2	1	Gardner, 2004, items 16 & 4
31	People who speak English are not patriotic	1	2	3	4	Current Study
32	I hate to hear people speaking in English	1	2	3	4	Current Study
33	I will never be good in English	1	2	3	4	Current Study
34	I will try my best to master English	4	3	2	1	Gardner, 2004, items 29& 71
35	I don't like to speak English	1	2	3	4	Gardner, 2004, item 75
36	Learning English is a good thing to do	4	3	2	1	Gardner, 2004, item 17
37	To succeed in life, one must learn English	4	3	2	1	Gardner, 2004, item 35
38	It is easy to get employment if you are good in English	4	3	2	1	Gardner, 2004, items 15 & 59
39	I don't mind people speaking English to me	4	3	2	1	Gardner, 2004, item 39
40	I often speak English at home since small	4	3	2	1	Current Study
41	English will continue to be used as a world language	4	3	2	1	Current Study
42	English has attained a solid position in the world than before	4	3	2	1	Current Study
43	I am shy to speak in English	1	2	3	4	Gardner, 2004, item 36
44	English should not be a compulsory subject at our national schools	1	2	3	4	Gardner, 2004, items 47 & 55

Essay

Participant number:

Instructions:

- You have 15 minutes to write a short essay in English
- Please write up to 250 words on the following topic:

Discuss the cultural differences between your country and the UK

[illegible]

Appendix D1

Assessment of essay

Instructions:

Please assess the participants' writing ability in English in terms of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) for overall written production:

C2: Can write clear, smoothly flowing, complex texts in an appropriate and effective style and a logical structure which helps the reader to find significant points.

C1: Can write clear, well-structured texts of complex subjects, underlining the relevant salient issues, expanding and supporting points of view at some length with subsidiary points, reasons and relevant examples, and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion.

B2: Can write clear, detailed texts on a variety of subjects related to their field of interest, synthesising and evaluating information and arguments from a number of sources.

B1: Can write straightforward connected texts on a range of familiar subjects within their field of interest, by linking a series of shorter discrete elements into a linear sequence.

A2: Can write a series of simple phrases and sentences linked with simple connectors like 'and', 'but' and 'because'.

A1: Can write simple isolated phrases and sentences.

Appendix E

Interview

Instructions:

Please rate the interviewee based on their linguistic errors. Such errors include errors of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, including inappropriate sounds, stress and intonation. Please also take into account participants' ability to produce intelligible, spontaneous, fluent speech. The interview session should last for ten minutes. It will be held in room 2.

After the interview, please direct the participant to go back to room 1 to complete their Multiple-choice test and Vocabulary test.

1. What's your name?
2. Could you spell that, please?
3. Where are you from?
4. What do you dis/like about where you are from?
5. How many pets do you have? If none, which would you like to have?
6. Are you a student or do you work? What do you do/study?
7. What do you dis/like about your job/studies?
8. If you hadn't decided upon [your profession/field of study] what other would you have chosen?
9. [How much] Do you like travelling?
10. Tell me about some of the places you have been to. Favourites? Least favourite? Why?
11. Tell me about one of your favourite trips. What happened? Who did you go with? What made it so memorable?
12. While you were there, was there something you didn't do/see but wish you had?
13. What are your plans for the future?
14. What would you say are your personal/professional ambitions?
15. What do you want to have achieved in the next 5/10/20 years?
16. If I visited your country/town/city, what would be some sights to see and/or places to avoid?

Appendix E1
Assessment of the interview

Participant number:

It is assessed based on a scale the adapted scale of Cambridge Certificate of Advanced English (CAE), Paper 5: Criteria for Assessment (1991), p. 194.

Assessor's instruction

Please, assess each participant according to the items included in the following table. The total score of the interview is (15) marks where each of the test items (fluency, vocabulary accuracy and range, pronunciation, interactive communication and task achievement) bears (3) marks.

Table: Cambridge Certificate of Advanced English (CAE), Paper 5: Criteria for Assessment (1991)

Test Criteria	Illustrative Scales	Score out of 15
Fluency	Fluency	
Accuracy and range	Vocabulary range and control Grammatical accuracy	
Pronunciation	Phonological control, sounds, stress and intonation.	
Interactive communication	Cooperative strategies	
Task achievement	Needs for interviewer support	
Total		

Please, write down your assessment based on the instructions:

Appendix F

Multiple-Choice Grammar Test (Oxford placement test)

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Appendix G

Vocabulary Test

Participant number:

Source: http://www.lex tutor.ca/tests/levels/recognition/1_14k/

Please, circle the letter (a-d) with the closest meaning to the key word in the question:

1. POOR: We are **poor**.

- a) have no money
- b) feel happy
- c) are very interested
- d) do not like to work hard

2. BASIS: This was used as the **basis**.

- a) answer
- b) place to take a rest
- c) next step
- d) main part

3. DRAWER: The **drawer** was empty.

- a) sliding box
- b) place where cars are kept
- c) cupboard to keep things cold
- d) animal house

4. MICROPONE: Please use the **microphone**.

- a) machine for making food hot
- b) machine that makes sounds louder
- c) machine that makes things look bigger
- d) small telephone that can be carried around

5. JUG: He was holding a **jug**.

- a) A container for pouring liquids
- b) an informal discussion
- c) A soft cap
- d) A weapon that explodes

6. DASH: They **dashed** over it.

- a) moved quickly
- b) moved slowly
- c) fought
- d) looked quickly

7. LATTER: I agree with the **latter**.

- a) man from the church
- b) reason given
- c) last one
- d) answer

8. CRAB: Do you like **crabs**?

- a) sea creatures that walk sideways
- b) very thin small cakes
- c) tight, hard collars
- d) large black insects that sing at night

9. DEFICIT: The company had a large **deficit**.

- a) spent a lot more money than it earned
- b) went down a lot in value
- c) had a plan for its spending that used a lot of money
- d) had a lot of money in the bank

10. CUBE: I need one more **cube**.

- a) sharp thing used for joining things
- b) solid square block
- c) tall cup with no saucer
- d) piece of stiff paper folded in half

11. BACTERIUM: They didn't find a single **bacterium**.

- a) small living thing causing disease
- b) plant with red or orange flowers
- c) animal that carries water on its back

- d) thing that has been stolen and sold to a shop

12. THRESHOLD: They raised the **threshold**.

- a) flag
- b) point or line where something changes
- c) roof inside a building
- d) cost of borrowing money

13. MALIGN: His **malign** influence is still felt.

- a) evil
- b) good
- c) very important
- d) secret

14. SHUDDER: The boy **shuddered**.

- a) spoke with a low voice
- b) almost fell
- c) shook
- d) called out loudly

15. GIMMICK: That's a good **gimmick**.

- a) thing for standing on to work high above the ground
- b) small thing with pockets to hold money
- c) attention-getting action or thing
- d) clever plan or trick

16. NULL: His influence was **null**.

- a) had good results
- b) was unhelpful
- c) had no effect
- d) was long-lasting

17. LOCUST: There were hundreds of **locusts**.

- a) insects with wings

- b) unpaid helpers
- c) people who do not eat meat
- d) brightly coloured wild flowers

18. PURITAN: He is a **puritan**.

- a) person who likes attention
- b) person with strict morals
- c) person with a moving home
- d) person who hates spending money

19. PERTURB: I was **perturbed**.

- a) made to agree
- b) worried
- c) very puzzled
- d) very wet

20. AWE: They looked at the mountain with **awe**.

- a) worry
- b) interest
- c) wonder
- d) respect

21. UPBEAT: I'm feeling really **upbeat** about it.

- a) upset
- b) good
- c) hurt
- d) confused

22. LECTERN: He stood at the **lectern**.

- a) desk to hold a book at a height for reading
- b) table or block used for church sacrifices
- c) place where you buy drinks
- d) very edge

23. COUNTERCLAIM: They made a **counterclaim**.

- a) a demand made by one side in a law case to match the other side's demand
- b) a request for a shop to take back things with faults
- c) an agreement between two companies to exchange work
- d) a top cover for a bed

24. EMIR: We saw the **emir**.

- a) bird with long curved tail feathers
- b) woman who cares for other people's children in Eastern countries
- c) Middle Eastern chief with power in his land
- d) house made from blocks of ice

25. SOLILOQUY: That was an excellent **soliloquy**!

- a) song for six people
- b) short clever saying with a deep meaning
- c) entertainment using lights and music
- d) speech in the theatre by a character who is alone

26. IMPALE: He nearly got **impaled**.

- a) charged with a serious offence
- b) put in prison
- c) stuck through with a sharp instrument
- d) involved in a dispute

27. TALON: Just look at those **talons**!

- a) high points of mountains
- b) sharp hooks on the feet of a hunting bird
- c) heavy metal coats to protect against weapons
- d) people who make fools of themselves without realizing it

28. SKYLARK: We watched a **skylark**.

- a) show with aeroplanes flying in patterns
- b) man-made object going round the earth
- c) person who does funny tricks

- d) small bird that flies high as it sings

29. CANONICAL: These are **canonical** examples.

- a) examples which break the usual rules
- b) examples taken from a religious book
- c) regular and widely accepted examples
- d) examples discovered very recently

30. GAUCHE: He was **gauche**.

- a) talkative
- b) flexible
- c) awkward
- d) determined

Appendix H

Multiple-Choice Listening Test (Oxford Placement Test)

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**Factors Affecting the Development of L2 Pragmatic Competence: A Saudi- Chinese
Comparison of Apology Strategies**

This study will increase our understanding of second language development among non-native speakers of English, focussing on learners whose first language is Arabic or Chinese. You are invited to participate in this study since your first language is Arabic or Chinese. If you decide to participate, you will be able to make a significant contribution to research in second language acquisition. In order to help you decide whether to participate, please spend some time reading the following information.

Who is organising the research?

The research is organised by the researcher (Marzouq Al Sulayyi) in association with Anglia Ruskin University and supervised by Dr Melanie Bell and Dr Michelle Sheehan as part of the doctoral research programme.

What will happen if you agree to take part?

The project aims to study the development of English as a second language over a period of about 12 months after the learner arrives in an English-speaking environment. We would therefore like to have contact with you soon after your arrival, after about 6 months and at the end of 12 months. On each of these three occasions, we would like you to attend the following two sessions, each of which will take about one and a half hours and will be held as shown below:

First session:

- Short piece of writing (Hel 352-language centre LAB)
- Multiple choice test – Listening (Hel 352-language centre LAB)
- Role plays (Hel 305) please note that the role plays will be recorded by using a digital voice recorder.
- Interview (Hel 306) please note that the role plays will be recorded by using a digital voice recorder.

Second session:

- DCT (Hel 352-language centre LAB)
- Background questionnaire (Hel 352-language centre LAB)
- Multiple choice test – Grammar (Hel 352-language centre LAB)
- Vocabulary test (Hel 352-language centre LAB)

What will happen to the results of the study?

The data, information and recordings which you will provide will be dealt with on the basis of anonymity. They will be stored in the researcher's password-protected computer which only the researcher and supervisor can access. The results may be used in the doctoral dissertation, papers published in reviewed journals or presentations at scientific conferences. There will be no specific reference to you, so you will not be identified. All these procedures are in accordance with the principles of the Data Protection Act 1998 and the EU Directive 95/46 on Data Protection.

Are there any risks involved?

There are no known risks of any type associated with being involved in this study, so you are not required to take any precautions before, while or after taking part in this study.

What are the likely benefits of taking part?

For each of the three contact points, you will receive your choice of either a £20 book token or a free half-hour 1:1 tutorial on any aspect of your English with the researcher (who is a qualified English language tutor).

Withdrawal from the study

Participation in the study is entirely voluntary, and even if you agree to take part, you are still free to withdraw if you decide so. You can directly inform the researcher of your withdrawal or email: marzouq.al@student.anglia.ac.uk

Contact for further information

For further inquiry about the study, please feel free to contact Marzouq on: 07448338916

YOU WILL BE GIVEN A COPY OF THIS TO KEEP, TOGETHER WITH A COPY OF THE CONSENT FORM.

Appendix I1

Participant Consent Form

NAME OF PARTICIPANT:

Title of the project: Factors Affecting the Development of L2 Pragmatic Competence: A Saudi- Chinese Comparison of Apology Strategies

Main investigator and contact details: Marzouq Al Sulayyi; marzouq.alsulayyi1@pgr.anglia.ac.uk

Members of the research team: Dr Melanie Bell & Dr Michelle Sheehan

1. I agree to take part in the above research. I have read the Participant Information Sheet for the study.
2. I understand what my role will be in this research, and all my questions have been answered to my satisfaction.
3. I understand that I am free to withdraw from the research at any time, without giving a reason.
4. I am free to ask any questions at any time before and during the study.
5. I understand what will happen to the data collected from me for the research.
6. I have been provided with a copy of this form and the Participant Information Sheet.
7. I understand that quotes from me will be used in the dissemination of the research.
8. I understand that the interview will be recorded by using digital recorder.

Data Protection: I agree to the University⁵ processing personal data which I have supplied.

I agree to the processing of such data for any purposes connected with the Research Project as outlined to me*

Name of participant

(print).....Signed.....Date.....Participant ID ()

PARTICIPANTS BE GIVEN A COPY OF THIS FORM TO KEEP

ADD DATE AND VERSION NUMBER OF CONSENT FORM.

I WISH TO WITHDRAW FROM THIS STUDY.

If you wish to withdraw from the research, please speak to the researcher or email them at (marzouq.al@student.anglia.ac.uk) stating the title of the project.

You do not have to give a reason for why you would like to withdraw.

Please let the researcher know whether you are/are not happy for them to use any data from you collected to date in the write up and dissemination of the research.

⁵ “The University” includes Anglia Ruskin University and its Associate Colleges.

Appendix J
Pilot study schedule

Participant	Writing	Listening	Vocabulary	Interview	Role Plays	Break	Grammar	DCT	Background
	15 mins	10 mins	15 mins	10 mins	10 mins	10 mins	50 mins	50 mins	30 mins
C01	1400-1415	1415-1425	1425-1440	1445-1445	1445-1455	1455-1505	1505-1555	1555-1645	1645-1715
C02	1400-1415	1415-1425	1425-1440	1445-1455	1455-1505	1505-1515	1440-1600	1600-1655	1655-1725
C03	1400-1415	1415-1425	1425-1440	1455-1505	1505-1515	1515-1525	1440-1600	1600-1655	1655-1725
C04	1400-1415	1415-1425	1425-1440	1505-1515	1515-1525	1525-1535	1440-1600	1600-1650	1650-1720
C05	1400-1415	1415-1425	1425-1440	1515-1525	1525-1535	1535-1545	1440-1600	1600-1650	1650-1720
C06	1400-1415	1415-1425	1425-1440	1525-1535	1535-1545	1545-1555	1440-1600	1600-1650	1650-1720
C07	1400-1415	1415-1425	1425-1440	1535-1545	1545-1555	1555-1605	1440-1530	1530-1650	1650-1720
S01	1400-1415	1415-1425	1425-1440	1545-1555	1555-1605	1605-1615	1440-1530	1530-1650	1650-1720
S02	1400-1415	1415-1425	1425-1440	1555-1605	1605-1615	1615-1625	1440-1530	1530-1650	1650-1720
S03	1400-1415	1415-1425	1425-1440	1605-1615	1615-1625	1625-1635	1440-1530	1530-1640	1640-1710
S04	1400-1415	1415-1425	1425-1440	1615-1625	1625-1635	1635-1645	1440-1530	1530-1650	1650-1720

S05	1400-1415	1415-1425	1425-1440	1625-1635	1635-1645	1645-1655	1440-1530	1530-1620	1620-1720
S06	1400-1415	1415-1425	1425-1440	1635-1645	1645-1655	1655-1705	1440-1530	1530-1620	1620-1720
S07	1400-1415	1415-1425	1425-1440	1645-1655	1655-1705	1705-1715	1440-1530	1530-1620	1620-1720

Appendix K

Management of Participants during the Tests

Abbreviation	Test type	Time
W	Writing	15 min.
L	Listening	10 min.
G	Grammar	50 min.
V	Vocab	15 min.
I	Interview	5 min.
DCT	DCT	50 min.
RP	Role Play	10 min.
BQ	Background	30 min.
B	Break	10 min.

Time	Participant									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2.00	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W
2.05	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W
2.10	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W
2.15	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W
2.20	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L
2.25	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L
2.30	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L	L
2.35	I	BQ	BQ	BQ	BQ	G	G	G	G	G
2.40	RP	I	BQ	BQ	BQ	G	G	G	G	G
2.45	RP	BQ	I	BQ	BQ	G	G	G	G	G
2.50	BQ	RP	BQ	I	BQ	G	G	G	G	G
2.55	BQ	RP	BQ	BQ	I	G	G	G	G	G
3.00	BQ	BQ	RP	BQ	BQ	G	G	G	G	G
3.05	BQ	BQ	RP	BQ	BQ	G	G	G	G	G
3.10	BQ	BQ	BQ	RP	B	G	G	G	G	G
3.15	BQ	BQ	BQ	RP	B	G	G	G	G	G
3.20	B	B	B	B	RP	G	G	G	G	G
3.25	B	B	B	B	RP	G	G	G	G	G
3.30	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	I	BQ	BQ	BQ	BQ
3.35	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	RP	I	BQ	BQ	BQ
3.40	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	RP	BQ	I	BQ	BQ
3.45	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	BQ	RP	BQ	I	BQ
3.50	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	BQ	RP	BQ	BQ	I
3.55	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	BQ	BQ	RP	BQ	BQ

4.00	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	BQ	BQ	RP	BQ	BQ
4.05	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	BQ	BQ	BQ	RP	B
4.10	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	BQ	BQ	BQ	RP	B
4.15	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	B	B	B	B	RP
4.20	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	B	B	B	B	RP
4.25	G	G	G	G	G	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT
4.30	G	G	G	G	G	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT
4.35	G	G	G	G	G	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT
4.40	G	G	G	G	G	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT
4.45	G	G	G	G	G	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT
4.50	G	G	G	G	G	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT
4.55	G	G	G	G	G	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT
5.00	G	G	G	G	G	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT
5.05	G	G	G	G	G	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT
5.10	G	G	G	G	G	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT
5.15	G	G	G	G	G	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT	DCT

Appendix L

A summary of politeness maxims and principles: General, Chinese and Saudi principles

No	Maxims/principles	Explanation	Example	Reference
General politeness principles				
1	Do not impose or distance	Refers to the necessity of keeping distance with the interlocutor based on factors like age, occupation or family relation	A student should take his/her professor's permission before entering the office by saying "May I come in? "	Lakoff (1973)
2	Give option or deference	Interlocutors are required to show hesitancy; do not insist on their requests and give options to the interlocutors for accepting or refusing their requests	The declarative of request "I wonder if you could possibly help me?"	Lakoff (1973)
3	Make audience feel good or camaraderie	Refers to the courteous and friendly way in which the speaker should approach the hearer	Speaker A asks her friend about her new dress "Do I look big in this"; then, the speaker B replies "No, it suits you well"	Lakoff (1973)
1	Quantity	An interlocutor provides adequate information to the hearer	One tries to be as informative as one possibly can, and gives as much information as is needed, and no more.	Grice (1975)
2	Quality	An interlocutor should truly contribute towards the successful fulfilment of the conversation	One tries to be truthful, and does not give information that is false or that is not supported by evidence.	Grice (1975)
3	Relation	The interlocutor should provide a relevant contribution to the conversation topic	One tries to be relevant and says things that are pertinent to the discussion.	Grice (1975)
4	Manner	The interlocutor should not use obscure or ambiguous expression and should instead be concise and orderly	One tries to be as clear, as brief, and as orderly as one can in what one says, and where one avoids obscurity and ambiguity.	Grice (1975)
1	Tact	Minimises cost and maximises the benefit to others	"Could I interrupt you for a second?" "If I could just clarify this then"	Leech (1983)
2	Generosity	Minimises the self-benefit and maximises self cost	"You relax and let me do the dishes" "You must come and have dinner with us"	Leech (1983)
3	Approbation	Minimises and maximises dispraise to others	"I heard you singing at the karaoke last night, it sounded like you were enjoying yourself!" "Gideon, I know you're a genius – would you know how to	Leech (1983)

			solve this math problem here?"	
4	Modesty	Minimises self-praise and maximises self dispraise	"Oh, I'm so stupid – I didn't make a note of our lecture! Did you? "	Leech (1983)
5	Agreement	Minimises disagreement with others and maximises agreement with others	A: "I don't want my daughter to do this, I want her to do that". B: "Yes, but ma'am, I thought we resolved this already on your last visit".	Leech (1983)
6	Sympathy	Minimises antipathy with others and maximises sympathy with others	"I am sorry to hear about your father"	Leech (1983)
Chinese politeness principles				
1	Self-denigration	The Chinese tend to elevate the self of their interlocutors while denigrating theirs	An exchange held between a Mainland Chinese (M) and a Singapore Chinese (S) (literal translation): M: Your precious surname. S: Little brother's surname is Li. Your respectable surname? M: My worthless surname is Zhang.	Gu (1990), 246
2	Address	The Chinese address their interlocutors according to their social relationship and power	The act of addressing involves (a) S's recognition of H as a social being in his specific social status or role, and (b) S's definition of the social relation between S and H. -Chinese intellectuals, particularly females, studying in the U.K, will be considerably embarrassed when their English friends address them by their middle+-given names, or worse still, by their given names, which are reserved for lovers. (LT: grandpa), (LT: grandma), (LT: uncle) and (LT: aunt) etc. -A student meets his/her teacher on the way to school, and the following talk exchange may take place: Student: (WT: teacher, you early) (LT: Teacher, good morning) Teacher:(WT: ai, early) (LT: hi, morning)	Gu (1990), 248-249 Gu (1990), 250 Gu (1990), 251
3	Tact	The Chinese maximise their interlocutors' benefit while minimising their cost	"No, I won't come. It is too much trouble for you to prepare the dinner"	Leech (1983) &

				Gu (1990), 254
4	Generosity	The Chinese minimise their own benefit and maximise their self cost	An exchange between A, a prospective mother-in-law, and B, a prospective son-in-law. A invites B to have dinner with A's family (word-for-word translation): A: (tomorrow come eat dinner) B: (not come too much trouble) A: (trouble nothing)	Leech (1983)& Gu (1990), 252
Saudi politeness principles				
1	Avoidance	Refers to the indirect handling of conflicts. It aims to preserve social harmony and relationship.	There are three means for realising avoidance: (1) evading the topic of conflict; (2) eluding apology through silence, incompetence, or difficult decisions; and (3) over apology, which is often insincere.	Danielewicz-Betz & Mamidi (2009)
2	Solidarity	Minimises differences and maximises similarities among the speaker and the hearer	For example, it emphasises cooperation, common fate and reciprocal trust.	Danielewicz-Betz & Mamidi (2009)
3	Approbation and face flattery	Minimise criticism and maximise the praise of the hearer	For examples, Saudis realise face flattery by showing respect and appreciation for the hearer's ability and achievements.	Leech (1983) & Danielewicz-Betz & Mamidi (2009)
Brown and Levinson's politeness principles				
1	Positive politeness	Positive face refers to "the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others"	Strategies of sympathy, solidarity and rapport between the speaker and the hearer	Brown and Levinson (1987:61)
2	Negative politeness	Negative face is "the want of every competent adult member that his actions be unimpeded by others".	Speaker's intention not to obstruct the freedom of action on the part of the hearer	Brown and Levinson (1987:61)

Appendix M

A summary of previous research on the apology strategies

No	Category	Description	Example	Reference
1	Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID)	It is an apology strategy which explicitly expresses regret by using means like 'sorry', 'forgive me', 'excuse me', 'I regret', and so on. IFIDs highlight the speaker's need to seek forgiveness by overtly expressing his/her regret over an action that violates the hearer.	Sorry. Forgive me. Excuse me. I regret.	Cohen and Olshtain (1981: 119); Olshtain & Cohen (1983: 22); Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984: 207); Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989: 290-291); Bergman & Kasper (1993: 84); Nureddeen (2008: 302)
1.A	Final IFIDs	Offender repeats the IFID formula at the end of his/her apology.	I am sorry, I left it at home but will bring it tomorrow. I am very sorry.	Nureddeen (2008: 302)
1.B	Stylistic appropriateness	In this case, the offender uses stylistic formulas appropriate to the apology like 'I wish you forgive me' or 'I wish to apologise'.	I wish to apologise	Cohen and Olshtain (1981: 119)
1.C	Emotional expressions/ Exclamations	An offender may use any of the emotional expressions before the IFID strategies to indicate sympathy with the victim and reflect the sincerity of his/her apology.	Oh/ Oh no/ Oh Lord/God	Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989: 290)
2	Upgrader	The upgrader refers to words that add to the power of the apologetic expressions like 'so, very, and terribly'.	Adverbials: I'm very sorry. Repetition (or double intensifier): I'm terribly, terribly sorry. Have you been waiting long?	Cohen & Olshtain (1981: 119); Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984: 208); Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989: 291); Bergman & Kasper (1993: 85); Nureddeen (2008: 303)

3	Taking on responsibility (TOR)	The apologise exerts efforts to make up his/her fault by taking verbal and non-verbal actions. This strategy can be divided into seven sub-categories.	See examples below	Cohen & Olshtain (1981: 119); Olshtain & Cohen (1983: 23)
3.A	Self-blame	The offender blames himself/herself for the occurrence of the offence.	It is my fault/mistake	Olshtain & Cohen (1983: 23); Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984: 208); Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989: 291); Bergman & Kasper (1993: 85)
3.B	Lack of intent	The offender declares that he/she has no intention to commit the offence.	I did not mean it. I didn't mean to upset you.	Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989: 291); Olshtain & Cohen (1983: 23); Nureddeen (2008: 302)
3.C	Admission of fact	The offender admits the occurrence of the offence.	I missed the bus. I haven't had time to mark it yet.	Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989: 292); Bergman & Kasper, (1993: 85)
3.D	Justify hearer	An expression which the offender uses to calm down the victim and admit his/her responsibility for the offence.	You're right to be angry. You have the right to blame me.	Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989: 292); Nureddeen (2008: 302)
3.E	Expression of embarrassment	The offender expresses his/her embarrassment of the offence occurrence as part of being responsible for it.	I feel awful about it. I do not know where to hide my face from you.	Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989: 292); Nureddeen (2008: 302)
3.F	Concern for the hearer's feeling	Part of admitting responsibility for the offence is to show the offender is concerned with the victim's feeling.	I hope I didn't upset you. I hope you did not wait long.	Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989: 291); Bergman & Kasper (1993: 86)
3.G	Excuse, explanation	The offender attempts to justify and provide reasons for the occurrence of the offence.	The bus was late 10 minutes. Traffic is always so heavy in the morning. My tutor kept me late.	Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984: 208); Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989: 293); Nureddeen (2008: 302)
4	Downgrading Responsibility	The apology strategy of downgrading responsibility or severity of the offence	See below examples	See below references

	(DR)	refers to the speaker's utterance to reduce his/her accountability for the offence.		
4.A	Excuse	This is not an overt apology but an excuse which services as an apology.	Excuse me	Cohen & Olshtain (1981)
4.B	Claiming ignorance/innocence	The offender pretends not being aware of the offence occurrence or claims to be innocent of committing the offence.	I do not know about it. I did not do it.	Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989: 294)
4.C	Problematizing a precondition (Query of precondition)	The offender tries to question for instance the time of meeting his/her friend in order to prove he/she should not be blamed for being late.	We were not supposed to meet before 12. Are you sure we were supposed to meet at 10?	Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989:293)
4.D	Denial	The offender denies being responsible for the occurrence of the offence.	It wasn't my fault	Olshtain & Cohen (1983: 23); Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989: 292)
4.D.1	Not accepting the blame	The offender does not accept being blamed for the offence occurrence.	Don't blame me	Olshtain & Cohen (1983: 23); Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989: 292)
4.D.2	Blaming the other participant for bringing the offence upon himself/herself	The offender blames the victim for the offence occurrence.	It's your own fault	Olshtain and Cohen (1983: 23); Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper (1989: 292)
4.D.3	A denial of the need to apologise	The offender totally denies reasonability for the offence occurrence.	There was no need for you to get insulted	Olshtain & Cohen (1983: 23); Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989: 292)
4.D.4	Pretending to be offended	To avoid being responsible for the offence occurrence, the offender states that he/she is the offended party.	I'm the one to be offended	Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989: 292)
4.D.5	Directly blaming another party	The offender blames the offence occurrence on a third party.	I put it properly, but the bus stopped suddenly. It is not up to me.	Nureddeen (2008: 304)
4.E	Reducing severity (Minimisation)	The offender attempts to minimise or reduce the offence severity.	It is only a tiny scratch on your car.	Bergman & Kasper (1993: 85); Nureddeen (2008: 303)

			A small mistake. Half an hour does not really matter.	
5	Offer of repair	The offender tries to compensate the victim for the damage resulted from the offence.	I'll pay for the damage. I'll go and enquire in the kitchen. I'll pay for the broken vase or I'll help you get up.	Cohen & Olshtain (1981: 119); Olshtain & Cohen (1983: 23); Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989: 293); Bergman & Kasper (1993: 85); Nureddeen (2008: 290-291)
6	A promise of forbearance (Verbal redress)	The offender pledges not to repeat the offence again.	It won't happen again. This is the last time (to do so). It will not happen again. I will not forget again.	Cohen & Olshtain (1981: 119); Olshtain & Cohen (1983: 23); Bergman & (1993: 86); Nureddeen (2008: 303)
7	Further-task oriented remark	The offender attempts to distract the victim's attention away from the offence by asking to presume another task.	Let's go to work then.	Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989: 294)
8	Humour	The offender tries to add a humorous note.	If you think that's a mistake you ought to see our fried chicken (spoken by a waiter who brought the wrong dish).	Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989: 294)
9	Appeaser	The offender uses phrases that may please the victim.	I'll buy you a cup of coffee (spoken after speaker had kept the hearer waiting for him).	Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989: 294)
10	Lexical and phrasal downgraders	Phrases used to mitigate the offence	How are you? Nice to see you. Thank you.	Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper (1989: 294)