The Effect of Bloom-based ILP Instruction on Iranian EFL learners’ Use of External and Internal Modification Strategies in the Speech Act of Request

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Abstract

The way people perform a speech act differs across cultures. People from different cultures may have different perceptions of similar social factors and interpret them differentially. These differences can lead to cross-cultural miscommunications when language users perform a given speech act such as request. Based on the request analysis categories introduced by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989b) and Schauer (2009), the present

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study examined Iranian EFL learners' deviations in utilizing internal and external modifications from native speakers' norms and explored how Bloom-based instruction can contribute to the acquisition of internal and external modifications.

To this end, a researcher-developed Written Discourse Completion Task (WDCT) was utilized to collect data from 61 participants: a. treatment group (20), b. control group (23), and c. native speakers (18). The data were categorized based on a framework adapted from Blum-Kulka et al. (1989b) and Schauer's (2009) coding schemes for internal and external modifications. The results suggested that, in the pretest, Iranian EFL learners' use of request modification strategies differed significantly from native speakers' norms. It was found that after the Bloom-based ILP instruction, the treatment group progressed towards native speakers' norms in the application of several modification strategies. These findings imply that the employment of Bloom's Taxonomy, with specific focus on high order thinking skills in the development of pragmatics tasks and activities can help EFL learners approach native speakers' norms.

Keywords: Bloom's Taxonomy, External Modification Strategies, Inter-language Pragmatics, Internal Modification Strategies, Speech Act of Request.

Introduction

Since the introduction of the communicative approaches in the 1990s, grammar-based methods in language teaching have been gradually replaced with the communicative ones. With the employment of the communicative approaches in language teaching, more focus has been placed on the mastery of functional language abilities. Consequently, various models have been proposed in an attempt to account for different dimensions of communicative competence which is at the heart of communicative approaches to language teaching (e.g., Bachman, 1990; Bachman & Palmer, 1982; Canale & Swain, 1980; Celce-Murcia et al., 1995; Martínez-Flor & Usó-Juan, 2006).

Canale (1983) asserts that pragmatics is a significant aspect of communicative competence which should be noticed by language learners and teachers. However, in EFL contexts the crucial role of pragmatic ability has been ignored (Barron, 2016; Birjandi & Derakhshan, 2014; Hassan, 2018; Rose, 1999), resulting in the development of poor communicative competence among EFL learners. In such contexts, even the performance of advanced language learners lag far behind that of native speakers (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Research shows that even learners with advanced grammar and vocabulary knowledge may face conversation breakdowns if they are not equipped with pragmatic knowledge (Wolfson, 1989).

Over the years, the development of interlanguage pragmatic (ILP) has attracted the attention of EFL/ESL researchers (e.g., Ajabshir, 2019; Derakhshan & Esfami, 2019; Kondo, 2008; Nguyen et al., 2017; Olshtain & Cohen, 1990; Rose, 1994, 2005; Taguchi, 2018; Taguchi, 2019). Different studies (e.g., Ajab-
ment group (20), b. control group (23), and c. native speakers (18). The
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tment al. (1989b) and Schauer's (2009) coding schemes for internal and ex-
ternal modifications. The results suggested that, in the pretest, Iranian
EFL learners' use of request modification strategies differed significantly
from native speakers' norms. It was found that after the Bloom-based
application of several modification strategies. These findings
b. treating high order thinking skills in the development of pragmatics tasks and
activities can help EFL learners approach native speakers' norms. In such contexts, even the performance of advanced language learners lags
far behind that of native speakers (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Research shows that
even learners with advanced grammar and vocabulary knowledge may face
conversation breakdowns if they are not equipped with pragmatic knowledge
states L2 learners' failure in pragmatic performance stems from their ina-
ability to access their pragmatic knowledge and their lack of control over their
newly developed pragmatic representations.

The emphasis of the two models on noticing and gaining high levels of con-
trol over the acquired materials, can be achieved through Bloom's Taxonomy
(Bloom et al., 1956), a cognitive model frequently employed in different educational domains. Bloom's Taxonomy advocates utilization of various awareness raising tasks and activities which can help learners gain control over their newly developed knowledge (Díaz, 2013). Bloom's Taxonomy which was introduced in 1956 has undergone some minute changes through time (Darwazeh & Branch, 2015). In the new version, Anderson et al. (2001) renamed some of the levels and used verbs rather than nouns (as cited in Krathwohl, 2002). In the new version, the synthesis level is replaced by the evaluating level and the creating level which tops all the levels is added to the taxonomy. Table 1 displays the original and the revised versions of Bloom's Taxonomy.

Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original</th>
<th>Revised</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>Creating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synthesis</td>
<td>Evaluating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis</td>
<td>Analyzing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Application</td>
<td>Applying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>Understanding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>Remembering</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The higher order skills such as evaluating and creating require raising learners' consciousness and increasing their control over newly learnt material (Diaz, 2013). As mentioned before, these functions are also emphasized in Schmidt's (1990, 1993) noticing hypothesis and Bialystok's (1991) cognitive two-dimensional information processing model. Given the characteristics of each level of Bloom's Taxonomy, it can be stated that employing teaching mate-
The speech act of request is frequently utilized by EFL learners (Alemi & Khanlarzadeh, 2017; Trosborg, 2011). A request utterance consists of three elements: (a) address term(s); (b) head act; (c) modification devices (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1986). Despite address terms and modification devices (adjuncts), head acts are the obligatory parts of a request and can accomplish the function of the speech act by themselves. Modification devices which are optional can follow or precede the head act and are divided into internal and external modifications. Figure 1 represents the different components of a request utterance.

![Figure 1. Components of a Request Utterance.](image)

Performing a request is a function of various contextual factors intertwined within the linguistic elements we use (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989b). Since in performing a request, the requester infringes on the requestee’s freedom from imposition, requests are considered face-threatening acts influenced by various socio-cultural factors (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Brown and Levinson (p. 61) define face as the “public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself”. These authors distinguish between positive and negative face and assert that a person’s face may be threatened or enhanced during a conversation. Negative face refers to a person’s freedom of action and freedom from imposition while positive face refers to one’s desire that his/her goals and achievements be appreciated and approved by at least some other people (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Speakers use politeness strategies to protect hearers’ self-image or face. Face-threatening acts (FTA) which can damage a person’s self-esteem must be avoided or performed with caution since they are offensive. As a case in point, the direct request of "could you pass me the spoon" sounds a normal request in negative-oriented western cultures. While the same request
can show low solidarity and intimacy in positive-oriented cultures like Iran. Apart from different levels of directness which can affect the degree of politeness of a request, external and internal modifications can also be used to manipulate a request's degree of politeness. These modifications cannot affect the propositional content of the request, but are mainly utilized to redress the illocutionary force of an utterance. Internal modifications are used along with the head act in a single sentence while external modifications, also called supportive moves, are used before or after the sentence which carries the head act (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989b). Internal modifications are further subdivided into downgraders (lexical and syntactic), used to decrease a request's degree of imposition, and upgraders, used to intensify the illocutionary force of a request (Table 1).

Table 2.
Classification of Internal and External Modifications (adapted from Blum-Kulka et al., 1989b; Schauer, 2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internal modifications</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>External modifications</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strategy</td>
<td>Example</td>
<td>Strategy</td>
<td>Example</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Play-down</td>
<td>Could you pass me the salt shaker?</td>
<td>Alert</td>
<td>Excuse me; hello; John</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interrogative form</td>
<td>Will you help me</td>
<td>Prepar</td>
<td>Hey, you had this management class, right?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past tense</td>
<td>I was hoping you could...</td>
<td>Ground</td>
<td>I wasn’t in class the other day because I was sick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditional</td>
<td>“... if you have time.”</td>
<td>Promise of Reward</td>
<td>I’ll buy you dinner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politeness marker</td>
<td>Can I please have an extension on this paper?</td>
<td>Imposition</td>
<td>I will return them in an orderly fashion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Embedding</td>
<td>It’d be great if you could put this on the door</td>
<td>Minimizer</td>
<td>Sweetener</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understater</td>
<td>Can you speak up a little, please?</td>
<td>Disarm</td>
<td>I know this is short notice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Downtoner</td>
<td>Is there any way I could possibly get an extension?</td>
<td>Appreciation</td>
<td>I would appreciate it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultative Device</td>
<td>Would you mind lending me a hand?</td>
<td>Getting a pre-commitment</td>
<td>Could you do me a favor?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverbial intensifier</td>
<td>I would be most grateful if you could let me use your article.</td>
<td>Apology</td>
<td>I’m sorry I can’t give you the lesson on Monday</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The way EFL learners acquire and use requests and other speech acts have been widely explored (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig, 2017; Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993; Blum-Kulka et al., 1989b; Derakhshan & Arabmoofrad, 2018; Garcia, 1989;
Hassall, 2003; Li & Jiang, 2019; Panahzadeh & Asadi, 2018). EFL learners’ use of these mitigation devices to modulate their request strategies and how these mitigation devices deviate from native speakers’ norms have also been of great interest to EFL researchers (e.g., Borovina, 2017; Cunningham, 2016; Hassall, 2001; Kanchina & Deepadung, 2019). As for the importance of mitigation devices such as internal and external modifications, Blum-Kulka (as cited in Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2008) states that mitigation can be interpreted as an index of politeness regardless of directness level. Blum-Kulka (1991) also argues that the way people make a request is regarded as an index of their culture. Since native speakers take pragmatic deviations more seriously than syntactic errors, EFL learners deviations from native speakers’ norms and appropriate interventions to address these deviations warrants close explorations (Thomas, 1983; Wolfson, 1989).

Although research has shown that pragmatics instruction influences EFL learners’ pragmatic competence (e.g., Derakhshan & Arabmofrad, 2018; Rajabi & Farahian, 2013; Sa’d & Gholami, 2017; Shirazi et al., 2016), ILP instruction has almost no place in the Iranian EFL textbooks developed by the ministry of education. Although several studies (e.g., Malaz et al., 2011; Tajeddin & Tayebipour, 2012; Yeganeh, 2016) have explored how instruction can influence Iranian EFL learners’ use of request utterances, to the best of the researchers’ knowledge, only one study (Tajeddin & Hosseinpur, 2014) has examined how ILP instruction might affect Iranian EFL learners’ use of internal and external modifications. The findings of Tajeddin and Hosseinpur’s study showed that the consciousness-raising (CR) tasks used in their study did not contribute equally to all aspects of request modifications, especially syntactic internal modifiers. Given the importance of internal and external modifications in the appropriate performance of speech acts, it is crucial to investigate new pedagogical interventions which can enhance EFL learners’ ability in employing these modifiers. Given the characteristics of Bloom’s Taxonomy, Ishihara (2010) contends that this taxonomy can be effective in ILP instruction. Therefore, in the present study an attempt is made to examine how Bloom-based intervention can affect Iranian EFL learners’ use of internal and external modifications. To this end, the present study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. Can Bloom-based instruction enhance Iranian EFL learners’ use of internal and external modifications in the speech act of request?
2. Is there any difference between Iranian EFL learners and native speakers’ use of internal and external modifications in the speech act of request?

Methodology
Participants
The sample of this study comprised of three groups: the experimental group (20), the control group (23), and the comparison group (18). The participants in the experimental and treatment groups were selected from four pre-
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The sample of this study comprised of three groups: the experimental group (20), the control group (23), and the comparison group (18). The participants regarding general language proficiency, showed that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the participants. The results

The descriptive statistics for the performance of the two groups on OQPT are displayed in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Treatment</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>43.65</td>
<td>3.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>44.08</td>
<td>3.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An independent samples t-test checked whether there was any statistically significant difference between the OQPT scores of the participants. The results showed that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the participants regarding general language proficiency, \( t(41) = -.37, p = .70 \). Levene's test of equality of variances also revealed that the assumption of equality of variances was satisfied, \( p = .72 \).

**Instruments**

**Oxford Quick Placement Test**

One of the instruments used in this study was the Oxford Quick Placement Test. OQPT which is a universally validated test and has met the requirements of Cambridge ESOL quality check (Geranpayeh, 2006) consists of 60 multiple choice questions and takes about 75 minutes to complete. This test was piloted on 18 students whose language proficiency was similar to that of the participants of this study in order to check the reliability of the test for the purpose of this study (\( \alpha = 0.78 \)). This placement test was employed in the selection of the participants to make sure the treatment and control group were homogeneous in terms of language proficiency.

**Written Discourse Completion Task (WDCT)**

As a widely used instrument in ILP studies, WDCT elicits examinees' responses by describing a given situation (Mackey & Gass, 2015). The WDCT developed
and used in this study consisted of twelve items in which the contextual variables of social distance (the relationship between the speaker and the hearer), power relation (the burden that the speaker put on the hearer), and degree of imposition (the burden put on the hearer), were taken into consideration. The items used in the WDCT passed through exemplar generation, likelihood investigation and metapragmatic assessment to ensure their authenticity and validity.

Exemplar generation: Here, the purpose is to generate as many situations as needed. To this end, the researchers asked 15 pre-university EFL learners to describe 10 situations which are highly likely to require the use of request speech act. This exemplar generation resulted in 150 situations most of which overlapped each other in terms of power, social distance and degree of imposition. Based on the situations described by the learners, the researchers selected 24 request situations from previous studies (e.g., Blum-Kulka, 1989; Hudson et al., 1995; Rose, 1994; Takahashi, 2001; Woodfield, 2008) which were similar to the 24 situations described by the learners.

Likelihood investigation: In this stage, 20 EFL learners, similar to the participants of the main study in terms of language proficiency, rated the likelihood of the occurrence of these 24 situations in real life on a 5-point Likert scale in order to confirm the naturalness of the situations.

Metapragmatic assessment: Finally, the items which passed through the two previous stages were subjected to metapragmatic assessment to ensure various combinations of the three sociolinguistic variables are represented in the final WDCT. This stage involved examining the remaining items in terms of power, social distance, and degree of imposition. Care was taken to select those items which represented different combinations of the sociolinguistic variables of power, distance, and degree of imposition. That is, attempt was made to include items in the WDCT from the hierarchical politeness system (formal), the deferential politeness system (semiformal), and the solidarity politeness system (informal). As a result, 12 situations which were balanced according to the three sociolinguistic variables were selected for the purpose of this study. Table 3 displays the distribution of the three sociolinguistic variables. In this table, the symbol "+" suggests the superiority of the speaker in terms of the examined social variable, while the symbol "-" indicates the opposite. And the symbol "=" suggests the equality of the speaker and the listener in terms of the variables.

Table 3.
Distribution of the Sociolinguistic Variables in the 12 Items of the WDCT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contextual Variables</th>
<th>Situations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Power</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance</td>
<td>+ - + - + - + - + - + -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imposition</td>
<td>+ - - + - - + + - - +</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Prior to administration, the WDCT was piloted on 15 participants who were similar to the participants of the main study in terms of language proficiency, and some modifications in terms of linguistic level and content were made to situations on the basis of participants’ feedback. Cronbach alpha analysis revealed that the developed instrument enjoyed a rather high reliability \((a = 0.81)\). All the situations utilized in the WDCT were extracted from previously validated studies (e.g., Blum-Kulka, 1989; Hudson et al., 1995; Rose, 1994; Takahashi, 2001; Woodfield, 2008) and passed through exemplar generation, likelihood investigation and metapragmatic assessment. To further ensure the validity of the task, three EFL experts confirmed that the task enjoys an acceptable level of content and face validity and fits the purpose of study.

**Procedures**

First, the OQPT was administered in order to select a homogenous sample of participants for the experimental and control groups. Following that, in the pretest phase of the study, these two groups sat for the WDCT. One week after the pretest, the experimental group received Bloom-based ILP instructions for six thirty-minute sessions. They were instructed on the basis of a lesson plan incorporating a series of tasks designed on the basis of the requirements of each layer of Bloom's Taxonomy. Table 4 displays the type of activities utilized in each level of Bloom's Taxonomy.

**Table 4.**

**Bloom-based Tasks Employed in this Study**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>Type of activities</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Remembering</td>
<td>Recalling, listing, organizing, and the like.</td>
<td>recalling the speech act used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding</td>
<td>Describing in one’s own words, re-telling or summarizing something, summarize, and the like.</td>
<td>Matching a speech act with a specific situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applying</td>
<td>Predicting, employing some given information innovatively, and the like.</td>
<td>Predicting the outcome of a scenario</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyzing</td>
<td>Inferencing, unscrambling, and the like.</td>
<td>Unscrambling the scrambles sentences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluating</td>
<td>Making value judgments, exploring the appropriateness of something, and the like.</td>
<td>Examining the appropriateness of an speech act used in a situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating</td>
<td>Creating something new.</td>
<td>Creating a dialogue or scenario with the speech act taught</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Before the treatment, a video-clip related to the focus of each session was displayed and Bloom-based activities for that session were developed based on the video-clip. The treatment in each session began with remembering activities, the lowest level thinking skill, and eventuated in creation activities, the highest level in Bloom's Taxonomy. Most of the activities were CR activities ad-
The Effect of Bloom-based ILP Instruction on Iranian EFL learners' Use of External and Internal Modifications

1. Introduction

The use of these activities for developing EFL learners' pragmatic competence is supported by EFL researchers. By enabling learners to "make connections between linguistic forms, pragmatic functions, their occurrence in different social contexts, and their cultural meanings" such CR activities are believed to enhance EFL learners' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge (Bouton, 1996). Endorsing this view on the effect of CR activities, Diaz (2013) argues that learners' consciousness level can be raised and their learning enhanced through the higher order thinking activities offered on the basis of Bloom's Taxonomy.

2. Methodology

The participants in the control group only watched the video-clips related to the speech act of request. The activities following the video-clips were neither designed on the basis of Bloom's Taxonomy nor focused on pragmatics points. The participants were provided with some vocabulary exercises and comprehension questions. As for the posttest, the same WDCT administered in the pretest was utilized. The participants in the comparison group also received the WDCT to provide a criterion to be compared with the performance of the experimental and control groups.

3. Results and Discussion

The main purpose of this study was to contribute to SLA research by exploring whether Bloom-based instruction can develop Iranian EFL learners' use of internal and external modifications. The data were tabulated based on a coding scheme adapted from Blum-Kulka et al. (1989b) and Schauer (2009). Modification strategies such as tag questions which were not observed in our data were excluded from the coding scheme used in this study. Table 5 displays the frequency of the external modifications used by the English NSs and Iranian EFL learners before and after the treatment.

4. Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy types</th>
<th>Frequency of external Modification strategies (N=20)</th>
<th>Control group (N=23)</th>
<th>Native speakers (N=10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>posttest</td>
<td>Pretest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alerter</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparator</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting a pre-commitment</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grounder (reason)</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweetener</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disarmer</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imposition minimizer</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appreciation</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apology</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reward</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>461</td>
<td>399</td>
<td>542</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
External modifications, also referred to as supportive moves can either precede or follow the head act (Blum-Kulka, et al. 1989a). External modifications redress requests' illocutionary force to make them seem more polite or minimize their degree of imposition. As Table 6 displays, compared to English NSs, both groups of Iranian EFL learners used more external modifications before the treatment and were not different in terms of the use of external modifications before the treatment (X2 = 0.148, P = 0.701, P > 0.05). The Chi-square results also showed that performance of both the treatment group (X2 = 8.265, P = 0.004, P < 0.05) and the control group (X2 = 11.085, P = 0.001, P < 0.05) differed significantly from that of NSs in the pretest. Iranian EFL learners' overused external modifications mainly due to EFL learners' tendency to use long utterances to show their language proficiency (Hassall, 2001). Similar findings are reported in studies on request strategy (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1986; Rose, 2000; Trosborg, 2011).

Table 6 shows that Iranian EFL learners underused getting a pre-commitment, reward, imposition minimizer, and disarmer strategies compared to NSs. They also used more alerter, grounder, appreciation, apology, and sweetener strategies. Overall, the pretest data revealed that Iranian EFL learners utilized more external modifications than NSs did.

Among most frequently used strategies by participants were alerters (e.g., “excuse me” or “hello”) and grounders (e.g., “Judith, I missed class yesterday, could I borrow your notes?”). The Chi-square revealed that in the pretest both control (X2 = 8.13, P = 0.004, P < 0.05) and treatment groups (X2 = 6.28, P = 012, P < 0.05) utilized alerters significantly more often than NSs did. The analyses also demonstrated that the control (X2 = 7.058, P = 008, P < 0.05) and treatment groups (X2 = 8.66, P = 0.003, P < 0.05) utilized grounders significantly more frequently than NSs did. Previous studies (House & Kasper, 1987; Schauer, 2009; Warga, 2004) have pointed to the frequent use of alerters and grounders by EFL learners before the treatment. Warga (2004) found that even at early stages of language learning, language learners frequently make use of alerters when making a request. The high frequency of the use of grounders is also reported in several other studies (e.g., Faerch & Kasper, 1989; House & Kasper, 1987). Hassall (2001) argued that in all languages grounders are among the main external modifications used; similarly, Faerch and Kasper (1989) reported that grounders are the most frequently used external modifier by EFL learners. It can be reasoned that since alerters and grounders constitute the core parts of a request utterance, they are used more frequently. Alerters are utilized to attract the hearers’ attention and grounders are employed to provide a reason or an explanation for the request (Schauer, 2009). According to Brown and Levinson (1987), giving a reason for the request makes the request more polite by conveying either positive or negative politeness. The analysis of the posttest data showed that after instruction, the treatment group approached NSs’ norms in using alerters (X2 = 0.587, P = 0.443, P > 0.05) and grounders (X2 = 0.036, P = 0.849, P > 0.05); however, the difference between the performance of the control group and that of NSs regarding the use of
alerters ($X^2 = 7.35, P = 0.007, P < 0.05$) and grounders ($X^2 = 4.75, P = 0.029, P < 0.05$) was still significant.

Both NSs and EFL learners used preparators (e.g., “I’d like to ask you something …”) frequently. Although compared to NSs, the control ($X^2 = 0.091, P = 0.763, P > 0.05$) and treatment groups ($X^2 = 0.040, P = 0.842, P > 0.05$) overused this strategy, the difference between their performances was not significant. This overuse, as Tajeddin and Hosseinpur (2014) contend, could be the result of transfer from L1 which causes Iranians to employ lengthy explanations for their requests on many occasions. Posttest performances of both the treatment ($X^2 = 0.434, P = 0.510, P > 0.05$) and the control group ($X^2 = 0.011, P = 0.916, P > 0.05$) was close to NSs’ norms.

NSs employed imposition minimizers (e.g., “Would you give me a lift, but only if you’re going my way”) and disarmers (e.g., “I know you don’t like lending out your notes, but could …”) more frequently than control group and treatment groups did before the treatment. Chi-square analysis revealed that the differences between the performance of both treatment and control groups and that of native speakers was statistically significant for minimizers and disarmers ($p < 0.05$). Given their negative-politeness oriented culture, English native speakers frequently utilize imposition minimizers and disarmers to reduce the imposition and threat to a persons’ negative face. In such cultures, members of the community attempt to decrease the imposition of an utterance so as not to infringe on the interlocutors’ freedom by using strategies such as imposition minimizers and disarmers. Conversely, Iranians’ orientation towards positive-politeness which values solidarity and intimacy, justifies their infrequent use of disarmers and imposition minimizers. As Reiter (2000) states, disarmers are utilized when the requester wants to give reasons to disarm or prevent the requestee from the possibility of refusing his/her request. Therefore, it can be reasoned that the infrequent use of disarmers and imposition minimizers in the request utterances of Iranians stems from their culture. Chi-square results comparing the posttest performance of the control and treatment groups with that of NSs showed that the use of imposition minimizers ($X^2 = 0.603, P = 0.437, P > 0.05$) and disarmers ($X^2 = 2.626, P = 0.105, P > 0.05$) by the participants in the treatment group approached NSs’ norms after the treatment. The deviations from NSs’ norms for both imposition minimizers ($X^2 = 4.743, P = 0.029, P < 0.05$) and disarmers ($X^2 = 10.859, P = 0.001, P < 0.05$) were still significant in the posttest of the control group.

Similar to imposition minimizers and disarmers, getting a pre-commitment (e.g., “Could you do me a favor? …”) is used to reduce the threat to a persons’ negative face. As expected, compared to NSs both treatment ($X^2 = 9.660, P = 0.002, P < 0.05$) and control groups ($X^2 = 10.559, P = 0.001, P < 0.05$) significantly underused this strategy in the pretest. The analysis of posttest data indicated that after the instruction, no significant difference was observed between NSs’ use of getting a pre-commitment and that of treatment group participants ($X^2 = 1.051, P = 0.305, P > 0.05$). The analyses of the posttest data also suggested that the participants in the control group still lagged significantly behind NSs.
with regard to the use of getting a pre-commitment ($X^2 = 6.722, P = 0.010, P < 0.05$).

Sweeteners (e.g., "Today's class was great.") and promises of reward (e.g., "Could you give me a lift home? We'll use my car tomorrow.") were the least preferred modifiers by NSs. Sweeteners contribute to the enhancement of sense of solidarity between interlocutors. These strategies are defined as gentle strokes on the positive face of the interlocutor (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Compared to NSs, the control ($X^2 = 5.172, P = 0.023, P < 0.05$) and treatment groups ($X^2 = 4.156, P = 0.041, P < 0.05$) significantly overused sweeteners before the treatment. After the treatment no significant difference was observed in the use of sweeteners ($X^2 = 0.034, P = 0.854, P > 0.05$) between the participants in the treatment group and NSs. Moreover, no significant improvement was observed in the control group's use of sweeteners, since the difference between their posttest performance and that of NSs was still significant ($X^2 = 4.013, P = 0.045, P < 0.05$). It can be argued that since Iranians live in a positive-politeness oriented society, they employ sweeteners more often than English NSs whose orientation is towards negative politeness. In positive-politeness oriented cultures, these strokes are often used to enhance social ties and sense of solidarity. As Eslami-Rasekh (1993) contends “The use of positive politeness strategies in Persian stems from the value of group orientedness in Iranian culture” (p. 97). Brown and Levinson (1987) classify these strategies as positive politeness strategies since they suggest cooperation between the requester and the requestee. The analyses showed that promise of reward was the least frequently used modification by the three groups. It was found that before the treatment the external modification "promise of reward" was only utilized by the NSs and did not occur in the EFL learners' data. Given the fact that Iranian EFL learners have grown up in a positive-politeness oriented culture, it was expected that they utilize more promises of reward which are positive-politeness strategies. A similar finding is reported by Najafabadi and Paramasivam (2012) who found that low and intermediate Iranian EFL learners did not use promises of reward in their requests. The low frequency of promises of reward in NSs' data is justifiable in light of the fact that positive politeness strategies are not favored by negative-politeness oriented communities. The analysis of the participants' posttest performance did not detect any instance of the promise of reward modifier in the control group's data. As for the treatment group, only one instance of the promise of reward modifier was observed. Chi-square analysis revealed that even after the treatment, the treatment group's performance significantly deviated from that of NSs ($X^2 = 4.193, P = 0.041, P < 0.05$). It can be argued that since this modifier is so infrequent in NSs' data, EFL learners are rarely exposed to these modifiers; hence lack of exposure to promise of reward can be the reason behind EFL learners' low use of promises of rewards.

Compared to NSs, EFL learners in both control ($X^2 = 14.389, P = 0.000, P < 0.05$) and treatment groups ($X^2 = 16.500, P = 0.000, P < 0.05$) significantly overused appreciation strategy (e.g., "I would appreciate it.") in the pretest. The overuse of this strategy, a positive politeness strategy, by Iranian EFL learners can be due to the influence of L1 transfer, which favors positive politeness.
strategies. The participants in the treatment group used appreciation strategy less frequently on the posttest; however, the difference between NSs' and treatment group's use of appreciation strategy was still significant ($X^2 = 3.902, P = 0.048, P < 0.05$). There was also a significant difference between the performance of the control group and NS norms in the post test regarding the use of appreciation modifiers ($X^2 = 17.820, P = 0.00, P < 0.05$).

Given that apology (e.g., "I'm sorry. I can't give you the lesson on Monday.") is mainly a negative-politeness strategy (Brown & Levinson, 1987), it was expected that NSs who belonged to negative-politeness oriented cultures overuse this strategy. However, compared to NSs both treatment ($X^2 = 15.741, P = 0.000, P < 0.05$) and control ($X^2 = 17.557, P = 0.000, P < 0.05$) groups significantly overused this modification strategy before the treatment. While proposing the universality of the notion of face, Brown and Levinson (1987) noted that "in any particular society we would expect [face] to be the subject of much cultural elaboration" (p. 13). In the same line, Holmes (1995) stated that apology is a bifunctional speech act which can serve as both positive and negative-politeness strategy. The statements made by Brown and Levinson (1987) and Holmes (1995) can explain why contrary to our expectation apology is frequently used by Iranian EFL learners. The analyses of apology strategies revealed that the performance of both control ($X^2 = 16.822, P = 0.000, P < 0.05$) and treatment groups ($X^2 = 19.25.893, P = 0.015, P < 0.05$) deviated significantly from NSs' norms in the posttest. Although apologies are expected to occur more frequently in negative-politeness oriented cultures, Brown and Levinson's (1987) idea of the uniqueness of each society and also Holmes' (1995) statement on the functionality of apologies can justify the overuse of this strategy by Iranian EFL learners.

The analyses of the posttest data demonstrated that the treatment group's overall use of external modification strategies approached NSs' performance ($X^2 = 0.400, P = 0.527, P > 0.05$). The participants in the treatment group developed remarkably towards NSs' norms with regards to several external modifications. However, the frequency of appreciation, promise of reward and apology modifiers employed by the treatment group on the posttest significantly differed from that of NSs. Although the control group used more external modifications in the posttest, the Chi-square test showed that the difference between the use of external modifiers by the control group and NSs was still statistically significant ($X^2 = 10.075, P = 0.002, P < 0.05$).

The frequency of internal modification strategies were also analyzed to examine whether EFL learners have improved in their use of these strategies. Table 7 illustrates the frequency and percentage of different types of internal modification strategies used in this study.
The Chi-square test pointed to a difference in the frequency of the use of internal modifications by NSs and the control (X² = 58.611, P = 0.000, P < 0.05) and treatment groups (X² = 29.261, P = 0.000, P < 0.05) in the pretest. Similar to Najafabadi and Paramasivam’s (2012), this study revealed that Iranian EFL learners used less internal modifications than English NSs did. The microgenetic analysis of the moves revealed that EFL learners utilized some internal modifications more frequently than NSs did. Compared to NSs, the two EFL groups underused negation, play-down, downtoner, consultative device and adverbial intensifier modifications in the pretest. Interrogatives, understaters, conditional clause, and embedding were overused by EFL learners.

The findings regarding the frequency of some of the modifiers are in line with the literature (e.g., Hill, 1997, Schauer, 2009; Schmidt, 1983; Tajeddin & Hosseinpur, 2014; Trosborg, 2011). The Chi-square test showed that compared to NSs, both control (X² = 22.421, P = 0.000, P < 0.05) and the treatment group (X² = 14.824, P = 0.000, P < 0.05) employed downtoners (e.g., “Is there any way I could get an extension?”) significantly less frequently in the pretest. As for downtoners, the findings are similar to Faerch and Kasper (1989), Trosborg (2011) and Hill (1997) who showed that EFL learners utilized downtoners less frequently than NSs did. This deviation from NSs’ norms suggests that Iranian EFL learners differ from English NSs with regard to the impositive force they impose on their interlocutors. Living in a positive politeness oriented culture, Iranian EFL learners were expected to utilize more downtoners to tone down the requestive force of the utterance. The comparison of posttest performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modification strategies</th>
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<tr>
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<td>Lexical Downgraders</td>
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<td>Consultative devices</td>
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<td>Politeness device</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>279</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>327</td>
<td>385</td>
<td>322</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
of NSs with the treatment group revealed that the treatment group utilized downtoners with a frequency close to that of NSs ($X^2 = 2.299, P = 0.129, P > 0.05$). The analysis also showed that the control group’s posttest performance still departed significantly from NSs’ norms ($X^2 = 19.441, P = 0.001, P < 0.05$).

As Table 7 shows, EFL learners in both treatment and control groups employed politeness markers (e.g., “Can I please have an extension on this paper?”) and past tense (e.g., “I was hoping you could...”) more frequently than other modification strategies in both pretest and posttest. Chi-square test revealed no significant difference between pretest and posttest performance of the control and treatment group and that of NSs regarding the frequency with which they utilized these two strategies ($p > 0.05$). Such a finding echoes the findings of several other studies (e.g., Schauer, 2009; Schmidt, 1983; Tajeddin & Hosseinpur, 2014) which have demonstrated that politeness markers and past tense are easily acquired and frequently employed from the beginning stages of pragmatics development. The frequent use of politeness markers which are used to soften a request’s degree of imposition may be an attempt by L2 learners to appear more polite in L2 contexts. Faerch and Kasper (1989) contend that the overuse of the marker “please” can be due to its bifunctionality as both illocutionary force indicator and transparent mitigator. Adhering to Grice’s maxim of clarity, EFL learners use the marker “please” to be explicit and transparent (Faerch & Kasper, 1989). It can also be reasoned that learners’ frequent use of the politeness marker “please” is because this marker is acquired in the early stages of language learning and is easily incorporated in a sentence (Schauer, 2009). The overuse of politeness markers by language users has also been reported by other researchers (e.g. Faerch & Kasper, 1989; House & Kasper, 1987).

The analyses of conditional constructions (e.g., “... if you have time.”) demonstrated that participants in the treatment ($X^2 = 5.520, P = 0.019, P < 0.05$) and control groups ($X^2 = 4.399, P = 0.036, P < 0.05$) used significantly more conditional constructions than NSs did before the treatment. As conditional constructions make the request more polite by decreasing the expectations to the fulfillment of the request (Trosborg, 2011), it is likely that Iranian EFL learners use these constructions to appear politer in L2 contexts. Najafabadi and Paramasivam (2012) also showed that Intermediate Iranian EFL learners used more conditionals than NSs did. Conditional forms are frequently used in Persian and Iranian EFL learners’ overuse of these forms can be the result of transfer from L1. The analysis of conditional forms revealed that after the instruction, the participants in the treatment group employed less conditional forms ($X^2 = 1.123, P = 0.289, P > 0.05$). However, the control group significantly overused these forms on the posttest ($X^2 = 5.551, P = 0.018, P < 0.05$).

As for the embedded structures (e.g., “It’d be great if you could put this on the door.”), compared to NSs, Iranian EFL learners in both control ($X^2 = 4.836, P = 0.028, P < 0.05$) and treatment groups ($X^2 = 4.025, P = 0.045, P < 0.05$) significantly overused these structures in the pretest. This overuse could be due to the fact that in grammar-based EFL settings embedding structures such as “I
Regarding negation (e.g., "You can’t speak a bit louder?"), no instance of its occurrence was observed in EFL learners' pretest data. In line with Trosborg’s (2011) study, the results of this study revealed that negation was employed infrequently by English NSs. Although the occurrence of negation in NSs’ data could be expected based on Brown and Levinson’s (1987) notion of negative politeness, it can be reasoned that since negation in requests is optional (Koike, 1994) it is not used as frequently as other negative politeness strategies by NSs. Moreover, this study documented that negation was not employed by Iranian EFL learners at all. This finding is supported by other studies (e.g., Göy et al., 2012; Tajeddin & Hosseinpur, 2014) which found no instance of negation in the output of EFL learners. As Barron (2003) and Schauer (2009) argue, the low occurrence of negation in EFL learners’ data can be due to its complex nature which makes it difficult and time-taking to acquire. Contrary to Tajeddin and Hosseinpur’s (2014) who reported that after instruction Iranian EFL learners made no progress with regard to the acquisition of negation, the progress of treatment group towards NSs’ norms (X² = 0.324, P = 0.569, P > 0.05) revealed that Bloom-based instruction can contribute to the acquisition of this strategy. Similar to their performance in the pretest, the control group did not utilize any negation modification strategy on the posttest.

Although the basic use of questions or interrogative structures is to ask for information, these structures are employed to get people do things through requests. English NSs frequently use interrogatives to mitigate the threat of requests to the requestees’ face (Ogiermann, 2009). The analyses showed that interrogatives (e.g., "Will you help me?") were among the most common strategies employed by EFL learners and NSs. It was also found that prior to the treatment the use of interrogatives by the control (X² = 4.238, P = 0.040, P < 0.05) and treatment groups (X² = 5.025, P = 0.025, P < 0.05) was significantly more than that of NSs. Indirect request strategies, such as interrogatives, are not quite welcome in Iranian culture (Eslami-Rasekh, 1993). Thus, the infrequent use of interrogatives by EFL learners could be attributed to culture transfer (Rass, 2011). The analyses of the posttest data showed that the participants in the treatment group performed almost similar to NSs (X² = 0.506, P = 0.477, P > 0.05). However, for the control group participants, the deviation from NS norms was still significant (X² = 5.849, P = 0.016, P < 0.05).

As negative politeness strategies (Brown & Levinson, 1987), consultative devices reduce the illocutionary force of an utterance by asking the hearers’ opinion. Consultative devices (e.g., "Would you mind lending me a hand?") were the most frequently used phrasal downgrader employed by NSs representing a negative-politeness culture. Iranian EFL learners in both treatment (X² =
employed this strategy significantly less frequently than NSs prior to the treatment. Despite individualist cultures in which consultative devices are conventionalized, Iranian culture is a collectivist one which places more emphasis on social relations and cordiality (Ghorbani et al., 2003) than consultative devices (Faerch & Kasper, 1989; House & Kasper, 1987). Woodfield (2008) and Economidiou-Kogetsidis (2008) argue that the sparing or frequent use of consultative devices is related to positive and negative politeness, respectively. After Bloom-based instruction the use of consultative devices in the treatment group’s approached NSs’ norms ($X^2 = 1.913, P = 0.167, P < 0.05$). The comparison of the posttest responses of the control group with NSs’ responses revealed a significant difference with regard to consultative devices ($X^2 = 18.767, P = 0.000, P < 0.05$).

In contrast to downgraders, which are used to reduce the force of request utterances, upgraders strengthen the force of such utterances. The only upgrader which appeared in the data was adverbial intensifier (e.g., “I would be most grateful if ...”). As for the upgraders, the results showed that these strategies are used infrequently by NSs. It was also observed that EFL learners did not use this modifier in pretest. Such a finding with regard to upgraders has been observed in other ILP studies (e.g., Blum-Kulka et al., 1989b; Trosborg, 2011). The analysis of posttest data showed that after the intervention, the treatment group used upgraders similar to native speakers ($X^2 = 1.658, P = 0.198, P > 0.05$). It was found that although the use of intensifiers in the posttest by the control group also progressed towards NS norms, the deviation from NS norms was still significant ($X^2 = 6.568, P = 0.010, P < 0.05$).

Contrary to upgraders, understaters (e.g., “Can you speak up a little?”) were overused, by both control ($X^2 = 0.024, P = 0.877, P > 0.05$) and treatment groups ($X^2 = 0.287, P = 0.592, P > 0.05$) in the pretest. This lower force which EFL learners prefer to impose on their requests can be due to cultural unfamiliarity and the fact that some EFL learners consider themselves outsiders when speaking in target language situations. The analysis of the posttests suggested that after Bloom-based instruction both control ($X^2 = 0.148, P = 0.700, P > 0.05$) and treatment groups ($X^2 = 0.463, P = 0.496, P > 0.05$) moved towards NSs’ norms.

Both groups utilized more lexical than syntactic downgraders. Given the inherent complexity of syntactic downgraders, EFL learners are also likely to avoid these structures in performing requests. This might indicate that lexical downgraders are easier to acquire than syntactic ones (Schauer, 2009). Similarly, it might imply that nonnative speakers prefer lexical modifiers over syntactic ones in modifying their requests (Biesenbach-Lucas (2007).

Comparisons also suggested that Iranian EFL learners employed less internal modifications than external modifications. This supports the existence of waffle phenomenon which refers to EFL learners’ higher use of external modifications compared to internal modifications (Edmondson & House, 1991).
In summary, the findings suggest that Iranian EFL learners’ use of modification strategies deviated from native speakers’ norms. The deviations observed in the performance of EFL learners can be attributed to EFL learners’ lack of familiarity with the target culture, insufficient real-life language use experiences, and issues such as pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic transfer (Aliakbari & Gheitasi, 2014). The differences found between Iranian EFL learners and NSs’ use of modification strategies could be well predicted since Iranians belong to a collectivist culture in which positive politeness, interpersonal relations and solidarity are more welcome than western cultures which, as Oyserman (2006) states, are individualistic and concentrate on negative politeness. The findings suggested that the Bloom-based treatment contributes to the development of EFL learners’ ability in using internal and external modifications and approaching native speakers’ norms. The findings regarding the effect of ILP instruction are supported by Ellis (1992), Doughty (2008), Jernigan (2012), Kasper and Roever (2005), Norris and Ortega (2000), and Zangoei and Derakhshan (2014) who assert that attending to EFL learners’ pragmatics needs will help them acquire NSs’ norms. In line with the findings of several studies (e.g., Athanassiou et al., 2003; Crowe et al., 2007; Thompson, 2008), the findings of the present study demonstrated that Bloom-based ILP instruction can improve EFL learners’ ILP ability. Such an improvement can be the effect of Bloom’s high order thinking tasks which can enhance the learning process by raising learners’ consciousness (Diaz, 2013). As Smith’s (1993) noticing hypothesis and Smith’s (1980) conscious-raising hypothesis state, the employment of consciousness raising activities, which are also emphasized in Bloom’s Taxonomy, can contribute to learning.

Conclusion

To acquire a language, one needs to acquire the social and cultural norms of the target language. An indispensable aspect of language acquisition which is highly intertwined with cultural and social norms of a speech community, but widely ignored in language teaching is ILP instruction. Since 1990, there has been a surge in the number of studies which have examined different interventions for ILP instruction, such as the video-based approaches (e.g., Martínez Flor & Alcón, 2007), corpus-based methods (e.g., Schauer & Adolphs, 2006), tellecollaboration programs (e.g., Vyatkina & Belz, 2006) and consciousness raising techniques (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig & Griffin, 2005).

This study examined Iranian EFL learners’ use of supportive moves in making requests and compared it with that of native speakers. The present study added to the literature by showing how Bloom-based ILP instruction can contribute to the promotion of EFL learners’ ILP competence. The findings of this study offer pedagogical implications for curriculum designers and textbook writers in EFL contexts. Although some modifications seem to be cross-culturally shared, EFL learners’ awareness of how their requests differ from those of NSs can improve their cross-cultural interactions and help them achieve their communicative goals by minimizing the potentials for misunder-
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standing. Since research has demonstrated that in naturalistic settings the development of pragmatic acquisition occurs slowly (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993), teachers, curriculum developers, and education authorities should not cease the search to find and implement an approach or method which provides EFL learners with effective ILP techniques, such as the ones employed in this study. The findings of this study regarding the frequency of the occurrence of modification strategies may imply the acquisition sequence or difficulty of pragmatic features. Language teachers and curriculum designers can make use of such findings in ILP instruction and development of EFL materials.

Given the small number of the participants of this study, this study is limited to be generalized to other contexts. It is suggested that future studies focus on larger number of participants, including both genders, to provide evidence from other contexts. The researchers of the present study have some other recommendations for future Bloom-based ILP studies which are as follows: examining the prosodic features of the requests used by NSs and EFL learners, employing other data collection instruments such as role plays and observations which may provide the researcher with more naturalistic data, and examining the role of gender in performing a request. This study only focused on the speech act of request, future studies can examine whether Bloom-based instruction can help EFL learners with the acquisition of other speech acts.

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