Request Strategies in Kazakh and Japanese: A Cross-Cultural Pragmatic Analysis

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Abstract

This study investigated how native speakers of Kazakh and Japanese realize the speech act of request. Ten native speakers of Kazakh and ten native speakers of Japanese participated in the study. Data was obtained using an open role play, consisting of nine request situations. The Japanese participants used indirect strategies for someone equal in status more than the Kazakh participants: mostly when the imposition's ranking was high and when the social distance between a requester and the requestee was near. When this study compared the unspecified request strategies, the Japanese used the anonymous request strategies more frequently than the Kazakhs. On the other hand, the Kazakh participants made use of Imperative more than the Japanese participants. This result showed that the use of Imperative in Kazakh society is more allowable than in Japanese society. Benefactive auxiliary verbs of the Japanese language had a relation to request strategies.

Keywords: Benefactive auxiliary verbs, cross-cultural pragmatics, imperatives, request strategies, speech act

Introduction

As stated by J. Austin (1962), speech acts consist of locutionary act (the act of saying: e.g., a speaker says to the hearer, "*Don't go into the water*"), illocutionary act (the performance of a particular language function by what is said: e.g., warning to the hearer not to go into the water), and perlocutionary act (the achieving of some effect on the hearer: e.g., If the hearer heeds the warning, the speech act has been successful in persuading the listener not to go into the water). J. Searle (1969), who developed the Speech act theory of J. Austin, classified the illocutionary act into representatives (e.g., asserting), directives (e.g., requesting), commissives (e.g., promising), expressive (e.g., thanking), and declarations (e.g., excommunicating). J. Searle (1969) stated that the directives were attempts "to get the hearer to do any act which speaker wants the hearer to do, and which is not obvious that the hearer will do in the normal course of events or hearer's own accord."

P. Brown and S. Levinson (1987) stated that a request is a face-threatening act (FTA) of the hearer. Face is divided into a gloomy face (i.e., the need to be independent of having the freedom of action and not to be imposed by hearers) and positive face (i.e., the need to be accepted, even liked by hearers, to be treated as a member of the group and to know that hearers share his or her wants). In conducting speech acts, including request, speakers use two types of politeness strategies to minimize FTA—positive politeness

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strategies and negative politeness strategies. Speakers may threaten the hearer's positive or negative face due to conducting a speech act. By utilizing positive politeness strategies, however, speakers conduct a speech act while addressing sympathy, understanding, or cooperation; using negative politeness strategies, speakers conduct a speech act while mitigating the hearer's burden co-occurring with the speech act. P. Brown and S. Levinson (1987) established the 15 positive politeness strategies (e.g., Seek agreement) and the ten negative politeness strategies (e.g., Apologize). They categorized request and order to an FTA threatening hearer's gloomy face. For example, when a speaker wants to borrow a pencil, the speaker may say, *Lend me a pen!* Without mitigating FTA, the speaker may say, *Excuse me! Can you lend me a pencil*? By using negative politeness strategies like the indirect request and apology.

Literature Review

Request Strategies in Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project

In cross-cultural pragmatics, the directness of requests has been studied. E. Levenston (1968), a pioneer of this field, studied requests in English and Hebrew: from analyzing the questionnaire data produced by speakers, it was evident that Hebrew was politer than English. While the Hebrew speakers frequently used imperatives, the English speakers did not frequently make use of them; the English speakers frequently used indirect requests. As J. House and G. Kasper (1981) stated, who analyzed the directness of requests based on the role-play data of British English and German, the German speakers conducted more direct requests. In eight scales of the directness, while the English speakers used the most frequently Level of directness 3rd, Query preparatory, the German speakers frequently used Level 6th, Locution derivable. This level of directness and the other categories of request (e.g., downgraders, upgraders) in J. House and G. Kasper (1981) influenced Sh. Blum-Kulka's theoretical framework. Sh. Blum-Kulka and E. Olshtain (1984) and Sh. Blum-Kulka, J. House, and G. Kasper (1989) made an extraordinary impact on later studies in pragmatics.

Sh. Blum-Kulka and E. Olshtain (1984), Sh. Blum-Kulka, J. House, and G. Kasper (1989) proposed the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP), where a framework for comparing requests and apologies in languages was shown. These studies were innovative in purpose, scale, and methods and made an opportunity that studies of this type were produced. In the CCSARP, three research types were proposed following the following goal (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989): (i) cross-cultural research focusing on similarities and differences in realization patterns of given speech across different languages (e.g., Which language is more direct in English and German?); (ii) intralingual research focusing on the effect of social variables on the realization patterns of given speech acts within a specific speech community (e.g., What is the difference in requesting to someone higher or lower status in Japanese?); (iii) interlanguage research focusing on similarities and differences in realization patterns of given speech acts between native and non-native speakers of a given language (e.g., What is the difference in requests of English by English native speakers or Japanese native speakers?). Examples of (i) the cross-cultural research were as follows: A. Wierzbicka (1985), S. Fukushima (1996), C. Rinnert and H. Kobayashi (1999), L. Marti (2006), and X. Han (2013). For example, A. Wierzbicka (1985) contrasted Polish and English, and S. Fukushima (1996) contrasted Japanese and British English. Examples of (ii) the intralingual research were as follows: G. Hong (1999), J.C. Felix-Brasdefer (2005), and Th. Nguyen and G. Ho (2013). G. Hong (1999) analyzed Chinese request strategies. As examples of (iii) interlanguage research, M. Economidou-Kogetsidis (2011) analyzed English request by non-native speakers, and S. Bella (2012) analyzed Greek request by foreigners.

Sh. Blum-Kulka and E. Olshtain (1984), J. House, and G. Kasper (1989) used the discourse-completion test (DCT) in collecting the data of requests in languages. This test was developed for comparing the speech act realization of native and non-native Hebrew speakers (Blum-Kulka, 1982). The test consisted of scripted dialogues that represent socially differentiated situations. Each dialogue was preceded by a short description of the situation (e.g., Kitchen, Notes), followed by an incomplete dialogue. Respondents were asked to complete the dialogue, thereby providing the speech act in the given context (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989). In each situation, social variables like social distance (SD) and dominance between a requester and a requestee were established. For the SD, while the plus showed that social distance was far (e.g., they do not know each other, or they are acquaintances), the minus showed that social distance was near (e.g., they are friends with each other or they have a student-teaching advisor relationship). For the dominance, the three types of x<y, x>y, and x=y (x is a requester, and y is a requestee) are shown (e.g., the condition of x<y shows that y is socially stronger than x). Like the other social variables, the imposition ranking was focused on other than social dominance and SD. (Nguyen & Ho, 2013; Okamoto, 1998). Sh. Okamoto (1998) stated that the difference in imposition influenced request expressions.

In the opinion of CCSARP, speech act requests were divided into three parts: i.e., Head act, Alerter, and Supportive move. Head act was the minimal unit which can realize a request; it was the core of a request sequence; Alerter was an element whose function was to alert the hearer's attention to the ensuing speech act; Supportive move was a unit external to the request, which modified its impact by either aggravating or mitigating its force (e.g., Disarmers: I hate bothering you but…; Sweeteners: I've never known anyone who makes such delicious pies as you do).

Based on the DCT data, Sh. Blum-Kulka, J. House, and G. Kasper (1989) showed three possible structures of requests: (i) A Head act only (e.g., *Get me a beer*); (ii) A Head act + Supportive move(s) or Supportive move(s) + A Head act (e.g., *Get me a beer, I'm terrible thirsty*); (iii) Multiple Heads (e.g., *Clean up the kitchen. Get rid of this mess*). In the data collected by an open role play, however, the structure of Supportive move(s) only was confirmed in the discourse other than the three patterns above. In the DCT, the Head act appeared in a single turn, and Alerter and Supportive's move sometimes appeared there. However, in an open role play, since the requests might be gradually conducted in conversation with the interlocutor, Supportive action only sometimes appears in turn.

Request strategies in Head act were divided into nine levels from the viewpoint of directness (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper,1989): i.e., 1. Mood derivable; 2. Explicit performative; 3. Hedged performative; 4. Locution derivable; 5. Want statement, 6. Suggestion formula; 7 Query preparatory; 8. Strong hint; 9. Mild hint. While the Str.1 is most direct, the Str. 9 is the least direct. They put these strategies into three main categories: (i) direct strategies, comprised of strategies 1 to 5; (ii) conventionally indirect strategies, comprised of strategies 6 and 7 and (iii) non-conventionally indirect strategies, comprising of 8 and 9.

A. Trosborg (1955) modified the request strategies proposed by Sh. Blum-Kulka and E. Olshtain (1984) and Sh. Blum-Kulka, J. House, and G. Kasper (1989). Because the researcher cited many examples of each request strategy, it was useful to code request expressions in English and other languages. A. Trosborg categorized request strategies into eight levels (i.e., 1. Imperative, Elliptical phrase; 2. Performative (hedged or unhedged); 3. Obligation; 4. Need and demand; 5. Wanting; 6. Suggestion formula; 7. Ability, Willingness, and Permission; 8. Hint). Furthermore, the researcher put the request strategies into four categories: (i) direct strategies, comprised of strategies 1 to 3; (ii) conventionally indirect

strategies (speaker-based conditions), comprised of strategies 4 and 5; (iii) conventionally indirect strategies (hearer-oriented conditions), comprised of strategies, 6 and 7; (iv) non-conventionally indirect strategy, comprising 8. A. Trosborg (1995) divided the conventionally indirect strategies that Sh. Blum-Kulka, J. House, and G. Kasper (1989) proposed two categories from the viewpoint of perspective. In addition to these, the researcher modified the framework of CCSARP: the difference between Strong and Mild hints in Sh's work. Blum-Kulka, J. House, and G. Kasper (1989) were lost; the separation of Explicit and Hedged performatives was also lost; however, Want statement in the work of Sh. Blum-Kulka, J. House, and G. Kasper (1989) were divided into "Wish and desire" and "Need and demand."

G. Schauer (2009, p. 86) established request strategies based on expressions of asking a location. As stated G. Schauer, the request with an interrogative like *Where is X?* was categorized into Locution derivable.

Sh. Blum-Kulka, J. House, and G. Kasper (1989) indicated devices mitigating the Head acts in their coding scheme. The devices were called internal modification consisting of syntactic or lexical/phrasal downgraders (Negation: Could*n't* you hand me the paper, please?; Embedding: *I hope* you'll be able to give me a hand.). A. Trosborg (1995) and M. Economidou-Kogetsidis (2011) have made a minor modification to the coding scheme. Request strategies are concerned with internal modification. As an internal modification, M. Economidou-Kogetsidis (2011) established Consultative devices. For example, M. Economidou-Kogetsidis (2011) explained the Consultative devices as "Expressions employing which the speaker seeks to involve the hearer directly bidding for cooperation." (e.g., *Would you mind...?*, *Do you think...?*, *Is it/Would it be possible...?* and *Is it all right?*). The request expression *Would you mind...?* was grouped into Query preparatory in request strategies of Sh. Blum-Kulka, J. House, and G. Kasper (1989). In other words, a request modified with Consultative devices is categorized into Query preparatory in request strategies.

Additionally, request strategies are influenced by external modification. Hint in request strategies was treated as Supportive reasons in external modifications. For example, the sentence *It's cold in here* was categorized into Hint showing reason. However, when the direct request "*Close the door, please!*" was added to it, the Hint could become a Supportive reason in external modifications.

Japanese Request Studies

K. Rose (1996) questioned the stereotype that the Japanese were indirect; suggested that Japanese was more direct than American English. That Japanese was more natural than other languages as indicated by other researchers. S. Fukushima (1996) said that Japanese was more straightforward than British English. On the other hand, M. Aihara (2008) showed that the Japanese were more indirect than the Chinese. To be specific, the Japanese participants made indirect requests of the close requestee or the non-close requestee, and the requestee higher or equal in status more frequently than the Chinese participants. While the Chinese participants often used direct requestee strategies of the close requestee equal or a little higher in status, they frequently used indirect requests from the other groups.

As stated by Sh. Okamoto (1988), request sentences had various verb forms in Japanese (e.g., affirmative or negative interrogatives, auxiliary verbs [especially benefactive], sentence-ending particles [e.g., *-yo, -naa*]). The various verb forms are related to the impression of requests (e.g., polite or non-polite, high or low imposition). M. Okura (2000), by surveying a relationship between requests and selection of benefactive auxiliary verbs, reported that a usage rate of *-te morau* and *-te itadaku* (i.e., an honorific form of the *-temorau*) was 67.3% in the condition of "requester < requestee" in dominance; a rate of *-te morau* was low, and a rate of *-te kureru* was 55.3% in respect of "requester = requestee."

651

Problems in Previous Studies

The studies of Japanese or Kazakh pragmatics did not cite all the nine request strategies in Sh.-Blum-Kulka, J. House, and G. Kasper (1989) or all the eight request strategies in A. Trosborg (1995). S. Takahashi (1996), C. Rinnert and H. Kobayashi (1999), S. Fukushima and M. Kimura (2001), and A. Harting (2008), who studied Japanese requests, did not show more examples of the request strategies than T. Hassall (2003) (Indonesian) or L. Marti (2006) (Turkish).

Although A. Trosborg (1995) showed many intelligible examples of request strategies, one example remained controversial: the researcher applied the one example to two categories. The example: *It would be a big help if you passed me the keys* was cited both on p.199 and p.202. On the one hand the example was categorized to Str. 2 Willingness like the example *I hope you wouldn't mind giving me a hand* on p.199, but on the other hand it was categorized to Str. 5 Wish and desire like the example *I would like you to do the gardening today* on p.202. The researcher showed three subcategories in Str. 2 (i.e., *Will you…?* -type, *Would you mind if…?* -type, and *It would be a big help if…*-type). The first and second types were interrogative, and the third type was affirmative. Sh. Blum-Kulka, J. House, and G. Kasper (1989), who laid the foundation of research conducted by A. Trosborg (1995), categorized Willingness to Query preparatory examples. Because it was necessary for terms of Willingness that a sentence was a question, we categorized the third type that was not a question to Str. 5 Wish and desire.

As confirmed in Request Strategies in Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project section above, many researchers studied requests with DCT since Sh. Blum-Kulka (1982). DCT had the advantages as "they allow the researcher to control for variables related to the situation" and "responses form a language speakers and the other language speakers can be statistically compared" (Ellis, 2008, p. 167). However, it did not accurately reflect natural speech (Beebe & Cummings, 1996, p. 80). Because written languages were different from spoken languages (Linell, 2005), the problem with DCT was that natural speech acts were not sufficiently extracted from the DCT. For example, a speech act has multi-turn interactions in real daily lives; however, the DCT can elicit only single-turn responses (Morkus, 2014). The speech act research method has self-report, recall protocols, role plays, and field observations except for the DCT (Ellis, 2008, pp. 167-168). It was evident from previous speech act studies that researchers frequently used DCT (e.g., Bella, 2012; Al-Ali & Alawneh, 2010; Marti, 2006) and a role-play (e.g., Hassall, 2003; Nguyen & Ho, 2013; Lundell & Erman, 2012; Felix-Brasdefer, 2005). The role play was classified into two types: closed and open role-plays. The closed role-play did not allow multi-turn interactions like DCT; in contrast, the open role play had natural speech because of allowing the multi-turn interactions (Kasper & Dahl, 1991). R. Ellis (2008) pointed out two advantages in DCT: controlling for variables related to the situation; responses from A and B being statistically compared. However, the variables like social status and gender can be controlled even in data elicited by the open role play (e.g., Marquez Reiter, 2000; Han, 2013); additionally, the data of the open role play can be statistically compared (e.g., Felix-Brasdefer, 2005; Morkus, 2014). Accordingly, this paper used the open role play for investigating natural requests in Kazakh and Japanese. Due to natural speech, grammatical mistakes from the written language's viewpoint were observed in Kazakh and Japanese data. However, if speech acts function without any problem, we analyzed the sentences where a grammatical mistake occurred.

Purpose and Research Questions

This study investigated how the Kazakh and the Japanese realized requests at the discourse level in situations (i.e., near or far in the social distance; equal, lower or higher in status; low or high in the ranking of imposition). The study aims to answer the following questions:

RQ1: Do Kazakhs and Japanese use direct and indirect strategies differently in situations?

RQ2: Do Kazakhs and Japanese show different discourse-level patterns in their requests?

RQ3: What kind of relation do benefactive auxiliary verbs and situations bear in Japanese?

Methodology

Participants

Ten native speakers of Kazakh and ten native speakers of Japanese participated in this study. The Kazakh participants were university students and teachers. The Kazakh group consisted of 5 females and five males ranging in age between 19 and 37 with an average age of 25.7 years. On the other hand, the Japanese participants were university students and homemakers who have lived in Japan most of their lives and lived in Kazakhstan. The Japanese group consisted of 5 females and males ranging in age between 20 and 35, with an average age of 26.8 years. Schoolboys and girls in elementary and secondary school in Kazakhstan receive an education in Kazakh or Russian. The Kazakh participants in this study received an education in a Kazakh school. Because Kazakh and Russian are widespread in Kazakhstan, the Kazakh may usually use Russian. A sentence in the data in this study sometimes included a Russian expression.

Data Collection

A context-enriched role play instrument (Billmyer & Varghese, 2000; Morkus, 2014) consisted of nine scenarios eliciting data collection requests. This role play was different from a traditional role-play in that the contextualized background information provided for the role-play scenario was quite detailed. Situations elicited by the role play included information about gender and age of an interlocutor, social distance and status between interlocutors, and ranking of requests' imposition.

Some scenarios in this paper were written with modifying situations (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989). For example, more information was added to situations in the work of Sh. Blum-Kulka, J. House, and G. Kasper (1989, pp.14-15) in the first, fourth, sixth, and seventh scenarios in this study. The complete role-play scenarios are included in Appendix A.

Table 1. Role-play situations

Role Play	Setting	Social distance	Status	Ranking of Imposition
Role-play 1	Notebook	-SD	x=y	Low
Role play 2	Corridor	+SD	x=y	Low
Role-play 3	Grill	-SD	x=y	High
Role-play 4	Car	+SD	x>y	Low
Role play 5	Office place	+SD	x<y	Low
Role-play 6	Extension	-SD	x<y	Low
Role-play 7	Experiment	-SD	x>y	Low
Role-play 8	Documents	-SD	x<y	High
Role-play 9	Computer	-SD	x>y	High

Table 1 summarized the nine Role-play scenarios that were used in the present study. These scenarios differed by setting, the social distance, the interlocutors' status relative to each other, and the ranking of the imposition. Because a participant is not accustomed to requesting that the imposition's ranking is high of the stranger (+SD), we estimated that participants unnaturally requested a stranger. Therefore, the combination of +SD and high (Ranking of imposition) was excluded from the situations above.

Procedures

The Japanese researcher administered the role plays with the Japanese group eliciting request data in Japanese. In the Kazakh case, the Kazakh researcher administered the procedures of Kazakh data. Beforehand the Kazakh or Japanese interlocutors practiced speaking in the scenarios multiple times to speak with the participants the same way. For example, in the first scenario, when a participant requested for the interlocutor to borrow a book, the interlocutor was sure to consent to the request; in the third scenario, even though a participant requested for going back home to get the grill he/she left, the interlocutor was sure to say once that they might borrow a grill in their destination, but the interlocutor consented to the request. The Kazakh and Japanese participants practiced speaking a speech act, and they produced the requests.

All the interactions with the Kazakh and Japanese participants were audio-recorded, and the latter were transcribed. The Japanese researcher transcribed the Japanese participants' data, and the Kazakh researcher transcribed the Kazakh participants' data.

Data Analysis

Data consisted of the transcribed interactions from the two groups of participants: a total of 180 interactions. The data were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. For the qualitative analysis, firstly, we classified request sentences in discourse by referring to the categories suggested by Sh. Blum-Kulka, J. House, and G. Kasper (1989) and A. Trosborg (1995). These previous studies cited examples of European languages like English, German, and French; however, they did not cite Asian languages like Japanese and Kazakh. Thus, we had to cite examples in a category of the request strategies of Kazakh and Japanese. We referred to S. Takahashi (1996), C. Rinnert, and H. Kobayashi (1999), S. Fukushima, and M. Kimura (2001), A. Harting (2008) concerning the Japanese category, and L. Marti (2008) concerning the Kazakh category. Based on Sh. Blum-Kulka, J. House, and G. Kasper (1989), L. Marti (2006) investigated Turkish's request strategies. Turkish is the same genetically as Kazakh. Secondly, we compared discourse features in Kazakh and Japanese. Also, we investigated the request strategies that did not include specific content. They occurred after a request in discourse. Furthermore, we surveyed speech acts after the requestee refused an offer and repeated a request after the requestee accepted a request.

For the quantitative analysis, frequency counts of direct strategies, conventionally indirect strategies (speaker based or hearer-oriented conditions), and non-conventionally indirect strategy in A. Trosborg (1995) were calculated for each participant concerning status (higher, equal, lower), social distance (far, near), the ranking of imposition (high, low), and gender of the requester (male, female). Additionally, we measured the percentages of the repeat of a participant's request after the interlocutor consented and percentages of the request strategies that did not include specific contents. To compare the two groups, the percentages were calculated. A percentage of a particular strategy was calculated by dividing the number of occurrences of that particular strategy by the total number of strategies used. A two-sample *t*-test was conducted to determine if any of the two groups' differences were statistically significant. The value of the significance level was set at 0.05.

Results

Request Strategies and Directness

We showed request strategies in Kazakh and Japanese by referring to frameworks suggested by Sh. Blum-Kulka, J. House, and G. Kasper (1989) and A. Trosborg (1995). Table 2 summarized the four main levels of directness and the subcategory of request strategies.

Table 2. Directness categories

Main levels of directness	Request strategies
Direct requests	Str.1 Imperative
	Str.2 Explicit or Hedged performative
	Str.3 Locution derivable
Conventionally indirect requests (speaker-based conditions)	Str.4 Need and demand
	Str.5 Wish and desire
Conventionally indirect requests (hearer-oriented conditions)	Str.6 Suggestory formulae
	Str.7 Ability, willingness, and permission
Non-conventionally indirect request	Str.8 Hint

——Str. 1 Imperative: The imperative is the grammatical form directly signaling that the utterance is an order. In its unmodified form, it is very authoritative. Orders issued by authority figures must be obeyed. Suppose the speaker has power over the hearer. In that case, the latter is obliged to carry out the order, e.g., orders from parent to child, from teacher to pupil, from officer to soldier, employer to employee, etc. (Trosborg, 1995, p. 204). Sit- the figure below shows a Role Play number in Table 1, and No. shows a participant number of the Kazakh or Japanese groups.

(1) *magan berši ta...neni, mmm, konspektini.* (Give me ta, what, mmm, the notebook of the class!) (Sit. 1-No. 4, Kaz.)

(2) *sugu ni, anoo, ugokašite kudasai*. (Immediately, errr..., move it!) (Sit. 4-No. 6, Jap.)

——Str. 2 Performative: The illocutionary intent is explicitly or non-explicitly named by the speaker using a relevant illocutionary verb; hedged performative is expressed by modal verbs (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989, p. 279). In Kazakh data, only Explicit performative was confirmed in Performative (3); however, in Japanese data, both Explicit performative (4) and Hedged performative (5) was observed.

(3) *mümkindik bolsa, qarap bergeninizdi ötinemin.* (If you can, I ask you to check it) (Sit. 8-No. 8, Kaz.)

(4) *sošitara konšuužuu ni žikken no žunbi o onegaišimasu.* (And then, I ask you prepare the experiment during this week) (Sit. 7-No. 2, Jap.)

(5) *sore de, sonoo kenkyuu keikakušo no minaoši oo, sensee nii, cotto onegai o šitai to omotte, ima, kimašita.* (That's why, errr..., I think I want to ask you... to correct... the research plan, and now I came here) (Sit. 8-No. 1, Jap.)

——Str.3 Locution derivable: The illocutionary intent is directly derivable from the semantic meaning of locution (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989, p. 279). Sh. Blum-Kulka, J. House, and G. Kasper (1989, p. 281) cited examples of obligation (e.g., *You should V* and *You must V*) and examples of an interrogative sentence (e.g., *Nehmen Sie mich mit nach hause*?). When we observed Kazakh data, the latter example existed (6). Furthermore, we also found the type of Locution derivable suggested by G. Schauer (2009, p. 86). In the opinion of G. Schauer (2009), a sentence using an interrogative word was categorized as Locution derivable in asking the interlocutor (e.g., *Where is X*?). In Kazakh and Japanese data, this type was confirmed in (7) and (8).

(6) *soni magan beresïn ba*? (Do you give me it?) (Sit. 1-No. 9, Kaz.)

(7) *šäkïrtaqi bölïmï qa... qay žerde*? (The section of a scholarship, where is it?) (Sit. 5-No. 8, Kaz.)

(8) *anoo, šoogakukin tantoo bušo wa docira ni arimasudešoo ka*? (Errr..., where is the section of a scholarship?) (Sit. 5-No. 1, Jap.)

——Str. 4 Need and demand: This is a Want statement strategy (i.e., The utterance expresses the speaker's desire that the event denoted in the proposition come about). The speaker's statement of his/her intent is expressed bluntly as a demand (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989, p. 279; Trosborg, 1995, pp. 201-202). L. Marti (2006, p. 1841) investigating Turkish request cited a type of *Let's V* as Want statement. A type related to Need was cited in examples (9) and (10), A type of Want and demand was cited in examples (11) and (12), and a type of *Let's V* was cited in examples (13) and (14).

(9) *magan konspekt kerek bop tur*. (The notebook is now necessary for me) (Sit. 1-No. 2, Kaz.)

(10) *tori ni modoranakya ikenai nda*. (I have to come back to take it) (Sit. 3-No. 1, Jap.)

(11) *sonι žöndet... žöndetkïm keledï sagan*. (I want to have you repa...repair it) (Sit. 9-No. 4, Kaz.)

(12) *cotto soko o tooritai ndesukedo*. (I want to pass this way, but…) (Sit. 2-No. 1, Jap.)

(13) *köšïrmesïn žasap alayin.* (I'll photocopy it) (Sit. 1-No. 4, Kaz.)

(14) *modorimašoo*. (Let's turn back.) (Sit. 3-No. 3, Jap.)

——Str. 5 Wish and desire: This is also a strategy of Want statement. The speaker's statement of his/her intent is expressed more politely as a demand than Str 4. Need and demand (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989, p. 279; Trosborg, 1995, pp. 201-202). A. Trosborg had a type of the sentence *I would like to V* expressing Wish, and a type of the embedded sentence that the content of a request is thankful or glad to the requester (e.g., *It would be a big help if you passed me the keys*) belong to this category. The former example was (15). The latter example was (16) and (17). Z. Batayeva (2013, p. 123) had the form of Stem-*ayın dep edïm* in Kazakh correspond to "I would like to V."

(15) *bïr sagattan keyïn kelsen, ιι, soni qarap bersen žaqsi bolatin edï*. (If you come after an hour, errr..., it would be good if you check it) (Sit. 9-No. 3, Kaz.)

(16) *kyoo no žugyoo noo, nooto no kopii o moši moraetaraa, arigatai ndakedoo* (It would be appreciated if I get a copy of your notebook of today's class, but…) (Sit. 1-No. 7, Jap.)

(17) *sonι teksertïp alayın dep edïm* (I would like to have you check it) (Sit. 8-No. 6, Kaz.)

——Str. 6 Suggestory formulae: When employing these formulae, the requester does not question any particular hearer-based condition; instead, he/she tests the hearer's cooperativeness in general by inquiring whether any conditions exist that might prevent the hearer from carrying out the action specified by the proposition (Trosborg, 1995, p. 201). The sentences of *qalay*? "How about?" in Kazakh and *doo*? "How about?" in Japanese were subject to this category. An honorific form *ikagadešoo ka*? of the *doo*? was also confirmed in this data.

(18) *sïzge, ïïï, qažettï medikamentterdï εkspetimentke qažettï medikamentterdï osιaptada dayιndap qoysanιz. qalay boladι*? (To you... if you prepare the necessary medicines, the necessary medicines for the experiment during this week. How about it?) (Sit. 7-No. 3, Kaz.)

(19) *kyoo no žugyoo noo, nooto no kopii o moši moraetaraa arigatai ndakedoo, doo*? (It would be appreciated if I get a copy of your notebook of today's class, but how about it?) (Sit. 1-No. 7, Jap.)

(20) *zehi cotto, mite itadakitai ndesukedoo, ikagadešoo ka*? (By all means, I would like to have you check it for my sake a just, but how about it?) (Sit. 8-No. 3, Jap.)

——Str. 7 Ability, willingness, and permission: This strategy corresponds to Query preparatory suggested by Sh. Blum-Kulka, J. House, and G. Kasper (1989, p. 280). The utterance contains a reference to a preparator condition for the request's feasibility, typically one of ability, willingness, or possibility (permission), as conventionalized in the given language. The examples of Ability were (21), (22), and (23); The example of Willingness was (24); The examples of Permission were (25) and (26).

(21) *däpppterïndï bere tura alasın ba*? (Can you lend your notebook?) (Sit. 1-No. 2, Kaz.)

(22) *kašite morau koto dekiruu*? (Can I have you lend it to me for my sake?) (Sit. 1-No. 1, Jap.)

(23) *naošite morawanai koto wa dekinai ka naa*? (Can I not have you repair it for my sake, okay? [Lit. Can I not have you not repair it for my sake, okay?]) (Sit. 9-No. 4, Jap.)

(24) *nooto kopii sa sete kurenai ka naa*? (Will you not get me to photocopy it, okay?) (Sit. 1-No. 8, Jap.)

(25) *men mına žerden ötïp ketsem boladı ma*? (Is it allowed that I pass you from this place?) (Sit. 2-No. 1, Kaz.)

(26) *cotto doite moratte mo iidesu ka*? (Is it allowed that I have you get out the way for my sake?) (Sit. 2-No. 1, Jap.)

——Str. 8 Hint: This strategy belonged to Non-conventionally indirect requests, unlike Str. 4-7. The requester can imply to his/her requestee what he/she wants to be done by saying a trigger for the hint. A. Trosborg (1995) functionally subcategorized this Hint to Reasonableness, Availability, and Obviousness. By referring to an undesired state, the requester can indirectly request. This request is a method of eliminating such an undesirable situation. A. Trosborg (1995) labelled such an example as Reasonableness. Moreover, by questioning some condition that would present an obstacle to compliance, the requester can indirectly request. A. Trosborg (1995) labelled this questioning as Availability. Examples (27) and (28) related to Reasonableness; examples (29) and (30) related to Availability. A. Trosborg (1995) cited the category of Obviousness as Hint. An example of the Obviousness was not found in this study. The request of Obviousness can be felicitously performed only if the desired things do not already exist at the time of the utterance.

(27) *mına žerden kölïktï qoyuga bolmajdı.* (It is not allowed to leave a vehicle here) (Sit. 4-No. 2, Kaz.)

(28) *anoo, soko kuruma tomeca ikenai bašona ndakedoo.* (Errr... that spot is a place, where one must not leave a car, but...) (Sit. 4-No. 1, Jap.)

(29) *sen qatıssstı dep estïdïm, boldın goy, iä, sabaqta*? (I heard that you attended the class; you were at the place, yes?) (Sit. 1-No. 2, Kaz.)

(30) *mitemorau ojikan arimasudešoo ka*? (Do you have time to check it for my sake?) (Sit. 8-No. 8, Jap.)

When observing the Japanese data, we found an example that has not been classified into these three subcategories of Hint (31). A request was conducted by saying *cotto* "a little, a minute, etc.." The following A was the requester's speech, and the following B was the speech of the requestee.

(31) Sit. 2-No. 8, Jap.

B: *a, un un un, soona ndaa, ee, a, hai.* (A, yes, yes, yes, that's it, errr...a, yes.)

A: *suimasen. denwa-chuu suimasen.* (Excuse me. I'm sorry to interrupt you.)

B: *hai*. (Yes)

A: *cotto*... (Hint) (A second...)

A: *aa gomen'nasai*. (Oh, sorry.)
B: *suimasen, arigatoo gozaimasu*. (Sorry, thank you.)
A: *hai*. (Ok)

Features of the Discourse

As noted in the Request Strategies and Directness section above, the request structure consisted of Head act only, Head act+Supportive move(s), and Multiple Head acts. These three types were found in this research. In observing the Multiple Head acts' examples, the specific content was not sometimes included in the latter Head act. Example (32) of Kazakh showed Str. 4 Need and demand+Str. 2 Performative and example (33) of Japanese showed Wish and desire+Performative. They were the examples of Multiple acts. The request strategies occurring just before the Performative of Kazakh or Japanese included the specific content, but the Performative itself did not.

(32) *mümkïn bolsa, qayta oralayïqši* (Need and demand). *ötinem* (Performative). (If you can, Let's back, please. I beg it) (Sit. 3-No. 8, Kaz.)

(33) *ano, me o tooši itadaku dake demo, ii ndesukeredomoo* (Wish). *sensei onegai itašimasu* (Performative). (Er, it is good that I have you just take a casual glance at it, but...) (Sit. 8-No. 10, Kaz.)

If a Head act had already occurred in the discourse, the next Head act could not include the specific request content. The Performative *ötïnïš öte!* "that is my big request!" in example (34) in Kazakh and the Performative *doošitemo onegai šitai ndesuu* "I certainly want to ask you" in example (35) in Japanese did not include the specific content. Still, the content already appeared in a previous sentence.

(34) Sit. 6-No. 10, Kaz.

A: *ïï sïzden bïr ötïnïšïm bar edï. ïï sïzdïK pänïKïzden referat ötïkïzwïm kerek eken. bïraq men ɛksperimentterdï žay bïtïrgendikten, bügïn žaz ıp ayaqtap ülgermedïm. son ı basqa künge awistirsaq bola ma eken?* (Er, there is a favor for you. Er, it is said that I must write a report on the subject. But I conducted the experiment late, that's why I didn't make the deadline. Is it allowed that you change it to another day?)

B: *mm, ne ïstesek bolar eken? negizi, bügin song ı kün ekenïn bïlesïz goy, iä?* (Mm, what will we do? Do you know that today is the deadline? Yes?)

A: *iä. apay, ötïnïšöte* (Performative)*! men ülgermej qald ım. ïï, mïndette türde or ındaymin. waq ıt berïnïzšï, basqa künge* (Yes. Professor, that is my big request! I didn't make the deadline. Er, I will conduct it for sure. Give me time, to the other day!)

(35) Sit. 8-No. 5, Jap.

A: *anoo kyoomade nii, anoo šoogakukin no uketori no tame no kenkyuu keikakušo o šiagenakuca ikenakutee, sore no cekku o šite itadakitai ndesukedoo.* (Er…, by today, I have to finish writing the research plan for receiving the scholarship, and I would like to have you check it, but…)

B: *e, kyoomadena noo?* (Eh? by today?)

A: *hai, cotto, kakiageru no ni žikan ga kakatte šimattee.* (Yes, it took a while to finish writing it)

B: *ee wataši kyoo žikan nai yo, hikooki no žikan mo arukaraa.* (Gee, I don't have time, because I have time for the flight)

A: *nn demo, doošitemo onegai šitai ndesuu.* (Performative) (Er, but I certainly want to ask you)

In calculating the number of request strategies that did not include the specific content, the Kazakh data had 13. The Japanese data had 54; in other words, the Japanese

numeric data was about four times more than the Kazakh data. In table 3, we showed the percentages of the number of unspecified request strategies. The Kazakh group produced a higher percentage of Str. 2 Performative (*M*.022, SD=.013) than the Japanese group (*M*.002, SD=.004), and this difference was statistically significant, *t*(11)= -4.30, *p*<.05. The Performative in example (35), was hedged. There were Explicit performatives like *onegaišimasu,* "I ask (you)," and *yorošiku onegaišimasu* "I ask (you) to do appropriately" in Japanese data. In the calculation of these Performatives, the number of Hedged performatives was 12, the number of the *onegaišimasu* was 21, and the number of *yorošiku onegaišimasu* was 8.

Table 3. Percentages of unspecified request strategies

	Kaz.	Jap.
Str.1 Imperative	2	0
Str.2 Performatives	4	22
Str.3 Locution derivables	1	0
Str.4 Need and demand	0	0
Str.5 Wish and desire	0	0
Str.6 Suggestory formulae	2	2
Str.7 Ability, willingness, and permission	1	5
Str.8 Hint	0	1

We investigated the position of Imperative in discourse. Both in Kazakh and Japanese, when the status was lower or equal, Imperative appeared as a first request strategy in the context. However, as shown in example (34), Kazakh participants first put a request strategy: Str.7 Permission, in example (36), in discourse when the status was higher and put the Imperative. On the other hand, Japanese participants did not use Imperative for someone higher in status. When we calculated the number that Imperative was used as a first request strategy in the discourse, the result was higher (Kaz. 0/Jap. 0), equal (Kaz. 3 / Jap.2), and lower (Kaz. 4/ Jap. 1).0

(36) Sit.6-No.10, Kaz.

A: *ïï sïzden bïr ötïnïšïm bar edï. ïï sïzdïn pänïnïzden referat ötïkïzwïm kerek eken. bïraq men ɛksperimentterdï žay bïtïrgendïkten, bügïn žazýp ayaqtap ülgermedïm. soni basqa künge awïstïrsaq bola ma eken*? (Permission) (Er, there is a favor for you. Er, it is said that I must write a report on the subject. But I experimented late, that's why I didn't make the deadline. Is it allowed that you change it to another day?)

B: *mm, ne ïstesek bolar eken*? *negïzï, bügïn songi kün ekenïn bïlesïz goy, iä*? (Mm, what will we do? Do you know that today is the deadline? Yes?)

A: *iä. apay, ötïnïš öte! men ülgermey qaldým. ïï, mïndette türde orïndaymïn. waqit berïnïzšï, basqa künge* (Imperative) (Yes. Professor, that is my big request! I didn't make the deadline. Er, I will conduct it for sure. Give me time, to the other day!)

Direct and Indirect Strategies of Request

An examination of indirect strategies (hearer-oriented) revealed a difference between the two groups, as graphically illustrated by Fig.1. The Japanese participants produced a higher percentage of indirect strategies (hearer-oriented) (*M*=.039, SD=.013) than the Kazakh participants (*M*=.027, SD=.006), and this difference was statistically significant, *t*(12)=-2.40, *p*<.05. With regard to direct strategies, indirect strategies (speaker-based), and non-conventionally indirect strategy, percentages of the Kazakh participants were higher than percentages of the Japanese participants; however, these differences were not statistically significant. As Fig. 2 of the direct strategies showed, the Japanese produced a higher

percentage of Str. 2 Performative (*M*=.026, SD=.018) than the Kazakhs (*M*=.005, SD=.026), and this difference was statistically significant, *t*(18)=-3.12, *p*<.05. The Kazakhs produced a higher percentage of Str.1 Imperative (*M*=.014, SD=.009) than the Japanese (*M*=.002, SD=.004), and this difference was statistically significant, *t*(13)=3.41, *p*<.05. Also, the Kazakh group produced a higher percentage of Str.3 Locution derivable (*M*=.013, SD=.008) than the Japanese group (*M*=.003, SD=.003), and this difference was also statistically significant, *t*(11)=3.34, *p*<.05.
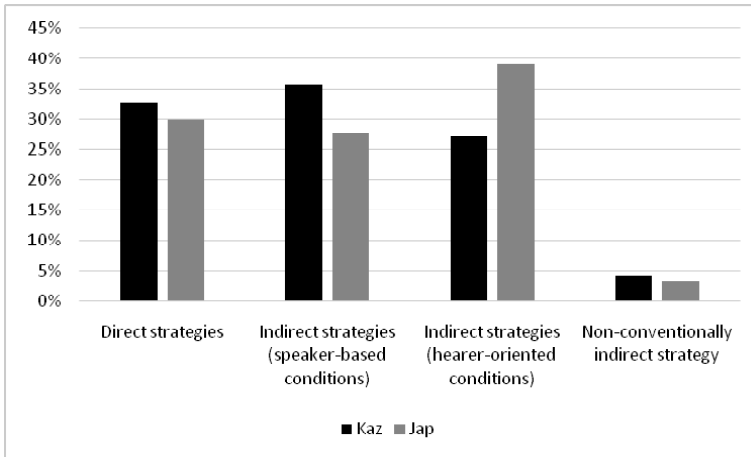

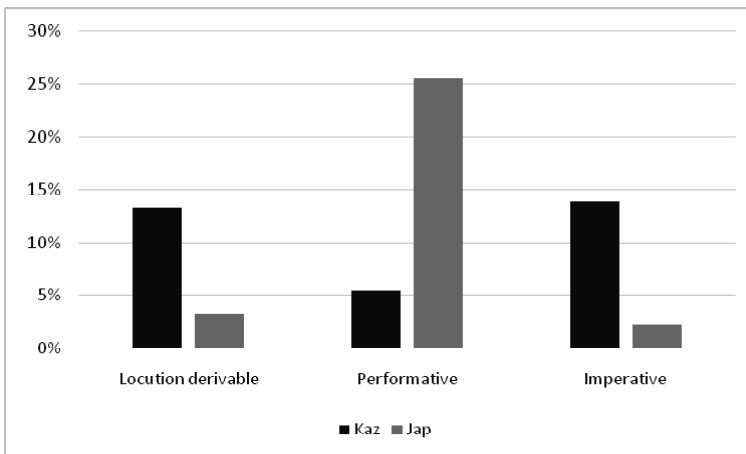Figure 1. Direct and indirect strategies

Figure 2. Locution derivable, Performative and Imperative in direct strategies

Request Strategies and Situations

We showed the percentages of each status in the four main categories in table 4. Regarding the direct strategies, the Kazakh and Japanese groups used direct strategies most frequently for someone higher in status. Regarding the other three indirect strategies, the higher status group had a tendency not to produce a higher percentage than the equal or lower status group: even about indirect strategies (hearer-oriented conditions) in Kazakh that were exceptional, the higher status group in Kazakh produced a slightly higher percentage than the other status groups.

Table 4. Percentages of each status in each strategy

	Kaz.			Jap.		
	higher	equal	lower	higher	equal	lower
Direct strategies	15	8	10	13	5	12
Indirect strategies (Speaker)	9	14	13	10	9	8
Indirect strategies (Hearer)	10	8	8	10	16	13
Non-conventionally indirect Strategy	1	1	2	1	1	2

Table 5 showed each status's percentages in three direct strategies (i.e., Imperative, Performative, and Locution derivable). About the Kazakh data, the Imperative was used when interacting with someone all of higher, equal, and lower in status; on the other hand, about the Japanese data, the Imperative was not used only when interacting with someone higher in status.

Table 5. Percentages of each status in Direct strategies

	Kaz.			Jap.		
	higher	equal	lower	higher	equal	lower
Imperative	4	4	7	0	2	1
Performative	3	1	2	10	4	11
Locution derivable	9	4	1	3	0	0

As shown in Figure 3, the Japanese participants produced a higher percentage of indirect strategies (hearer-oriented conditions) in equal and lower status situations than the Kazakh participants. The Japanese group produced a higher percentage of indirect strategies in equal status situations (M=.016, SD=.006) than the Kazakh group (M=.008, SD=.005), and this difference was statistically significant; $t(18)$=-2.78, p< .05.
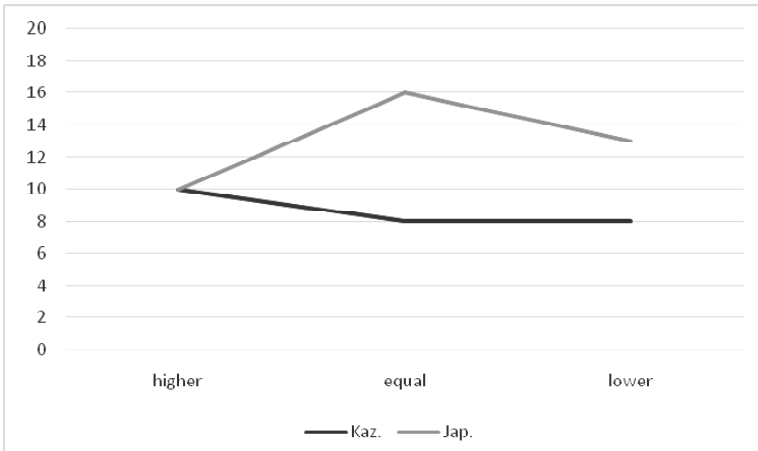

Figure 3. Indirect strategies (hearer-oriented conditions) by status

We analyzed the indirect strategies (hearer-oriented conditions) from the viewpoint of SD, gender, and ranking of imposition. The Japanese participants used when the ranking of imposition was high more frequently (M=.016, SD=.005) than the Kazakh participants (M=.007, SD=.006), and this difference was statistically significant; $t(18)$=-3.37, p<.05. About the low ranking of imposition, the difference between the two languages was not statistically significant. The Japanese group used more frequently when the SD was near (M=.028, SD=.010) than the Kazakh group (M=.02, SD=.007), and this difference was statistically significant, $t(18)$=-2.11, p<.05. On the other hand, when the SD was far, the

difference between the two languages was not statistically significant. For gender, the difference between the two languages was not statistically significant.

Japanese Benefactive and Social Variables

Kazakh and Japanese have auxiliary verbs of benefactive. While the Kazakh benefactive verb is only a type of "to give," the Japanese benefactive verbs are three types of *ageru* "(I) give (s.o.)" (plain form *ageru*; honorific form *sashiageru*), *kureru* "(s.o.) to give (me)" (plain form *kureru*; honorific form *kudasaru*), and *morau* "(I) get (from s.o.)" (plain form *morau*; honorific form *itadaku*). Refer to S. Makino and M. Tsutsui (1989) about the benefactives of Japanese. In observing the data, while we found a few examples of the auxiliary verb in the Kazakh data (e.g., *tez qarap bersenïz* Sit.9-No. 2, Kaz.), we found many examples of the auxiliary verbs in the Japanese data: in the auxiliary verbs, *-te kureru, kudasaru, morau* and *itadaku*-form were confirmed.

Concerning *-te kudasaru*, we found the imperative form *-te kudasai* only when the SD was far or when the ranking of imposition was low. Also, we found the form *-te kurenai*? (a negative and interrogative form of *-te kureru*) of Str. 7 Willingness only when the SD was far. When observing the utilization percentage of *-te itadaku*, interactions with the x<y group was (36%) more than interactions with the x=y and x>y groups (9%). However, with regard to *-te morau* (the plain form of *-te itadaku*), interactions with the x<y group was (2%) less than interactions with the x=y and x>y groups(34%). The percentages of x=y and x>y of *-te kureru* and *-te kudasaru* were 19%, and the example of x<y was not found.

Discussion

One of the essential findings from this study was that the Japanese were more indirect than Kazakh. When we quantitatively analyzed Kazakh and Japanese's request strategies with four categories based on directiveness, the Japanese participants produced a higher percentage of indirect strategies (hearer-oriented conditions) than the Kazakh participants (Figure 1). When interacting with someone equal in status, the SD being near, and the imposition ranking being high, the Japanese participants used indirect strategies (hearer-oriented conditions) more frequently than the Kazakh participants (Request Strategies and Situations section). By indirectness, a negative politeness strategy, the Japanese considerately requested more than the Kazakhs. Our research agreed with M. Aihara (2008) that the Japanese used indirect requests to the requestee equal in status more frequently than the other status groups. As table 4 showed, the Kazakh and Japanese participants used direct strategies most frequently for someone higher in status. Politeness strategies may be conducted to someone higher in status. The result of this research was that the Kazakh and Japanese made a polite request of someone higher in status in a manner other than indirectness.

In the Request Strategies and Directness section, we cited Obligation-type and Interrogative-type as a strategy of Locution derivable. About the latter type, an interrogative sentence like *Nehmen Sie mich mit nach hause*? in German belonged to the Locution derivable, but on the other hand, interrogative sentences of *Can you/I do…*? belonged to a strategy of Query preparatory that was related to Ability, willingness, and permission. Because this Interrogative-type sentence in German does not ask about the preparatory condition, it can be presumed that this type belongs to the Locution strategy derivable. Sentences of Ability like example (21) *däpppterïndï bere tura alasin ba*? "Can you lend your notebook?" and Permission like example (25) *men mina žerden ötïp ketsem boladi ma*? "Is it allowed that I pass you from this place?" referred to preparatory condition; however, example (6)

soni magan beresïn ba? "Do you give me it?" did not refer to preparatory condition. In consequence, example (6) belonged to the Interrogative-type like the example of German above. There was not an example of Locution derivable of Interrogative-type in the Japanese data. A. Harting (2008, p. 124) cited the expression of *-te kuremasen ka*? "Will you no get me to V...?" (e.g., *hon o kashite kuremasen ka*? "Will you no get me to lend the book?") as Locution derivable of Japanese. However, the illocutionary intent was not directly derivable from the meaning of locution, even though someone said this sentence. The condition that was derivable from this expression was that someone did not conduct a request. If there had been examples like *kureru kana*? "Will you get me to V…, ok?", *kuremasu ka*? "Will you get me to V…?" etc. in the Japanese data, we would have classified such examples to Locution derivable.

When we surveyed examples of request strategies suggested by Sh. Blum-Kulka, J. House, and G. Kasper (1989) and A. Trosborg (1995), basically only full sentence was cited: the exception was Elliptical (e.g., *Two coffees, please*). However, when observing the open role-play data, we found many request strategies for missing specific content. Firstly, regarding the sequence of request sentences, the specific content was not shown in the latter sentence: e.g., (32) and (33). Because the specific content was shown in the former sentence, the content was not repeated in the latter sentence. Secondly, when a request strategy appeared earlier in the discourse, a request strategy that appeared in a later position did not include the specific content: e.g., (34) and (35). Comparing the unspecified request strategies of Kazakh and Japanese revealed that the Japanese tended to use them more frequently than the Kazakh (in Features of the Discourse section). In this case, the percentage of Str. 7 Performative was high in the Japanese data, as shown in table 3. The Str.7 Performative was subcategorized into Explicit performatives (e.g., *onegaišimasu, yorošiku onegaišimasu*) and Hedged performative. Y. Obana (2012) stated that the expression of *yorošiku onegaišimasu* was used not only as request but as a greeting and confirmation of a request. The expression of *yorošiku onegaišimasu* in the Japanese data in this research could be interpreted as a request or as confirmation of a request suggested by Y. Obana (2012).

The Kazakhs used Imperative as a request more frequently than the Japanese (Figure 2). There were cases where the Japanese participants used Imperative; however, they did not use it for someone higher (Table 5). It could be said that the Kazakh society allows the use of Imperative for someone in higher status more than the Japanese society. However, even though Kazakh participants used Imperative to someone higher in status, the Imperative was the honorific form like example (36): the plain form of *berïnïzšï* "Give me, please (polite)" was *berši* "Give me (non-polite)." Also, Imperative to someone higher in status was not used as a first request strategy in discourse (in Features of the Discourse section). In other words, the Imperative appeared after the requester had already made a request. That the Kazakh did not use Imperative for someone higher in status was a polite request of Kazakh.

The *-te kudasaru* of benefactive auxiliary verbs in Japanese appeared as a form of Imperative in +SD. For example, the sentence of *ugokašite kudasai* "Move it" (Sit. 64-No. 6, Jap.) was the sentence that police use for work: A. Kobayashi (2009) said that the form of *-te kudasai* was used in regular work. The sentence of *toora sete kudasai* "Let me pass through" (Sit. 2-No. 5, Jap.) was used when a walker wants to pass along a blocked road. A. Kobayashi (2009) stated that the form of *-te kudasai* was possible to be used in regular work or the condition of small burdens on the requestee. The sentence of *toora sete kudasai* in this research was an example of the requestee's small burdens. Taking the previous research into account, the use of *-te kudasai* in work other than regular work and big burdens on requestee would be inappropriate in the Japanese society. The Japanese data revealed that *itadaku*-type was used in the condition of x<y more frequently than *morau,*

kureru, and *kudasaru*-types. M. Okura (2000) showed that the percentage of use of *itadaku* and *morau*-types was high in the condition that an advising teacher wrote a requester a recommendation: x<y. On the other hand, the result of our research showed that the percentage of the use of only *itadaku*-type was high in x<y; however, the percentage of *morau*-type was low.

Example (23) of Str.7 Ability was logically contradictory. When making a request, a requester can use the negative and interrogative form like *naošite moraenai*? "Can I not have you repair it for my sake?" *naosu koto wa dekinai*? or "Can you repair it?". Negation, in this example, was a downgrader. It could be said that the requester used two Negation to mitigate the impositive force (imposition, intrusive force) of the request.

Conclusion

This study investigated the realization of the speech act of request by native speakers of Kazakh and native speakers of Japanese. The Japanese group used indirect strategies in equal status situations, in situations where the SD was near, and in situations where the ranking of imposition was high, more than the Kazakh group. When participants made a request, the specific content might not be included in the request. When we analyzed the unspecified request strategies quantitatively, the Japanese group used them more frequently than the Kazakh group. This study showed that the Japanese tended to use Str. 7 Performative more frequently than the Kazakh; on the other hand, the Kazakh used Str.8 Imperative more frequently than the Japanese. One of the Kazakh group features was that a requester used Imperative for someone higher in status; on the other hand, the Japanese did not do that. The range of use of Imperative in Kazakh society is wider than in Japanese society. When we surveyed the relation between benefactive auxiliary verbs and request strategies in Japanese, the form of -*te kudasaru* was used in +SD. The form of -*te itadaku* was used to someone higher in status more frequently than -*te morau/kureru/kudasaru*.

Table 4 showed that the Kazakh and Japanese used direct strategies most for someone higher in status more frequently than for someone equal and lower in status. There may be an opinion that requesters use indirect request to someone higher in status. For example, when comparing the refusal in Arabic and English, N. Morkus (2014) showed that the Arabic native speakers used indirect strategy for someone higher in status more frequently than the English native speakers. The data in the present study did not show that requesters frequently used indirect strategies for someone higher in status. It could be said that the Kazakh and the Japanese made a request of someone higher in status in a manner other than indirectness. Sh. Blum-Kulka, J. House and G. Kasper (1989) and A. Trosborg (1995) introduced the category of internal modification and external modification as a method for a considerate request. We need to survey the request for someone higher in status in the two languages from the modification viewpoint.

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Appendix A
Role-play scenarios (translation from Kazakh and Japanese)

Role Play 1
You are a student at a university. You overslept and could not attend the lecture "History of the Near East" today. Next week, you have the test. That's why you want a copy of the notebook, where the content of the lecture is written. Then you happened to meet your friend, Aydana Sultan (Ms.)*. She is the same old as you and takes the class seriously. You want to photocopy her notebook. You and your friend are close to the condition other than the class. You appeal to her to borrow her notebook. What do you say to her?
*Yoshida Haruko (Ms.) in the Japanese version.

Role Play 2
You are walking along the narrow and long corridor. A woman who is about your age stands ahead. She is talking by mobile and does not seem to notice you. You want to get ahead of her and go forward in the corridor. However, she is preventing you from passing. You appeal to her to get out the way. What do you say to her?

Role Play 3
You are a student in a university and live in a dormitory. Today you plan to camp with your friends on the mountaintop. Your close friend, Aydana Sultan (Ms.)*, picked you up from her house at 6 am this morning. She is the same old as you. It takes two hours until the base of the mountain. Thirty minutes after being in the car, you noticed that you left the barbecue cookstove out on the dormitory. You completely forgot the barbecue cookstove because your attention was caught by carrying tableware, vegetables, etc.. You appeal to her to turn back to the dormitory. What do you say to her? By the way, you can not borrow a barbecue cook stove at that camp place.
*Yoshida Haruko (Ms.) in the Japanese version.

Role Play 4

Fifteen years have passed since you became police. During patrolling the town, you noticed the car that was parked illegally on the road. When you got out of the police car and was about to confirm its number, a female driver got out of the car. She looks around 20 ages. You appeal to her to move her car from there. What do you say to her?

Role Play 5

You are a student at a university. You prepared all the documents to get a scholarship. Now, it is required to hand out the documents by yourself to the Office of "Bolashak" scholarship. You arrived at the "Bolashak" Office, the Reception Desk is right before you, but you don't know where is a section that allocates scholarship. You appeal to ask a female front clerk about the place. She looks around 30 ages. What do you say to her?

Role Play 6

You are a student at a university. You must submit your report in the course of Psychology by today. Because the experiment was delayed, you can not finish writing the report. The professor in charge of the course is a woman and looks around 40 ages. You appeal to her to extend a deadline for the submission until the next class. What do you say to her?

Role Play 7

You are a faculty member at a university. You should conduct the scheduled experiment after two weeks. However, it turned out that you must make an official trip to the UK at that time. You decided to experiment after one week. You appeal to Aydana Sultan (Ms.)*, a student-leader of the course, to prepare medicines required for the experiment within this week if possible. She is a 5student who always responsibly supports you during the experiments, lessons, etc. What do you say to her?

*Yoshida Haruko (Ms.) in the Japanese version.

Role Play 8

You are a student at a university. You are preparing the documents for application to "Bolashak" scholarship. You have to submit your research plan as one of such documents. It took a lot of time for you to finish writing the plan. You appeal to Ayzhan Ergesh (Ms.)*, a teaching advisor, to check it. Her age is 40. You knocked on the door and entered her Office. However, she said during the lesson that she would make an official trip to the UK that night. Now it seems that she is busy with preparations for the trip. But you have to prepare the documents today and mail them to the Scholarship Office. What do you say to your supervisor?

*Fujita Hiroko (Ms.) in the Japanese version.

Role Play 9

You a faculty member at a university. Your desktop PC in your house does not operate. You want to repair it. You do not know a lot about computers. You know that Aydana Sultan (Ms.)*, who is familiar with a computer among students. After the class, you invited her. You want her to check it by today if she can. She lives in a dormitory on the university campus. It takes an hour from the university by bus. Even though you know that tomorrow she has an exam in Psychology taught by you, you want her to check the computer today. The computer contains the data of the examination. Till now, when you have a problem with your PC, she helped you with high responsibility. You appeal to her to repair the desktop PC. What do you say to her?

*Yoshida Haruko (Ms.) in the Japanese version.

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