POLITENESS STRATEGIES OF DIRECTIVES USED BY INDONESIAN AND LIBYAN STUDENTS OF DIPONEGORO UNIVERSITY SEMARANG USING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

A Thesis

In a Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for Master’s Degree in Linguistics

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A THESIS

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Semarang, 20, March 2013

HAMZA AABEED KHALFALLA
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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my parents and my family who have supported me all the way since the beginning of my studies.

Also, this thesis is dedicated to my best friends who have been a great source of motivation and inspiration.

Finally, this thesis is dedicated to all those who believe in the richness of learning.
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Abstract

The objectives of this research are to find out: 1) the politeness strategies of request used by Indonesian and Libyan students in the given situations, 2) the politeness strategies of request mostly used by Indonesian and Libyan students in the given situations, and 3) the factors that influence the use of the strategies by Indonesian and Libyan students in the given situations.

This research is a descriptive qualitative research using Oral Discourse Completion Test (DCT), also known as closed role play. Oral DCT is the typical instrument used in pragmatics and was originally developed for comparing the speech act realization patterns of native speakers and learners (Blum-Kulka, 1982). Each of the eight controlled scenarios in the Oral DCT used in this study varies according to power and social distance.

The results of this research show: first, that the subjects utilized certain strategies which contained politeness values. Some of the nine strategies were found in their requests. The students exhibited their preference for the use of Query Preparatory that falls under conventionally indirect request to depict politeness and to avoid imposition of requests. Second, both the Indonesian and Libyan students mostly used query preparatory strategy. The strategy of query preparatory was used forty-three times in the study more than other request strategies, followed by direct and non conventional indirect request strategies. Query preparatory is one of the request strategies identified by the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Research Project (CCSARP) (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989).
Conventional indirectness which features query preparatory and suggestory formula strategies is by far the most frequently used for making a request. Third, the social power and social distance play a significant role in influencing the use of the strategies by both groups.

Key word: Politeness, request, power, distance, pragmatics.
Abstrak

Tujuan dari penelitian ini adalah untuk mengetahui: 1) strategi kesantunan dalam permintaan yang digunakan oleh mahasiswa Indonesia dan Libya dalam situasi tertentu, 2) strategi kesantunan dalam permintaan banyak digunakan oleh mahasiswa Indonesia dan Libya dalam situasi tertentu, dan 3) faktor-faktor yang mempengaruhi penggunaan strategi oleh mahasiswa Indonesia dan Libya dalam situasi yang diberikan.


Hasil dari penelitian ini menunjukkan: pertama, bahwa subjek digunakan strategi tertentu yang berisi nilai-nilai kesantunan. Beberapa dari sembilan strategi yang ditemukan dalam permintaan mereka. Para siswa menunjukkan preferensi mereka untuk penggunaan Persiapan Query yang berada di bawah permintaan konvensional tidak langsung menggambarkan kesopanan dan untuk menghindari pengenaan permintaan. Kedua, baik Indonesia dan Libya siswa sebagian besar menggunakan strategi persiapan permintaan. Strategi persiapan permintaan digunakan empat puluh-tiga kali dalam penelitian lebih dari strategi permintaan
lain, diikuti oleh langsung dan non strategi permintaan konvensional tidak langsung. Persiapan Query adalah salah satu strategi permintaan diidentifikasi oleh Undang-Undang Cross-Cultural Speech Proyek Penelitian (CCSARP) (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989). Indirectness konvensional yang memiliki strategi permintaan susu formula persiapan dan suggestory adalah yang paling sering digunakan untuk membuat permintaan. Ketiga, kekuatan sosial dan jarak sosial memainkan peran penting dalam mempengaruhi penggunaan strategi oleh kedua kelompok.

Kata kunci: Kesopanan, permintaan, kekuatan, jarak, pragmatik.
CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

1. Background of the Study

Communication across cultures has shown that pragmatic competence is one of the key components of communicative competence. The need for pragmatic clarity and the need to avoid coerciveness provide opportunities to appreciate politeness strategies in speech act production. Thus, paying attention to the politeness strategies can prevent miscommunication or an utterance not be considered impolite. In this case, the way language is used in a given situation is important and could mark speech act realization.

Language is one of the most important aspects in human life. According to Holmes (1992), people use language to ask and to give other people information. People use language to express indignation and annoyance, as well as admiration and respect. Therefore, an utterance is used to convey message and express feeling. It is treated as the realization of a speaker’s intention and goal in a particular context. The way people convey their messages is different from each other. The differences in the way people talk are due to age, sex, state of health, personality, size, and emotional state (Trudgill, 1983:245). Holmes (1992) also states that the way people speak is influenced by the social context in which they are speaking about.

People communicate differently in many cultures whether it is for asking, requesting, refusing or accepting to do or not do an obligation. Culture is one of the factors that influences the way people communicate and also determines the
politeness of an utterance. In social settings, most people usually use a variety of linguistic expressions to show politeness and deference to those they know well or even to colleagues they are familiar with. Linguistic politeness accounts for the type of linguistic behaviour that people use to express concern for, and interest in others. Understanding politeness in requests is crucial in order to explore pragmatic aspects of language. This is to say that politeness strategies are very important in human communication. For example, the degree of politeness in Libya may be different from that in Indonesia. In Indonesia there are a number of specific rules or strategies that people should be sure to know about and to follow. For example, in Indonesia younger people usually address older people with “kak”, “mas”, “bang”, “pak”, “mbak” etc. This is one of the ways of expressing politeness reflected in the way people are addressed. Calling older people only by their names is considered rude and impolite. In many western cultures there is nothing wrong addressing someone only by his/her names.

1.1. Speech Acts

Speech acts are theories that analyze the role of utterance in relation to the behavior of the speaker and the hearer in interpersonal communication. Oxford philosopher, J.L. Austin formulated the speech act theory in his 1955 lectures at Harvard University which were published posthumously as How to do things with words (1975). Austin proposed that communicating a speech act consists of three elements: the speaker says something, the speaker signals an associated speech act, and the speech act causes an effort on her listeners or the participants. He
called the first element locutionary act by which the act of saying something that makes sense in a language (i.e. follows the rule of pronunciation and grammar). The second element is referred to as illocutionary act, the action intended by the speaker. The third is called the perlocutionary act, concerns with what follows an utterance.

J.R. Searle (1976) also contributed to the speech act theory by categorizing speech acts into five main types:

1. Directives are attempts by the speaker to get the addressee to do something (paradigm cases: requesting, questioning)
2. Representatives commit the speaker to the truth of expressed proposition (paradigm cases: asserting, concluding)
3. Expressives, which expresses the physiological state (paradigm cases: thanking, apologizing, welcoming, congratulating)
4. Declaratives, which effect immediate changes in the institutional state of affairs and which tend to rely on elaborate extralinguistic institutions (paradigm cases, declaring wars, excommunicating, christening, marrying, firing from employment)
5. Commissives, which commit the speaker to some future course of action (paradigm cases: promising, threatening, offering).

Hence, the act of requesting is one of the speech acts of directives that have attracted many people in pragmatic studies. Requests are a type of speech act which has been the focus of discussion for quite long time in the study of Pragmatics (Fukushima, 1996). Pragmatics has been defined as the study of how
utterances have meanings in speech situations with the speakers and hearers involved (Leech 1983). Crystal (1987:120) in Encyclopedia of Language also explains pragmatics as a linguistic field which studies about the factors that govern our choice of language in social interaction and the effects of our choice on others. Finch (1998:160) said that if we do not understand something we usually ask either “What does it mean?” or “What do you mean?” As a consequence, language speakers need to be pragmatic competence. Pragmatic competence is defined as the ability to convey communicative actions in sociocultural contexts through the use of speech acts (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, & Thurrell, 1995). According to speech act theory, speakers perform illocutionary acts by producing utterances (Searle, 1969). An illocutionary act is a particular language function performed by an utterance. That is, through their utterances, speakers convey communicative intentions, such as requests, apologies, promises, advice, compliments, offers, refusals, complaints and thanking.

A request is an illocutionary act whereby a speaker (requester) conveys to a hearer (requestee) that he/she wants the requestee to perform an act, which is for the benefit of the speaker” (Trosborg, 1994:187). Requests are defined as attempts by the speakers to get the hearer to do something. The verbs that evoke this category include ask, order, command, request, beg, plead, pray, entreat, invite, permit, and advise. These verbs differ in the degree to which they mark the intensity of the act (e.g. I ask that you clean up the room vs. I order that you clean up the room) (Searle, 1975). The concept of request is important because it helps us to understand the way in which a certain society is maintained through
individuals’ everyday conduct. Requests are a common occurrence in everyday life, particularly in the maintenance of good relations.

In daily communication, we always ask people to do things. We may ask a person to give us something, or ask the person to do some actions. Most often, making requests can be challenging for people of all different cultural backgrounds because they try to adhere to politeness strategies. Rules governing the procedure for this language differs from one society to another or from one language to another. Requesting is performed differently from one society to another, according to their cultures, norms, thinking and languages. People from the same culture share the same communicative strategies in requesting from each other. They tend to use different patterns and strategies of politeness in requesting. Misunderstanding a request sometimes leads to problems and causes negative reactions.

Politeness strategies refer to behavior that can preserve a person’s positive self-image and avoid imposing on a person’s freedom (Bowe and Martin, 2009: 28). Brown (1977: 296) says politeness involves taking account of the feelings of others. It is having or showing good manners and respect for the feelings of others. Paying attention to the politeness strategies can prevent miscommunication or an utterance not be considered impolite. This aspect of linguistics is treated under pragmatics.

Wardaugh (1996:233) points out that, one of the main functions of language is to maintain the relationship between its users. This can be achieved through maintaining politenes when requesting another to do something. According to
Brown (1987), being polite is a complicated business in any language. It is difficult to learn because it involves understanding, not only the language, but also the social and cultural values of the community. Brown and Levinson (1987) state that politeness strategies are developed in order to save the hearers' "face." They explained that face refers to the respect that an individual has for him or herself, and maintaining that "self-esteem" in public or in private situations. Usually we try to avoid embarrassing the other person, or making them feel uncomfortable.

Face Threatening Acts (FTA's), according to Brown and Levinson, are acts that infringe on the hearers' need to maintain his/her self esteem, and be respected. They claim that certain kinds of acts can threaten face, that is, the acts that go contrary to what the face needs from the speaker. This is called "face threatening act" (FTA). FTA is an utterance or action that threatens a person's public self-image (face). Some acts can threaten the hearer's negative face and some others can threaten positive face of the hearer. Politeness strategies are developed for the main purpose of dealing with these FTA's.

Requests are generally realized in the form of strategies. A request strategy is defined as 'the obligatory choice of the level of directness by which the request is realized. The notions of directness/indirectness and politeness play a crucial role in the negotiation of face during the realization of speech acts such as requests. A request is a directive act and a pre-event which initiates the negotiation of face during a conversational interaction. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), requests are intrinsically face threatening because they are
intended to threaten the addressee’s negative face (i.e., freedom of action and freedom from imposition).

As shown above, requests may differ crossculturally and linguistically since the way they are realized in one culture might not be appropriate in another. This study tries to analyze the politeness strategies of request used by Indonesian and Libyan students of Diponegoro University, Semarang. The researcher wants to find out the politeness strategies used by students from two different countries, Indonesia and Libya, when they are communicating in English by looking at the social variables of power and distance in the choice of request strategies. The concept of status differences and social distance is adopted in Scollon and Scollon’s (2001) politeness system. Scollon and Scollon (2001) argues that there are three politeness systems on the basis of social relationship between speaker and addressee. There are (1) hierarchical politeness system, (2) deferential politeness system, and (3) solidarity politeness system. The hierarchical politeness system is one where the relationship between speaker and addressee expresses power and distance (+ Power, + Distance). The deferential politeness system depicts a situation where the interlocutors are considered to be equals or near equals but treat each other at a distance (- Power, + Distance) and the solidarity politeness system involves neither power difference nor social distance (-Power, - Distance)

Direct strategies are defined as utterances in which the propositional content of the utterance is consistent with the speaker’s intent while indirect strategies are defined as utterances in which the speaker’s meaning and the propositional content are not identical.
1.2. **Statement of the Problem**

This study will address three major questions:

1. What are the politeness strategies of request used by Indonesian and Libyan students of Diponegoro University at given situations?

2. Which politeness strategies of request are mostly used by Indonesian and Libyan students of Diponegoro University in the given situations?

3. What factors that influence the use of the strategies by Indonesian and Libyan students of Diponegoro University in the given situations.

1.3. **Objective of the Study**

The objectives of this study are:

1. To find out several kinds of politeness strategies of request by Indonesian and Libyan students of Diponegoro University, Semarang.

2. To find out the politeness strategies mostly used by Indonesian and Libyan students of Diponegoro University in the given situations.

3. To find out factors that influence the use of the strategies by Indonesian and Libyan students of Diponegoro University in the given situations.

1.4. **Significance of the Study**

The importance of this research is to contribute to readers’ understanding and knowledge in the area of pragmatics, especially about politeness strategies of request. The result of this research is hoped to be beneficial for the readers in recognizing politeness strategies produced by Indonesian and Libyan people in
general. Eventually, the writer hopes that such recognition of politeness strategy by the readers will help them to communicate better with people from both countries. The findings of this research are supposed to contribute to the body of knowledge of the Magister Program of Linguistics in Diponegoro University. The writer also hopes that this study will provide a better method or technique for other researchers to conduct further research about politeness strategies.

1.5 Scope and Limitation of the Study

The scope of this research is politeness strategies of request based on the social variables of power and distance in the choice of request strategies. The writer limits the analysis to the conversation/utterances produced by Indonesian and Libyan students of Diponegoro University when using English as a foreign language.

1.6. Definition of Key Terms

1. Pragmatics has been defined as the study of how utterances have meanings in speech situations with the speakers and hearers involved (Leech 1983).

2. Politeness : behaving in a way that attempts to talk into account the feelings of the people addressed (Brown:1977) or the means employed to show awareness of another person’s face (Yule:1996).

3. Politeness strategies : strategies that are used to avoid or to minimize the Face Threatening Acts (FTA) that a speaker makes (Brown & Levinson: 1987). It
consists of five strategies: Bald on Records, Positive Politeness, Negative Politeness, Off Records and Don’t do the FTA.

4. Requests are defined under the category of Directive speech acts as attempts by the speakers to get the hearer to do something. The verbs under this category include ask, order, command, request, beg, plead, pray, entreat, invite, permit, and advise.

5. Face Threatening Acts: An act that causes a threat to positive or negative face of the hearer.

6. Face: the positive image or impression of oneself that intends to show to the other participants. Face consists of positive and negative face.
   a. Positive face: the desire of every interactant that his/herself-image, wants, and opinion be liked and approved.
   b. Negative face: the desire of every interactant that he/she has freedom of action and freedom of being imposed.
CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Previous Studies

There have been a number of studies conducted in relation to politeness and politeness strategies. Studies on various politeness formulae show that social norms vary from one culture to the other. What is regarded as polite behaviour in one culture may not be seen as such in another. The fact that politeness is culture-specific is also shown by Ogiermann (2009), who conducted a study on indirectness and polite requests in English, German, Polish and Russian. The four examined languages differ in terms of the construction patterns in making requests.

Another study conducted by El-Shazly (1993) was about the request strategies in American English, Egyptian Arabic, and English as spoken by Egyptian second language learners. Her study shows that the Arab societies express a high tendency towards using conventional indirectness which depends on the use of interrogatives. On the other hand, Al-Shalawi (1997) conducted a study about the semantic formulas used by Saudi and American male undergraduate students in the speech act of refusal. The study found that the Saudis demonstrated the traits of a collective culture whereas the Americans reflected the spirit of an individualistic culture in their speech act of refusal. Umar (2004) conducted a sociolinguistic investigation into the request strategies used by advanced Arab learners of English as compared to those strategies used by native
speakers of English. He found that the native speakers of English used more semantic and syntactic modifiers than their Arabic counterparts due to the linguistic superiority of the native speakers’ group. In a fairly recent study, Sukamto (2012) investigated polite requests by Korean learners of Indonesia. In this study, Sukamto also found out that both the Koreans and Indonesians do not use all the nine request strategies that are proposed by Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989).

From the above studies, the present study however is an attempt to further explore the polite strategies of request between students from two different countries-Indonesia and Libya who use English as a foreign language. How their polite behaviour is influenced by the sociocultural variables of power and distance and the type of request strategies used in their request production. By exploring issues particularly related to the research questions, this study will certainly provide information to understand politeness of request between Indonesian and Libyan English learners. The study is therefore proposed to be a modest contribution to the issue of requesting across cultures.

2.2. Theoretical Framework

Linguistic politeness accounts for the type of linguistic behaviour that people use to express concern for, and interest in others. In social settings, most people usually use a variety of linguistic expressions to show politeness and deference to those they know well or even to colleagues they are familiar with. As people interact all the time in the society, they need to maintain relationship, to
maintain face and to be able to communicate to people and to common world of interaction. Politeness is necessary for a society because it shows a relationship between individuals; it shows respects and cultural norms. Politeness is a pervasive phenomenon in all communities.

2.2.1. Face and Politeness

Fraser (1975:13) defines politeness as “a property associated with an utterance in which, according to the hearer, the speaker has neither exceeded any rights nor failed to fulfil any obligations”. According to Ferguson (1976: 138), politeness as formulas in terms of “interpersonal rituals”. According to Brown and Levinson (1978) politeness is basic to the production of social order and a precondition of human cooperation; therefore, to understand this phenomenon, the theory under-lying it should match with the foundation of human social life. Since politeness deals with human interaction, there must be some universal principles. Brown and Levinson’s (1987) theory of linguistic politeness construes the formulation of an individual’s face as a public self-image. Brown and Levinson (1987) differentiate two different types of politeness: positive politeness and negative politeness. Positive politeness is solidarity oriented and therefore it emphasizes shared attitudes and values while Negative politeness, thus, is expressed when the speaker thinks that there is a social distance between him/her and his/her addressee.

Yule (1996) in his book “Pragmatics” explains the concept of face as the public self-image of a person. It refers to that emotional and social sense of self that everyone has and expects everyone else to recognize. Yule also defines
politeness as the means employed to show awareness of another person’s face. Sara Mills (2003:6) defined politeness as the expression of the speakers’ intention to mitigate face threats carried by certain face threatening acts toward another. Yule (1996) explains that within their everyday social interaction, people generally behave as if their expectations concerning their public self-image, or their face wants, will be respected. According to him, if a speaker says something that represents a threat to another individual’s expectations regarding self-image, it is described as a face threatening act. Alternatively, Yule explains, given the possibility that some action might be interpreted as a threat to another’s face, the speaker can say something to lessen the possible threat. Yule called this as a face saving act.

Yule gave an example as in a late night scene, where a young neighbor is playing his music very loud and an older couple is trying to sleep. One of them proposes a face threatening act and the other suggests a face saving acts.

“Him: I’m going to tell him to stop that awful noise right now!
Her: Perhaps you could just ask him if he is going to stop soon because it’s getting a bit late and people need to get to sleep.”

(Yule,1996)

Because it is generally expected that each person will attempt to respect the face wants of others, there are many different ways of performing face saving acts.

2.2.2. Negative and Positive Face

Yule (1996) categorized face into negative face and positive face as quoted below:
“When we attempt to save another’s face, we can pay attention to their negative face wants or their positive face wants. A person’s negative face is the need to be independent, to have freedom of action, and not to be imposed on by others. The word ‘negative’ here does not mean ‘bad’, it’s just the opposite pole from ‘positive’. A person’s positive face is the need to be accepted, even liked, by others, to be treated as a member of the same group, and to know that his or her wants are shared by others. In simple terms, negative face is the need to be independent and positive face is the need to be connected.” (Yule, 1996:62).

In his own words, the writer concludes that negative face means “give me some respect” while positive politeness refers to “let’s put aside all those distance and just be close friends.”

Yule proposes that a face saving act which is oriented to the person’s negative face will tend to show deference, emphasize the importance of the other’s time or concern, and even include an apology for the imposition or interruption. Yule also called this negative politeness. He explained that a face saving act which is concerned with the person’s positive face will tend to show solidarity, emphasize that both speakers want the same thing, and that they have a common goal. Yule also called this positive politeness.

2.3. Politeness Strategies

According to Brown and Levinson (1978), politeness strategies are used to save the hearer’s face when face-threatening acts are desired or necessary.

“Politeness strategies are strategies which used in order to avoid or minimize the FTA (Face Threatening Acts) that a speaker makes. They are ordered here from most to least threatening: Bald on Record, Positive Politeness, Negative Politeness and Off Record. To apply the type of politeness strategies depends on the weightiness of FTA, which determined by three social factors. They are the imposition of the act itself, relative power of the hearer over the speaker and social distance between speaker and hearer.” (Brown and Levinson, 1987: 68-74).
According to Yule (1996), it is possible to treat politeness as a fixed concept, as in the idea of 'polite social behavior', or etiquette, within a culture. It is also possible to specify a number of different general principles for being polite in social interaction within a particular culture. Some of this might include being tactful, generous, modest, and sympathetic toward others. Within an interaction, however, there is a more narrowly specified type of politeness at work. In order to describe it, we need the concept of face. As a technical term, face means the public self-image of a person. It refers to that emotional and social sense of self that everyone has and expects everyone else to recognize. Politeness, in an interaction, can then be defined as the means employed to show awareness of another person’s face. In this sense, politeness can be accomplished in situations of social distance or closeness. Showing awareness for another person’s face when that other seems socially distant is often described in terms of respect or deference. Showing the equivalent awareness when the other is socially close is often described in terms of friendliness, camaraderie, or solidarity.

**Examples:**

a. Student’s question to his teacher:

   “Excuse me, Mr. Buckingham, but can I talk to you for a minute?”

b. The friend’s question to the same individual:

   “Hey, Bucky, got a minute?”

   From the two examples above, it can be seen that the meaning of both sentences are the same, but the sentences are used in different ways. The first
example is the formal one because the hearer/interlocutor is the speaker’s teacher. From the sentence, it can be seen that the formal form shows the distant relationship between the speaker and the hearer/interlocutor. The second example is the informal one because the hearer/interlocutor is the speaker’s friend. It shows that the informal form indicates the intimacy between the speaker and the hearer/interlocutor.

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), Politeness Strategies are strategies used in order to avoid or minimize the FTA (Face Threatening Acts) that a speaker makes. An FTA means act that threatens the positive or negative face of the hearer. Using insult term is the example of threatening the hearer’s positive face which wants to be liked or appreciated by others. Moreover, the example of threatening the negative face is by generating an order or a request. It will threaten the hearer’s negative face which expects to have freedom of action (can do what he/she likes to do). This is why, if we do not want to threaten someone’s positive or negative face, we have to minimize it by applying the politeness strategies. Brown and Levinson (1987) suggested four highest levels of politeness strategies; they are Bald on Record, Positive Politeness, Negative Politeness, and Off Record.

2.3.1. Bald on Record

Bald on Record is a direct politeness strategy which contains no redressive particle to soften the Face Threatening Acts (FTA). The prime reason for bald-on-record usage is whenever S (speaker) wants to do the FTA with maximum efficiency more than he wants to satisfy H’s (hearer) face, even to any degree, he
will choose the bald-on-record strategy. There are different bald-on-record usages in different circumstances, because S can have different motive for his want to do the FTA with maximum efficiency. These fall into two classes:

**Cases of non-minimization of the face threat.**

When the maximum efficiency is very important and this is mutually known to both S and H, so no face redress is necessary. In cases of great urgency or desperation, redress would actually decrease the communicated urgency.

Example: “Help!”

“Your pants are on fire!”

From those examples above, it can be seen that the speaker does not care about the hearer’s face and they are used in cases of great urgency or desperation.

**Case of FTA-oriented bald-on-record usage.**

It is oriented to H’s face. It is usually used in (1) welcomings (or post-greetings), where S insists that H may impose on his negative face; (2) farewells, where S insists that H may transgress on his positive face by taking his leave; and (3) offers, where S insists that H may impose on S’s negative face.

Example: “Come in, don’t hesitate, I’m not busy.”

“Leave it to me.”

This strategy is oriented to H’s face that can be seen from both examples above. The first sentence can be used as an invitation to the hearer which feels reluctant so that the hearer will feel less reluctant because of the invitation. The second sentence can be used as an offer.
According to Brown and Levinson (1987: 95), whenever the speaker wants to do the FTAs with maximum efficiency more than he wants to satisfy the hearer’s Face, H will choose the strategy of ‘bald on record’. Doing an act baldly involves doing it in the most direct, clear, ambiguous and concise way. Moreover, they explained that an FTA usually will be done in this way if the speaker does not fear retribution from the hearer. They gave example in circumstances where (a) S and H are in urgent situation, (b) the risk to H’s Face is very small (as in offers, request and suggestion that in H’s interest), and (c) S holds a high relative power over the H (Brown and Levinson, 1987: 69).

2.3.2. Positive Politeness

According to Brown and Levinson (1987),

“Positive politeness is aimed to satisfy the Positive Face of the hearer by approving or including him as a friend or as a member of an in-group. A speaker applies Positive Politeness to give an impression that S wants what H’s want (e.g. by treating him as a member of an in-group, a friend, a person whose wants and personality traits are known and liked) or S wants at least some of H’s wants in order to minimize the FTA” (Brown and Levinson, 1987: 70).

Brown and Levinson (in Goody, 1996: 106) stated that positive politeness is redress directed to the addressee’s positive’s face by approving or including the addressee as a friend or a member of a group. In other words, positive politeness is a politeness strategy used to satisfy the positive face of the hearer. It is solidarity oriented. Positive politeness is used by the speaker to give an impression that he/she wants H’s wants or in other words, S wants H’s face to be satisfied. This makes the hearer not take it seriously when the speaker does an FTA.
As Brown and Levinson (1987) explain, positive politeness is used as a kind of metaphorical extension of intimacy. It is also used by strangers in the interaction to get closer to the hearer. In other words, positive politeness is used as a kind of social acceleration. Brown and Levinson (1987) elaborated fifteen strategies of positive politeness, such as:

**Notice, attend to H (his interest, wants, needs, goods)**

S should take notice of aspects of H’s condition (noticeable changes, remarkable possessions, anything which looks as though H would want S to notice and approve of it).

Examples:

1. “You must be hungry, it’s a long time since breakfast. How about some lunch?”
2. “Goodness, you cut your hair! (…) By the way, I came to borrow some flour.”

From both examples above, it can be seen that the speaker notice the hearer’s condition. The first example shows that the speaker notices that the hearer is hungry so that the speaker asks the hearer to have lunch. The second example shows that the speaker notices the hearer’s change on his/her hair before the speaker utters his/her main goal.

**Exaggerate (interest, approval, sympathy with H)**

This is often done with exaggerate intonation, stress, and other aspects of prosodic, as well as with intensifying modifiers.

Example:
(1) “What a fantastic garden you have!”

(2) “How absolutely incredible!”

The examples above indicate that the speakers are interested. It can be seen from the intonation.

**Intensify, interest to H**

Another way for S to communicate with H that S wants to intensify his/her interest to the conversation by ‘making a good story’. The use of directly quoted speech rather than indirect reported speech is another feature of this strategy, as is the use of tag questions or expressions that draw H as a participant into the conversation, such as ‘you know?’, ‘see what I mean?’, ‘isn’t it?’.

Example:

(1)“I come down the stair, and what do you think I see? – A huge mess all over the place, the phone’s off the hook and clothes are scattered all over…”

From the example, it is clear that the speaker here is ‘making a good story’. It also draw hearer as a participant into the conversation, it can be seen from the words “what do you think I see”.

**Use in-group identity-marker**

S can implicitly claim the common ground with H that is carried by that definition of the group, including in-group usages of address forms, of language or dialect, of jargon or slang, and of ellipsis.

**Address forms**

Examples:

(1)“Bring me your dirty clothes to wash, darling.”
(2)“Come here, honey.”

The address forms that are used in both examples above are “darling” and “honey”.

Use in-group language or dialect

Examples:
(1)First call: “come here, Johnny.”
(2)Second call: “John Henry Smith, you come here right away.”

The two examples above are different, the first sentence, the speaker calls him by using his nickname, but in the second sentence, the speaker switches it into the full name.

Use of jargon or slang:

Example:
(1) “Lend us two bucks then, wouldja Mac?”

The example shows that the speaker refers to something with a slang term (bucks=dollars, would you → woulja), S may evoke all the shared associations and attitudes that he and H both have towards that object; this then maybe used as FTA redress.

Contraction and ellipsis:

Because of the reliance on shared mutual knowledge to make ellipsis comprehensible, there is an inevitable association between the use of ellipsis and the existence of in-group shared knowledge. The use of ellipsis may mark an utterance as being positively polite, even the use of conventionally indirect
request, normally a feature of negative politeness, if marked by ellipsis crosses over into positive politeness.

Examples:

(1) “Got any spare cash?”

(1) “How about a drink?”

Seek agreement

In this strategy, there are two ways to seek agreement, such as safe topics and repetition. ‘Safe topics’ are used when S stresses his agreement with H and therefore to satisfy H’s desire to be ‘right’, or to be corroborated in his opinions, for example talking about weather, or the beauty of a garden. Besides, agreement may also be stressed by repeating part or all of what the preceding speaker has said, in a conversation and by using particles that function to indicate emphatic agreement (yes, uhuh, really, etc).

Examples:

(1) A: “John went to London this weekend!”
    B: “To London!”

(2) A: “I had a flat tyre on the way home.”
    B: “Oh God, a flat tyre!”

The first and second examples show that the second speaker (B) repeats part of what the preceding speaker (A) has said, in a conversation. In addition to demonstrating that one has heard correctly what was said (satisfying output: NOTICE, ATTEND TO H), repeating is used to stress emotional agreement with the utterance (or to stress interest and surprise).
Avoid agreement

There are four ways to avoid disagreement, such as by token agreement, pseudo-agreement, white lies, and hedging opinions.

Token agreement

The instance of ‘token’ agreement is the desire to agree or appear to agree with H leads also to mechanisms for pretending to agree – Here the speakers may go in twisting their utterances so as to appear to agree or to hide disagreement – to respond to a preceding utterance with ‘Yes, but…’ in effect, rather than a blatant ‘No’.

Example:
(A): “What is she, small?”
(B): “Yes, yes, she’s small, smallish, um, not really small but certainly not very big.”

From the example, it can be seen that the second speaker (B) actually wants to say that she is not small, but B pretends to agree with A by twisting his/her utterance. B tends to say that she is not really small, but certainly not very big instead of saying that she is not small. So that it seems like he/she agrees with A.

Pseudo-agreement

Another example of apparent or pseudo-agreement is the use of ‘then’ as a conclusory marker, an indication that the speaker is drawing a conclusion to a line of reasoning carried out cooperatively with the addressee. This may refer to a genuine prior.
Example:

(1)“I’ll meet you in front of the theater just before 8.0, then.”
(1)“I’ll be seeing you then.”

Both examples show that the speakers avoid disagreement by drawing conclusion to a line of reasoning carried out cooperatively with the addressee.

**White lies**

S may do a white lie in order to hide disagreement, by doing this, S will not damage H’s positive face.

Example:

(1)“Yes, I do like your new hat.”

Actually the speaker does not like the new hat, but he/she wants to avoid or hide disagreement.

**Hedging opinions**

To avoid being seen to disagree, S may choose to be vague about his own opinions. This is often manifested by choosing words at extremes of the relevant value scale, like “marvelous”, “fantastic”, “outrageous”, “incredible”, etc.

Normally, hedges are a feature of negative politeness, but some hedges can have this positive-politeness function as well: sort of, kind of like, in a way.

Example:

(1)“I really sort of think…”
(2)“I don’t know, like I think people have a right to their own opinions.”
Presuppose/raise/assert common ground

S may talk with H for a while about unrelated topic to show that S is interested in H and indicate that S has not come to see H simply to do the FTA (e.g. a request). This strategy is used for softening request.

Example: “Nick, you look great today. Did you have a wonderful time with Georgina last night? By the way, can I borrow your car?”

First of all, talks about unrelated topic to show that S is interested in H and indicate that S has not come to see H simply to do the FTA.

Sometimes personal-centre switch is used to show as if H’s knowledge is equal to S’s.

Example: A: “Oh, this cut hurts awfully, Mum.”

B: “Yes dear, it hurts terribly, I know.”

Joke

Joking is a basic positive-politeness technique, for putting H ‘at ease’ or it may minimize an FTA of requesting.

Examples:

(1)“OK if I tackle those cookies now?”

(2)“How about lending me this old heap of junk?” (H’s new Cadillac)

In the first example, the speaker uses a joke by saying “tackle” instead of “eat” those cookies. In the second example, the speaker tends to use “old heap of junk” instead of “new Cadillac”. He/she does the joke to minimize an FTA of requesting.
Assert or presuppose S’s knowledge of and concern for H’s wants

It is a way of indicating that S and H are cooperators, and thus potentially to put pressure on H to cooperate with S, is to assert or imply knowledge of H’s wants and willingness to fit one’s own wants in with them.

Examples:

(1) “Look, I know you want the car back by 5.0, so should(n’t) I go to town now?”
(request)

(2) “I know you can’t bear parties, but this one will really be good – do come!”
(request/offer)

(3) I know you love roses but the florist didn’t have any more, so I brought you geraniums instead.” (offer+apology)

Offer, promise

In order to redress the potential threat of some FTAs, S may choose to stress his cooperation with H in another way. Offers and promises are the natural outcome of choosing this strategy; even if they are false, they demonstrate S’s good intentions in satisfying H’s positive-face wants.

Example:

(1) “I’ll drop by sometimes next week.”

The example above shows that the speaker tries to satisfy the hearer’s positive face wants by promising him/her to drop by.

Be optimistic

S assumes that H wants S’s wants for S (or for S and H) and will help him/her to obtain them. That is, for S to be so presumptuous as to assume H will
cooperate with him/her may carry a tacit commitment for S to cooperate with H as well, or at least a tacit claim that H will cooperate with S because it will be in their mutual shared interest. The presumptuousness may be partially softened by a token tag.

Examples:
(1) “Look, I’m sure you won’t mind if I remind you to do the dishes tonight.”
(2) “you don’t have any objections to me helping myself to a bit of cake, do you?”

The first example above shows that the speaker is very optimistic that the hearer will not mind to do the dishes that night. It can be seen from the words “I’m sure.” While in the second example, the speaker is also very optimistic that the hearer will not mind if the speaker eats a bit of cake, showed by the use of question tag.

**Include both S and H in the activity**

S tends to use ‘we’ form when S really means ‘you’ or ‘me’, he/she can call upon the cooperative assumptions and thereby redress FTAs.

Examples:
(1) “Give us a break.” (i.e. me)
(2) “Let’s get on with dinner, eh?” (i.e. you)
(3) “Let’s stop for a bite.” (i.e. I want a bite, so let’s stop)

**Give (or ask for) reason**

In this strategy, S gives reasons as to why he/she wants what he/she wants. H is led to see the reasonableness of S’s FTA (or so S hopes).

Example:
(1) “We will shut the window, ma’am. The wind’s coming in.”
If H is likely to be cooperative, indirect suggestion is demanded rather than giving reason.

Examples:

(1) “Why don’t I help you with that suitcase.”
(2) Why don’t we go to the seashore!”

Assume or assert reciprocity

S ask H to cooperate with him/her evidence of reciprocal rights or obligations between S and H. thus, S may say, “I’ll do X for you if you do Y for me.”, or “I did X for you last week, so you do Y for me this week” (vice versa).

By pointing to the reciprocal right (or habit) of doing FTAs to each other, S may soften his/her FTA by negating the debt aspect and/or the face threatening aspects acts such as criticism and complaints.

Example:

(1) “I’ll buy you a mansion if you marry me.”

Give gifts to H (goods, sympathy, understanding, cooperation)

S may satisfy H’s positive-face want (that S wants H’s wants, to some degree) by actually satisfying some of H’s wants by some actions like gift-giving, not only tangible gifts, but human-relations wants such as the wants to be liked, admired, cared about, understood, listened to, and so on.

Examples:

(1) “I understand how you feel.”
(2) “I am sorry to hear that.”
2.3.3 Negative Politeness

According to Brown and Levinson ((1987), negative politeness is redressive action addressed to the addressee’s negative face: his want to have his freedom of action unhindered and his attention unimpeded, so that sometimes the speaker is humbling, not showing off, being formal, and restraining him/herself. In simple words, Negative Politeness is a politeness strategy used to satisfy the negative face of the hearer. It is formality oriented. While the function of Positive Politeness is to minimize the social distance, the Negative Politeness is used to indicate that the speaker is aware and respect the social distance between him/her and the hearer. If the speaker does an FTA, he/she will be willing to minimize the impact of the FTA by using deference, hedges, and other strategies. For instance, “Would you close the door, Mr. Taylor?” We can see in that example that the speaker is threatening the hearer’s negative face which wants to have freedom of action. The threat is the speaker asks the hearer to close the door. To minimize the threat, the speaker applies ‘hedge’ (would you please) to soften the utterance and ‘give deference’ (Mr. Taylor) to show his/her respect to the hearer.

Brown and Levinson ((1987) defines ten strategies of negative politeness as below:

**Be conventionally indirect**

The speaker tries to be indirect so there can be no misinterpretation of what he means. In this case, the speaker uses understandable indirect speech act. Example:

(1)“Can you play the piano?”
(2) “I need a comb.”

The speaker in both examples above uses understandable indirect speech act. The first example shows that the speaker wants the hearer to play the piano although the indirect speech act seems to only ask the ability of the hearer (can or cannot). In the second example, the speaker tends to say “I need a comb” instead of “give me a comb”.

**Question hedge**

It is used to modify the force of speech acts.

Examples:

(1) “I’d rather think it’s hopeless.”
(2) “I’m pretty sure I’ve read that book before.”
(3) “I guess that Harry is coming.”

The use of *rather, pretty, and guess* in those three examples above modifies the force of the speaker’s speech acts.

**Be pessimistic**

It gives redress to H’s negative face by explicitly expressing doubt that the conditions for the appropriateness of S’s speech act to obtain. It may be realized by doing indirect requests with assertions of felicity conditions which have had a negated probability operator inserted.

Examples:

(1) “You couldn’t possibly lend me your lawnmower.”
(2) “Could you jump over that five-foot fence?”
The examples show that the speaker doubts the hearer to do what the speaker wants.

**Minimize the imposition**

S redress the seriousness of the FTA to pay H deference.

Examples:

(1) “Could I have a taste (a slice) of that cake?”

(2) “Just a second (a few minutes).”

The use of ‘a taste’ instead of ‘a slice’ and ‘a second’ instead of ‘a few minutes’ in both examples above minimize the imposition.

**Give deference**

There are two sides to the coin in the realization of the deference: one in which S humbles and abases himself, and another where S raises H (pays him positive face of a particular kind, namely that which satisfies H’s want to be treated as superior).

Examples:

(1) “We look forward very much to dining with you.”

(2) “Excuse me, sir, but would you mind if I close the window?”

The first example shows that the speaker gives respect to the hearer and the second example shows that the speaker treats the hearer as a superior.

**Apologize**

By apologizing for doing an FTA, the speaker can indicate his reluctance to impinge on H’s negative face and thereby partially redress that impingement.
Examples:

(1) “I hope this isn’t going to bother you too much, but I really need your help.”
(2) “I normally wouldn’t ask you this, but I really need the answer.”

In the first example, we can see that the speaker admit the impingement, the speaker can simply admit that he/she is impinging on the hearer’s face. Moreover, the second example shows that the speaker can attempt to show that he/she is reluctant to impinge on the hearer.

**Impersonalize S and H**

S doesn’t want to impinge on H is to phrase the FTA as if the agent were other than S, or at least possibly not S or not S alone, and the addressee were other than H, or only inclusively of H. this results in a variety of ways of avoiding the pronouns ‘I’ and ‘you’.

Examples:

(1) “This letter must be sent immediately.”
(2) “It is necessary that this assignment is submitted to Mr. Byrne.”

**State the FTA as a general rule**

S doesn’t want to impinge but is merely forced to by circumstances, is to state the FTA as an instance of some general social rule, regulation, or obligation. So, we get pronoun avoidance.

Examples:

(1) “Passengers will please refrain from flushing toilets on the train.”
(2) “International regulations require that the fuselage be sprayed with DDT.”
Nominalize

It shows formality which is associated with the noun end of the continuum.

Examples:

(1) “Your good performance on the examinations impressed us favorably.”

(2) “An urgent request is made for your cooperation.”

Go on record as incurring a debt, or as not indebting H

S can redress an FTA by explicitly claiming his indebtedness to H, or by disclaiming any indebtedness of H.

Examples:

(1) “I’d be eternally grateful if you would pick me up.” (incurring a debt)

(2) “It wouldn’t be any trouble; I have to go right by there anyway.” (disclaiming indebtedness of H)

2.3.4 Off Record

Brown and Levinson (1987) defined Off Record as a communicative act which is done in such a way that it is not possible to attribute only one clear communicative intention to the act. If a speaker wants to do an FTA, but wants to avoid the responsibility for doing it, he/she can do it off record and leave it up to the addressee to decide how to interpret it. To make it clear, Off Record is an indirect politeness strategy in which the speaker says something that can be interpreted in more than one way. It depends on the hearer’s ability to decide the real meaning. Off record utterances are essentially indirect uses of language; to construct an off-record utterance one says something that is either more general
(contains less information in the sense that it rules out fewer possible states of affairs) or actually different from what one means (intends to be understood). In either case, H must make some inference to recover what was in fact intended.

Off Record can be called as an indirect way of saying something which may cause a face damaging interpretation. Off record is usually in the form of declarative sentence, for instance, “I went to school in a hurry, I forgot to bring a pen.”

According to Brown and Levinson, off record strategy has the main purpose of taking some pressures of the hearer. In this case, the speaker performs an action a vague manner that could be interpreted by the hearer as some other acts. They explained that such an off record utterance usually uses indirect language that constructs more general utterance or actually different from what one mean. Therefore, they added, the interpretation of the utterance greatly depends on the existence of contexts that frames up the utterance.

Brown and Levinson classified fifteen strategies of Off Record:

**Give hints**

S says something that is not explicitly relevant, he/she invites H to search for an interpretation of the possible relevance.

Examples:

(1)“This soup’s a bit bland.” (Pass the salt)

(2)“What a boring movie!” (Let’s leave)
Give association clues

S gives a related kind of implicature triggered by relevance violations which is provided by mentioning something associated with the act required of H, either by precedent in S-H’s experience or by mutual knowledge irrespective of their interactional experience.

Examples:
(1) “My house isn’t very far away.” (Please come visit me)
(2) “Are you going to market tomorrow?” (Give me a ride)

Presuppose

By implicating something, S forces H to search for the relevance of the presupposed prior event.

Examples:
(1) “John’s in the bathtub yet again.”
(2) “It wasn’t me that did it.”

Understate

S understates what he/she actually wants to say. In the case of a criticism, S avoids the lower points of the scale, and in the case of a compliment, or admission, S avoids the upper points.

Examples:
(1) A: “What do you think of Harry?”
   B: “Nothing wrong with him (c.i. I don’t think he is very good)
(2) A: “How do you like Josephine’s new haircut?”

B: “It’s all right.” (c.i. I don’t particularly like it)

(3) “That car looks as if it might go!” (about a flashy sport car, c.i. compliment)

(4) “She is some kind of idiot.” (c.i. she is an idiot)

**Overstate**

S exaggerates or chooses a point on a scale which is higher than the actual state of affairs.

Examples:

(1) “I tried to call a hundred times, but there was never any answer.”

(2) “You never do the washing up.”

**Use tautologies**

By uttering a tautology, S encourages H to look for an informative interpretation of the non-informative utterance.

Examples:

(1) “War is war.”

(2) “Boys will be boys.”

**Use contradiction**

By stating two things that contradict each other, S makes it appear that he/she cannot be telling the truth. He/she, thus, encourages H to look for an interpretation that reconciles the two contradictory propositions.
Examples:

(1) A: “Are you upset about that?”
    
    B: “Well, I am and I am not.”
    
    Such contradiction may convey a complaint or a criticism; for instance, one might say of a drunken friend to a telephone caller:
    
    (1) “Well, John is here and he isn’t here.”

1. **Be ironic**

   By saying the opposite of what he/she means, S can be indirectly convey his/her intended meaning, if there are clues that his/her intended meaning is being conveyed indirectly.

   Examples:
   
   (1) “John’s a real genius.” (after John has just done twenty stupid things in a row)
   (2) “Lovely neighborhood, eh?” (in a slum)

**Use metaphors**

   S uses metaphors and makes H interpret his/her intended meaning by him/herself.

   Example:
   
   (1) “Harry’s a red fish.” (He drink/swim/is slimy/is cold-blooded like a fish)

**Use rhetorical questions**

   S asks a question with no intention of obtaining an answer. Questions that leave their answers hanging in the air, implicated, may be used to do FTAs.
Examples:

(1) “How was I to know?” (I wasn’t)

Or criticism:

(2) “How many times do I have to tell you?” (too many)

(3) “What can I say?” (Nothing, it’s so bad)

**Be ambiguous**

S makes purposeful ambiguity which may be achieved through metaphor, since it is not always clear exactly which of the connotations of a metaphor are intended to be invoked.

Example:

(1) “John’s a pretty sharp/smooth cookie.”

The example above could be either a compliment or an insult, depending on which of the connotations of *sharp* or *smooth* are latched on to.

**Be vague**

S may go off record with an FTA by being vague about the object of the FTA is, or what the offence is – e.g., in criticisms:

(1) “Looks like someone may have had too much to drink.” (vague understatement)

(2) “Perhaps someone did something naughty.”

Or in some euphemisms:

(3) “I’m going down the road for a bit.” (c.i. to the local pub)
Over generalize

S utters a rule instantiation which may leave object of the FTA vaguely off record. Then, H has the choice of deciding whether the general rule applies to him/her, in this case.

Examples:
(1) “If that door is shut completely, it sticks.”
(2) “The lawn has got to be mown.”
(3) Mature people sometimes help to do the dishes.”

Displace H

S may go off record as to who the target for his FTA is, or he/she may pretend to address the FTA to, someone whom it wouldn’t threaten, and hope that the real target will see that the FTA is aimed at him/her. Ervin-Tripp (in Brown and Levinson, 1987:226) cited an example of this, where one secretary in an office asks another – but with negative politeness – to pass the stapler, in circumstances where a professor is much nearer to the stapler than the other secretary. His face is not threatened, and he can choose to do it himself as a bonus ‘free gift’.

Be incomplete, use ellipsis

By purposefully not finishing his/her utterance and leaving an FTA half undone, S can leave the implicature ‘hanging in the air’, just as with rhetorical questions.

Examples:
(1) “Well, if one leaves one’s tea on the wobbly table…”
“Well, I didn’t see you…”

Although Brown and Levinson’s (1978) theory remains influential in the study of politeness as a pragmatics feature, many pragmatists (Gu, 1990; Vilkki, 200; Nwoye, 1992; Ide, 1993) have criticized politeness theory. The main criticism is that Brown and Levinson’s theory presumes a characteristic concept of face, which is inappropriate to cultures with wider values. Despite criticisms, Brown and Levinson’s theory have been widely applied.

2.4. Notion of Request

Searle (1976) distinguishes five general classes of speech acts, one of which is directives. This consists of all those specific acts which functions to get a hearer do something, including request for information, goods, services and permission. By way of definition, request refers inclusively to an utterance that is intended to indicate the speaker’s desire to regulate the behavior of the listener that is, to get the listener to do something. (Becker, 1982, as cited in Achiba, 2003). Kahraman defines request expressions as “asking a hearer to do or to quit doing something for a speaker or someone else who stands in relation to the speaker, hence the hearer will physically or psychologically have made efforts and the speaker will have gained benefits”. A request is made when a speaker asks a hearer to do something. In other words the speaker is imposing on the hearer. The hearer has to pay the cost of carrying out the request, and the speaker usually gains the profit out of it.
Requests have the following general characteristics:

1. They often serve an initiating function in discourse,
2. They can be performed in a single turn,
3. They can be realized linguistically in a variety of ways. Blum-Kulka, House and Hasper (1989b) identified the dimensions of request modification: a) directness level, b) international modification; c) externational modification of requests of act.
4. They can be encoded from the speaker’s perspective, the hearer’s perspective or an impersonal perspective.
5. A request may also be supported by some additional speech act designed to prepare for the request itself, give reason or justification for the request, minimize the degree of imposition.
6. The choice of linguistic realization depends on a variety of social factors to do with the relationship between the speaker and the addressee and the perceived degree of imposition that a particular request makes on the hearer by going baldly on record, use a positive politeness strategy or use a negative politeness strategy, as stated by Brown and Levinson (1978).
7. Although, the main categories of request can be found in different languages. There are cross-linguistic differences relating to the preferred form of a request in the same situation (cf Blum-Kulka el al, 1989b). Cross-linguistic differences are also evident in other linguistic features of request.

It can be noted from the above characteristics, the main features of requests that the target-like performance of the particular illocutionary acts call
for considerable linguistic and sociolinguistic knowledge on the part of speaker and hearer.

2.5. Politeness in Request

As no one would like to be treated impolitely, the way of expressing politeness can be in the forms of linguistic or non-linguistic behaviors. This universality applies to any society in the world, regardless of the degree of its isolation or distance, or the complexity of its social and economic life. However, what considers as polite or impolite might be very much different from culture to culture, from group to group, from situation to situation or even from person to person. An expression, may be considered polite for a certain group of society and impolite for another group. It really depends on the sociocultural elements of the society.

Requests are generally realized in the form of strategies. A request strategy is defined as ‘the obligatory choice of the level of directness by which the request is realized.

In relation to the strategies adopted in making requests, Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper (1989, p.18) propose nine types of strategies, ranging from the most direct to the most indirect. These are:

1) Mood derivable: utterances in which the grammatical mood of the verb indicates illocutionary force. E.g. Clean up the mess.
2) **Performatives:** utterances in which the illocutionary force is clearly mentioned. E.g. I’m asking you to close the window.

3) **Hedge performatives:** utterances in which the statement of the illocutionary force is modified by hedging expressions. E.g. I would like to ask you to prepare my bill.

4) **Obligation statements:** utterances which state the hearer’s obligation to perform the act. E.g. You have to clean the mess.

5) **Want statements:** utterances which indicate the speaker’s desire that the hearer performs the tasks. E.g. I really wish you’d stop smoking.

6) **Suggestory formulas:** utterances which include a suggestion to do something. E.g. How about lending me some money.

7) **Query preparatory:** utterances containing reference to preparatory conditions (e.g. ability, willingness) as conventionalized in different languages. E.g. Could you lend me five pounds, please? Would you mind closing the door behind you?

8) **Strong hints:** utterances containing partial reference to an element needed for the performance of the act. E.g. You have left the kitchen in a terrible mess.

9) **Mild hints:** utterances that make no reference to the request proper, but can be interpreted as requests by context. E.g. I’m a nun (in response to a persistent hassler)
2.5.1. Directness Levels

The nine levels are combined into three major levels of directness: direct strategies (1–5), conventionally indirect strategies (6–7), and non-conventionally indirect strategies (8–9) (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989: 46–7).

The notions of directness/indirectness and politeness play a crucial role in the negotiation of face during the realization of speech acts such as requests. A request is a directive act and a pre-event which initiates the negotiation of face during a conversational interaction. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), requests are intrinsically face threatening because they are intended to threaten the addressee’s negative face (i.e., freedom of action and freedom from imposition).

In this chapter the politeness theory which focuses on face and politeness and negative and positive face. It looks at previous studies and some results from the studies. The theoretical framework explores the four highest levels of politeness strategies according to Brown and Levinson (1987): Bald on Record, Positive Politeness, Negative Politeness and Off Record. The notion of request, politeness of request and levels of directness were discussed. In relation to the strategies adopted in making requests, Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper (1989: 18) nine types of strategies, ranging from the most direct to the most indirect would be discussed.

From the literature review, it can be seen that politeness is culture-specific. An expression considered polite in one culture may be seen as impolite in another. Requests are influenced by socio-cultural variables such as power and relationship. Politeness strategies are strategies which are used in order to avoid
or minimize the FTA (Face Threatening Acts) that a speaker makes. Conventional indirectness is the request strategy mostly used to show politeness. Therefore, there is a need to conduct more research especially to understand the politeness of request used by Indonesian and Libyan students who use English as a foreign language.
CHAPTER III
RESEARCH METHOD

3.1 Research Design

According to Kerlinger (1986:279), a research design is a plan, structure and strategy of investigation so conceived so as to obtain answer to research questions or problems. It is a complete scheme or programme of the research. McMillan & Schumacher (1993:31) stated that the design describes the procedures for conducting the study, including when, from whom, and under what conditions data were obtained. Its purpose is to provide the most valid, accurate answers as possible to research questions.

This study applied a descriptive qualitative approach. A research design may be qualitative and/or quantitative. According to Creswell (1998:15), qualitative research is an inquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem.

3.2 Source of Data

The data used in this research was a transcript of recorded request production of Indonesian and Libyan students in Diponegoro University when they use English as a foreign.
3.3 Instruments

According to Arikunto (2002), instrument is a tool to help the researcher collect the data. The instrument used in this research is Oral DCT. Oral DCT (Discourse Completion Test), also known as closed role play was used to elicit the request production from 8 subjects. Oral DCT is the typical instrument used in pragmatics and was originally developed for comparing the speech act realization patterns of native speakers and learners (Blum-Kulka, 1982). Each of the eight controlled situations in the Oral DCT used in this study varies according to power and social distance.

3.4 Population and Sample

Polit and Hungler (1999:37) refer population as an aggregate or totality of all the objects, subjects or members that conform to a set of specifications. While according to Arikunto (1996: 115), a population is a set (or collection) of all elements possessing one or more attributes of interest. Population in this research are four Libyan and and four Indonesian students in Diponegoro University Semarang who use English as a foreign language.

Sample is the representative of the population as a whole (Jackson, 1995:18). Brink (1996:133); Polit & Hungler (1999:227) define a sample as a subset of a population selected to participate in the study, it is a fraction of the whole, selected to participate in the research project. The sample in this research are four Libyan students and four Indonesian students in Diponegoro University.
Semarang who use English as a foreign language. The profile of the samples is presented in the table below.

(Table 3.1: Profile of Samples)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Name</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Program</th>
<th>Nationality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Raffa</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Applied Linguistics</td>
<td>Libyan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milad</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Applied Linguistics</td>
<td>Libyan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khairi</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Applied Linguistics</td>
<td>Libyan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omro</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Environment</td>
<td>Libyan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andin</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Environment</td>
<td>Indonesian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tiwi</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>General Linguistics</td>
<td>Indonesian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dit</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Applied Linguistics</td>
<td>Indonesian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andi</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Applied Linguistics</td>
<td>Indonesian</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

They are postgraduate students in Diponegoro University in Semarang during the period of January 2011 to December 2013 and were chosen through purposive sampling because they understand the implication of the study and can present their requests in English. The number of samples in this study was considered appropriate because the researcher was only interested in small sample who can willingly elicit meaningful data.
3.5 Data Collection

Polit and Hungler (1999:267) define data as information obtained in a course of a study. In this research, data will be collected by using Oral DCT (Discourse Completion Task). The participants will role play the act of requesting in some given situations. Thus, the request making were based on the ‘competence’ of the students rather than their ‘performance’.

In order to attain these objectives, “the discourse completion test” (DCT) was applied. This method basically consists in creating a certain situation, where respondents are asked to engage in a conversation about a certain ordinary problem. The researcher gives the participants the first part of the conversation along with a description of the situation and asks the informant to complete this situation by supplying a continuation. The DCT for both the Libyans and the Indonesians was presented in English for each situation (see Appendix 1). However, all participants were encouraged to ask questions for clarity if they had problems understanding the situations.

The conversations were audio-recorded with the aid of an mp3 recorder. The recording was then processed in a laptop using a program called “Audacity” that will reduced any disturbing noise and enhanced the recording so that it will brings a result of a clear recorded conversation in an mp3 format. The writer also make a transcript of the conversation using the laptop by listening to the mp3 file and typing it to a word file. The final stage of data collection is to separate utterances
and classify utterances that contain politeness strategies to gain better understanding.

3.6 Data Analysis

The responses from the subjects were analyzed using the CCSARP categories (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989), the 9-level scale for analysis of request strategies to get the types of request strategies used by the respondents. The writer will describe politeness strategies of request used by the speakers in the given situations. Data from Oral DCT were audio-recorded and transcribed, and then analysed using the request coding scheme developed by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) in the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Research Project (CCSARP). The CCSARP categorises nine request strategies into three levels of directness: direct, conventionally indirect, and non-conventionally indirect.

Table 3.2 (the Requests)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role Play</th>
<th>Listener</th>
<th>Pragmatic situation</th>
<th>power</th>
<th>Distance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Librarian</td>
<td>requesting a librarian to check the book’s availability in computer</td>
<td>-P</td>
<td>+D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Stranger</td>
<td>requesting a stranger to lend a lighter</td>
<td>-P</td>
<td>+D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>requesting a friend to lend you his/her note</td>
<td>-p</td>
<td>-D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Brother</td>
<td>requesting your younger brother to turn down the</td>
<td>-P</td>
<td>-D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Volume of TV.</td>
<td>Requesting a friend to lend some money</td>
<td>-P</td>
<td>-D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>Requesting a friend to lend some money</td>
<td>-P</td>
<td>-D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>requesting a friend to meet in other time</td>
<td>-P</td>
<td>-D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Boss</td>
<td>Requesting your boss for a permission to go home earlier</td>
<td>+ P</td>
<td>+D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Vice Principal</td>
<td>requesting for information from the vice principal</td>
<td>+P</td>
<td>+D</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER IV
FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

This chapter focuses on the results of the DCT, followed by a discussion about the findings. It is presented according to the structure of the problems stated on Chapter I, therefore it consists: (1) the politeness strategies of request used by Indonesian and Libyan students of the Diponegoro University in the given situation; (2) the politeness strategies of request that are mostly used by Indonesian and Libyan students of Diponegoro University in the given situations; and (3) the factors that influence the use of the strategies by Indonesian and Libyan students of Diponegoro University in the given situations. Before going further, the writer first describes the data, that is where the data is derived from and what kind of data is used.

4.1 Description of the Data

The Oral discourse completion test (DCT) was obtained from four Indonesian and four Libyan students who are currently postgraduate students of the Diponegoro University Semarang. These involved a role-play of eight scenarios in which their request utterances were audio-recorded and later transcribed. The situations involved request as a speech act in the daily life of the Indonesian and Libyan students. Each of the eight controlled situations in the Oral DCT used in this study varies according to power and social distance. A total of 72 request utterances were elicited from eight students and was presented in English for each situation in (Appendix). The same data were analyzed using Blum-Kulka’s (1982)
request strategies and based on the politeness system: Hierarchical politeness system, deferential politeness system and solidarity politeness systems proposed by (Scollon and Scollon, 2001). The researcher adopts the (DCT) format for its high level of practicality and validity.

4.2. Findings

4.2.1 Politeness Strategies of Request Used by Indonesian and Libyan students

In exploring this issue, the researcher focused analysis on the three politeness systems. Excerpt from the students’ request productions were randomly shown below:

Hierarchical politeness system

Based on the data, the Indonesian and Libyan students applied the same strategies when making requests. The degree of power and social distance between the requester and the requestee plays a significant role in the request. Both groups made use of query preparatory request strategy. This means that conventionally indirect strategies were commonly applied where there seems to be a power and distance difference between the requester and requestee. The students applied query preparatories such as (can, could and would) to present their requests. It is not the same the situation when they present requests to a colleague, friend or a stranger met on the street. For a close friend and younger sibling, direct request strategy was applied and effort made to maintain politeness.
As explained in the previous chapter, the relationship between the requester and requestee expresses power and social distance. In the request presentation for Scenarios Seven (Requesting your boss for a permission to go home earlier) and eight (Requesting for information from the vice principal) where there is clear difference in power and distance and both the Indonesian and Libyan students used the conventionally indirect request type. A majority of the students used request utterances of Query Preparatory as seen in the situations below:

**Scenario 7: Requesting your boss for a permission to go home earlier**

Excuse me, Sir, actually I have a stomachache. I can’t continue to work right now. So, would you like to allow me to go to home? (Indonesian student)

Excuse me sir, am not feeling well today, can I have your permission to go home earlier? (Indonesian student)

Could you give me permission to go home? Am not well (Libyan)

Excuse boss, my body is not good; I want to go home to rest (Libyan)

**Scenario 8: Requesting for information from the vice principal**

Assalamalakum, sorry, forgive me because I didn’t get the full instruction from the principal, can you help me? (Indonesian)

Excuse me, can I have your time for a moment because I need more instruction about the briefing yesterday because I missed some parts, I know you are very busy but I think it is important for me to know it more, can you give time to do it more? (Indonesian)
In the above role-plays the Indonesian and Libyan students favor to use indirect request type to show politeness. They mainly used query preparatory strategy in their requests in as in Scenarios Seven and Eight. Only in one request utterance that a “want statement” was used by a Libyan student, indicating direct request strategy. None of the Indonesians, in this case used the direct strategy. Mostly, the Indonesians’ requests were characterized by a series of pre-request supportive moves followed by the request form, namely “Salutation -Preamble (facework) - Reasons for request – Request”.

**Deferential Politeness System**

The scenarios (1 and 6) belong to a deferential politeness system where both interlocutors are of equal social status or near equal status but share a distant relationship (-Power, Distance).

**Scenario 1: Requesting a librarian to check the book’s availability in computer**

Excuse me madam…..can you check these title of books in your computer? Because it’s very important for me because I want to make an essay. (Indonesian)

Excuse me, am looking for a book but I could not find it, could help please (Indonesian)

Can you help me find the book or article; I really need it (Libyan)

Excuse madam/sir, I didn’t find the book, could tell me when the person will bring it back (Libyan)

**Scenario 2: Requesting a lighter from a stranger**
Hey Mr. am sorry may I borrow your lighter because I want to smoke right now (Indonesian)

Excuse, May I borrow your lighter (Indonesian)

Could you borrow a lighter please? (Libyan)

Lighter please! (No need for excuse me) (Libyan)

In the above scenarios, the students were cautious in their request strategies because of the status of the requestee. One is a librarian and another stranger. Although, there was not much power difference between the requester and requestee, only distance, their requests showed politeness too. The students used query preparatory strategy in their requests indicating they attention to the (+Distance) relationship. Politeness markers (Excuse me Sir/Madam) was used by both the Indonesians and a Libyan to express politeness. Only in Scenario Six did a Libyan used “mood derivative” (lighter please) indicating direct request. He insisted that there was no need to use the politeness marker (excuse me). No Indonesian student used any direct strategies in the scenarios.

**Solidarity Politeness system**

Scenarios Two, Three, Four, and Five, which belong to the solidarity politeness system where both interlocutors are of equal status and their relationship is close (–Power, –Distance), were designed to elicit a solidarity relationship since there was neither power nor distance between the requesters and requestees.


**Scenario 2: Requesting a friend to lend some money**

Hello, actually it’s very urgent. But I need your help. I have the need to find a book; actually my money is not enough to buy it. So can you help me to lend me some money to buy the book? (Indonesian)

Hey, do you still remember me, well, we met in the library at the first time, I hope you still remember me because I need your help now because I need to buy something now but my money is not enough, so can you lend me some money? May be I can you give my ID as the grantee. (Indonesian)

Could you lend me some money to buy this book? (Libyan)

I want to buy this book but my money is not enough, I hope you can lend me some money to buy the book; I will pay you back soon. (Libyan)

**Scenario 3: Requesting a friend to meet in other time**

Hey, Am sorry I got a toothache today, could please you rearrange our meeting, by tomorrow. Is that ok? Please! (Indonesian)

I do apologize because I have to cancel our meeting, but I know that you are so busy because you have to cancel meeting with your friends, but am so sorry because I have a toothache, am sorry, can we meet tomorrow. (Indonesian)

Could you postpone the meeting until tomorrow? As you can see am having toothache (Libyan)

Our meeting today is cancelled because I have toothache. I am very sorry. (Apologize before request) (Indonesian)
**Scenario 4: Requesting your younger brother to turn down the volume of TV**

Hey, my young brother, please turn down the TV because am still doing my homework (Indonesian)

(Command) turn the TV down (Indonesian)

Turn the volume down (Libyan)

Turn down the volume, you disturb me. (Libyan)

**Scenario 5: Requesting a notebook from a friend**

Hey, give me your notebook; I didn’t come to class yesterday. (Indonesian)

Hey, Hamza, lean me your book (Indonesian)

Could you lend me some money to buy this book? (Libyan)

I want to buy this book but my money is not enough, I hope you can lend me some money to buy the book; I will pay you back soon. (Libyan)

In the above scenarios, especially in Scenario Two, the students’ request utterances showed to be polite because of the distance. Both the Indonesian and Libyan students used the query preparation strategy for Scenario Two and Three. In Scenario Two, borrowing money is a sensitive issue which forces a person to use a variety of syntactic and semantic modifiers to guarantee the success of their request and secure the “face” of both: the requester and the requestee. Both groups of students tried to explain what they want to do with the money before the actual request was made. Promise of immediate repayment was also made by a Libyan student, while an Indonesian student offered to give her Identity Card as collateral or guaranty of repayment. To some extent, the Arabic culture which the Libyans belong may not allow such plea and sees it as unnecessary self-humiliation. In
scenario 4 (Requesting a younger brother to turn down the volume of TV), both the Indonesian and Libyan students used mood derivative which entails a more direct strategy. It is revealed that the Libyan students refrain completely from using any address terms; even, expressions such as “excuse me” or “please” or even “Hey!” were not used. In scenario Five (Requesting a notebook from a friend), the Libyans used a query preparatory, one Indonesian used a mood derivative strategy.

Based on the analysis of the data, the findings showed that the subjects utilized certain strategies which contained politeness values. Some of the nine strategies are also found in their requests, but varied. Both utilized conventionally indirect strategies more often, followed by direct strategies, and non-conventionally indirect strategies. It can be observed that the quality of the relationship determines the politeness strategy. The higher the power and distance, the more indirect the requests become. To a younger sibling the requesters were very direct, more commanding but to a friend or even a stranger, the distance was noted. Therefore, conventionally indirect strategies are more preferable than direct strategies as it minimized the imposition of requesting (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984).

4.2.2 Politeness Strategies of Request that are Mostly Used by Indonesian and Libyan students

Based on the data, both the Indonesian and Libyan students mostly used query preparatory strategy. The strategy of query preparatory is used 43 times and
divided into four sub-strategies, which are ability, permission, willingness, and possibility.

Ability
Can you….?
Could I….?

Permission
Can I….?
May I….?

Willingness
Would you….?

Possibility
Is it ok….?

The ‘mood derivative’ strategy was used eleven times in the study, while ‘Want statement’ was used three times, suggestory formula which also belongs to the conventional indirect request was used once, performatives, once, Mild hint once obligatory statements once. The results above suggest that the query preparatory strategy is the most frequently request strategy for showing politeness by both the Indonesian and Libyan students. This means that the students used more conventionally indirect strategies in the form of query preparatory. The second strategy mostly used by the students was direct strategies in the form of mood derivable, want statement, performatives and obligatory statements. A hint signifies non-conventionally indirect strategy.

The results also showed that the students applied a number of request supportive moves which include address terms, politeness markers and attracters or attention getters in their requests. These request supportive moves are mainly used to express politeness. For example, the address term “Sir” for example, was used four times by the Indonesians and two times by the Libyans. Younger
brother was used three times by the Indonesians, while the Libyans never made any mention of younger brother. In scenario five, the Indonesians utilized term of address (first name: *Dit, Hamza*) as the alerter to draw attention, while Libyans utilized it only once to refer to the requestee (Ahmed). The following tables below show the use of address terms, politeness marker and attracter or attention getters.

**Table 4.1: Use of Address Terms**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Address terms</th>
<th>Indonesians</th>
<th>Libyans</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sir</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madam</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Younger brother</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miss</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boss</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First name :e.g. Dit, Hamza</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4.2: Use of Politeness markers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Politeness markers</th>
<th>Indonesians</th>
<th>Libyans</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excuse me/sir</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sorry</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Please</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The requesters used various politeness markers. The Indonesian used politeness markers more than the Libyans. In the scenarios, the students especially Indonesians used attracters/attention getters (*excuse me, sorry, please and help*) more often and even in scenario three, one student (Indonesian) applied apologizing expression. This indicates a significant difference between the Libyans and the Indonesians in terms of using of politeness markers. The use of such formulaic utterances as attention getters (*excuse me*), and apologizing (*please*) is aimed to soften a direct request and to make it more polite.

**Table 4.3: Use of Attracters**

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hey</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hello</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is also the use of attracters or attention getters. These are the elements of which function is to alert the hearer’s attention to the ensuing speech act (Blum kulka, House, and Kasper (1989:17). Examples are: Excuse me, hello, hi, hey. The students from both groups utilized the politeness devices. It can be seen that the Libyan students did not utilize more of attracters or supportive moves neither preceding nor following the head acts. It seems that they did their request regardless of the politeness devices although they were parts of the politeness. The students did not apply politeness devices mostly in situation five. It might be influenced by the equal status between the interlocutors.
4.2.3. Factors that Influence the Use of the Strategies by Indonesian and Libyan students

The major factors that influence the use of the strategies by the two groups are power and distance which are also deep-rooted in the socio-cultural environment of the subjects. Generally speaking, Blum Kulka, House, and Kasper (1989) point out that request strategies are expected to be influenced by the relation between interlocutors, i.e., the requester and requestee and their relative dominance over each other. The social power and social distance play a significant role in influencing the use of the strategies by both groups. Another factor is the socio-cultural variables. As observed, request making in various Muslim countries observe their respective cultural traditions. It be said that most Arabic societies use the indirect request strategy, because they prefer it as a polite strategy of communicating with others. In making requests, they tend to observe various Islamic injunctions. Though, some are more Islamic while others have adopted norms that are in the values of various cultures. A study was by Abdul Sattar (2009) clearly showed that the most frequently used request strategy by Iraqi postgraduate students is the preparatory strategy (can, could) which means that they prefer to be polite and indirect in their requests. Umar (2004) also demonstrated that Arab students of English, even at advanced levels, may fall back on their cultural background when formulating their request strategies.

The use of direct speech indicates a close relationship between the speakers. In Indonesian culture direct strategies or imperatives are common and
permitted in the interaction between people with close relationship only such as family members and close friends. In some cases the students used direct strategy. The cultural implications of this study creates an awareness of the request strategies used by students who in many ways were influenced by their own mother tongues when making requests in English.

In the role-plays, the two groups of students indicated a strong trend to opt for head acts that are query preparatory- conventionally indirect. The impact of power can be seen from different situations. In a situation, where the requestee held a higher rank, the students utilized a great number of conventionally indirect head acts with little regard for the extent of familiarity. It was found that the students who participated in the current study used different strategies: mood derivable, want statement, performative, obligatory statement, suggestory formula, query preparatory and mild hints when addressing an interlocutor with unequal status. The students employed more conventionally indirect strategies especially query preparatory.

4.3 Discussion

This section discusses some issues arising from the research finding. First of all, it has been found that the two groups choose similar strategies in performing requests. These similarities are noticeable when the subjects address their request to equals or higher rankers. Secondly, it is found that subjects in the two groups modify their request strategies according to the total ranking of the imposition, of the social power and the social distance found. The findings after the data
analysis show that most respondents (i.e. Eight students) choose the same strategy (i.e. query preparatory) as an individual manner of self-expression, as well as a strategy perceived equally polite and indirect. Requestees in both groups are, therefore, intrigued to choose their requestive strategies very carefully so as to look more polite.

Indirect strategies are preferred by both groups with one major difference is that for the Indonesians, indirect requests are characterized with marked elaborations and explanations. On the other hand, the Libyan requests are found to be rather short. This phenomenon can be interpreted based on the cultural background, but also could be attributed to linguistic reasons because the requests were made in English. One would think that their mother tongues influenced how their requests were presented in English. For example, the Indonesians were more eloquent, elaborating and explaining as they could have done if the requests were in Indonesian. The Libyans were not that elaborate as they talk less without much elaboration or explanation for requests. Thus, as speakers of English as a foreign, it can be simply concluded their L1 (mother tongue) affected the way their requests were presented. They tried to maintain the politeness as embedded in their various cultures.

In addition, the indirectness in realizing requests done by the subjects may have nothing to do with the attempts to avoid face-threatening acts. The request itself is only the speaker’s intention. It has no function without the listener reacting to it, regardless of whether the reaction is positive, negative or puzzling as requesting is performed differently from one society to another, according to their
cultures, norms, thinking and languages. Performing requests in a language different from their mother tongue may not reflect the best way of requesting by the students. The students may have to struggle in this case. It is also believed that using one’s mother tongue and culture, there is little or no difficulty in employing words that are unconsciously learnt that follow the norms and conventions of a speech community. It is a fact that communication strategies and habits tells every community is different. This is consistent with the view Bonvillain (2003:63) that the symbol of the culture of a society is reflected from the language. Most of the students may have tried to modify the requests from their original language to English. The requests were shown by various politeness markers in Indonesian: permisi (*excuse me*), tolong (*please*), boleh (*can/may/could*), minta (*ask*). Interestingly, this study showed that Indonesian students used more ‘excuse me’ than the Libyans.

On the other hand, the notions of directness/indirectness play a crucial role in the negotiation of face during the realization of speech acts such as the requests. As observed higher levels of indirectness may result in higher levels of politeness. Direct request are face-threatening. According to Brown and Levinson (1987) and Leech (1983), direct requests appear to be inherently impolite and face-threatening because they intrude in to the addressee’s territory, and it can be argued that the preference for indirectness is polite behaviour. Leech suggests that it is possible to increase the degree of politeness by using more indirect illocutions: “(a) because they increase the degree of optionality, and (b) because
the more indirect and illocution is, the more diminished and tentative its force tends to be” (1983:131-32).

According to Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989), indirectness is comprised of two types: conventional indirectness (CI) which centers on conventions of language including propositional content (literal meaning) and pragmalinguistic forms used to signal illocutionary force, and nonconventional indirectness (NCI) which relies heavily on the context and tends to be “open ended, both in terms of propositional content and linguistic form as well as pragmatic force” (1989: 42). The link between indirectness and politeness is further supported by Searle’s observation that “politeness is the most prominent motivation for preferring indirectness in requests, and certain forms tend to become the conventionally polite ways of making indirect requests” (1975:76).

According to Lakoff (1975: 33), “to be polite is saying the socially correct things” while Leech (1983) describes politeness in terms of costs and benefits for both speaker and hearer. According to him, an utterance that minimizes the hearer’s costs and maximizes his benefits and that maximizes the speaker’s costs and minimizes his benefit, is observed as a very polite utterance. Ide (1993: 7) on the other hand, views politeness as behaviors “without friction”.

Therefore, an overall view of the request data made available by the two groups reveals that conventional indirectness is the strategy widely chosen by both groups in almost all situations. In fact, both groups employ conventional indirectness in more in all the situations. The students in each group use more direct request strategies with addressees in positions lower or equal to theirs, but
subjects are found to choose more indirect request strategies when addressing their requests to their seniors. In directing requests to equals, both the Indonesians and the Libyans are found to maintain a reasonable level of politeness. In this sense, requests are face-threatening to both the requester and the recipient. Since requests have the potential to be intrusive and demanding, there is a need for the requester to minimize the imposition involved in the request. Thus, one way for the speaker to minimize the imposition is by employing indirect strategies rather than direct ones.

From these points above, the result from this study is in line with findings of studies such as that conducted by Vazquez-Orta (1996) and Garacia (1996) which have also revealed higher tendency among their subjects to use conventional indirectness over other requestive strategies. Sukamto’s (2012) study on polite requests by Korean learners of Indonesian also portray the subjects to use conventional indirectness more than direct and non-conventional indirect strategies to express politeness of requests.
CHAPTER V
CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTION

5.1 Conclusion

Based on the analysis of DCT data and the results of the study, following conclusions were drawn:

1. The Indonesian and Libyan students who were the subjects of this study utilized strategies which contained politeness values. The students exhibited their preference for the use of Query Preparatory that falls under conventionally indirect request to depict politeness and to avoid imposition of requests. There were some similarities and slight differences between the two groups of students in their selection of strategies to realize request.

2. The degree of power and social distance between the requester and the requestee plays a significant role in the Some of the nine request strategies were found in their request utterances but varied in application. Both utilized conventionally indirect strategies more often, followed by direct strategies, and non-conventionally indirect strategies. It was observed that the quality of the relationship determines the politeness strategy.

3. Both groups utilized query preparatory request strategy where there is a power and distance difference between the requester and requestee. It
was observed that higher levels of indirectness may result in higher levels of politeness.

4. The use of direct request strategies could indicate a close relationship between the two speakers rather than imposition of face and could be interpreted as politeness.

5. The use of such formulaic utterances such as address terms, politeness markers, and attention getters is aimed to soften a direct request and to make it more polite.

6. The social power and social distance play a significant role in influencing the use of the strategies by both groups.

5.2 Suggestions

This research had proven that politeness strategy is important in requests in both cultures and the use of conventional indirect request strategies show more politeness than the direct and non-conventional indirect requests. It is then suggested that;

Teachers and students need to have multiple opportunities, through a variety of instructional techniques, to develop awareness of features of the pragmatics. Pragmatic competence should be integrated in language learning as it marks effective language use. Pragmatic competence is defined as “knowledge of the linguistic resources available in a given language for realizing particular illocutions, knowledge of the sequential aspects of speech acts and finally, knowledge of the appropriate contextual use of the particular languages’ linguistic
resources (Barron, 2003). Through in a variety of classroom drills and exercises that involve realization of the speech act of request in different situations this awareness can be achieved by students. Students should also be given enough chance to practice these drills of pragmatic competence until they become part of their linguistic repertoire. Role play may be recommended as a class room procedure to enhance linguistic and cultural appropriateness of different speech acts. At the same time, students should be implicitly and explicitly instructed to observe the role of social distance and social power in performing request. Students should also be taught the proper syntactic and semantic techniques to modify their requestive acts. Teachers should be aware of factors that affect politeness of requests and make sure students also understand the socio-cultural factors in requesting.

However, further research is therefore suggested in other request variables such as sex differences, ages, the mood of request and degree of imposition to determine their effect on requestive behavior. This study only focused on a very limited number of variables that may affect the subject’s choice of request strategies, i.e., the social distance and the social power. Speech act realization patterns such as apologizing, thanking, and taking permissions between the two groups can be investigated.
REFERENCES


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Appendix 1

**Brief:** You are expected to make a request in English for each given scenarios. Imagine you are in the following situation. What would you say in the given situations? Please be as natural as possible.

1. **Scenario One**

   You are having difficulties in finding articles and books for one of your essays in the library. You fear that you will not be able to write the essay. You ask the librarian to check the computer to see whether or not the book you are looking for is available. You also tell her that it is urgent. What would you say to her?

2. **Scenario Two**

   You urgently need some money to buy a very important reference book because you need the reference book to do your project in which the deadline is tomorrow but your money is not enough to buy it. You want to borrow some money from a friend but your relation is not too close with him. What would you say?

3. **Scenario Three**

   You arranged to meet a friend of yours at 4 p.m. to help you with your preparation to hold reading competition. But in the morning, you wake up with a terrible toothache and the dentist can only see you at 4 p.m. Your friend has cancelled another meeting to see you this afternoon although he is a very busy man. In the morning he had a seminar and you wait for him after his seminar and ask him to meet you tomorrow instead. What would you say?
4. **Scenario Four**

You are in your room doing your homework. You think that the TV is too loud. You ask your younger brother who is watching TV to turn down the volume. What would you say to him?

5. **Scenario Five**

You missed an important lecture yesterday. You want to borrow your friend’s notebook for just one day. What would you say to him/her?

6. **Scenario Six**

You want to smoke but you don’t bring a lighter with you. Then you ask a stranger for a light for your cigarette. What would you say to him/her?

7. **Scenario Seven**

You missed an important briefing from your principal yesterday, and you want to ask for information to the vice of principal, Mr. Ali about what you have missed. What would you say to him?

8. **Scenario Eight**

You are an employee, you are not feeling well, and you ask your boss whether you could go home earlier, what would you say to him/her?

**Appendix 2**

Transcript of raw data obtained from Indonesian and Libyan students

**Andi (Indonesian)**

Scenario 1: Asking a librarian to check the book’s availability in computer
Excuse me madam….can you check these title of books in your computer? Because its very important for me because I want to make an essay.

Scenario 2: Asking a friend to lend some money
Hello, actually it’s very urgent. But I need your help. I have the need to find a book; actually my money is not enough to buy it. So can you help me to lend me some money to buy the book?

Scenario 3: Asking a friend to meet in other time
Hello, actually I want to say something to you. I am really sorry because today at this time, I cannot meet you because I have to go to the doctor. Can you spare your time to meet with me again tomorrow? Please help me, may be tomorrow I have new time. If you can, please call me.

Scenario 4: Asking your younger brother to turn down the volume of TV
Hey my young brother, please turn down the TV because am still doing my homework

Scenario 5: Asking a notebook from a friend
Dit, where is your notebook? Can I borrow it?

Scenario 6: Asking a lighter from a stranger
Hey mr, am sorry may I borrow your lighter because I want to smoke right now

Scenario 8: Asking your boss for a permission to go home earlier
Excuse me, Sir, actually I have a stomachache. I can’t continue to work right now.

So, would you like to allow me to go to home?

Andin (Indonesian)

Scenario 1: Asking a librarian to check the book’s availability in computer

Excuse me, am looking for a book but I could not find it, could help please.

Scenario 2: Asking a friend to lend some money

Hey, I know this is awkward but I need a book, it is really important but I didn’t bring my money, could your borrow me some money

Scenario 3: Asking a friend to meet in other time

Hey, Am sorry I get a toothache today, could please you rearrange our meeting, by tomorrow .Is that ok? Please!

Scenario 4: Asking your younger brother to turn down the volume of TV

Hey, turn down the volume please am studying

Younger Brother: Could you please turn down the volume

Scenario 5: Asking a notebook from a friend

Hey, give me your notebook; I didn’t come to class yesterday.

Scenario 6: Asking a lighter from a stranger

Excuse me sir, can I borrow your lighter, please!
Dit (Indonesian)

Scenario 1: Asking a librarian to check the book’s availability in computer

Sorry for disturbing you sir, can you find this article because it’s really urgent

Scenario 2: Asking a friend to lend some money

Friend: I have problem, I have to buy a book but I don’t have the money. Can I borrow your money? (Talk about the problem first, and then express the request)

Scenario 4: Asking your younger brother to turn down the volume of TV

(Command) turn down the TV

Scenario 5: Asking a notebook from a friend

Hey Hamza, lean me your book

Scenario 6: Asking a lighter from a stranger

Excuse me, May I borrow your lighter

Scenario 7: Ask for information from the vice principal

Assalamalakum, sorry, forgive me because I didn’t get the full instruction from the principal, can you help me?

Scenario 8: Asking your boss for a permission to go home earlier

Am really sorry, I have got a toothache so I have to go to dentist right now so, sorry before cancelling our appointment (with smiles). How about tomorrow?
Scenario 1: Asking a librarian to check the book’s availability in computer

Excuse me /sir am so sorry to disturb you, I cannot find this book, can you help me?

Scenario 2: Asking a friend to lend some money

Hey, do you still remember me, well, we met in the library at the first time, I hope you still remember me because I need your help now because I need to buy something now but my money is not enough, so can you lend me some money? May be can you give my ID as the guaranty.

Scenario 3: Asking a friend to meet in other time

I do apologize because I have to cancel our meeting, but I know that you are so busy because you have to cancel meeting with your friends, but am so sorry because I have a toothache, am sorry, can we meet tomorrow.

Situation 4: Asking your younger brother to turn down the volume of TV

Hey, younger brother can you turn down the volume because it is disturbing (smiling face with gesture)

Scenario 5: Asking a notebook from a friend

Can I borrow your notebook? Can you borrow me your notebook because I missed Dr Hari’s class yesterday
Scenario 6: Asking a lighter from a stranger

Excuse me sir, do you have a light?

Scenario 7: Ask for information from the vice principal

Excuse me, can I have your time for a moment because I need more instruction about the briefing yesterday because I missed some parts, I know you are very busy but I think it is important for me to know it more, can you give time to do it more?

Scenario 8: Asking your boss for a permission to go home earlier

Excuse me sir, am not feeling well today, can I have your permission to go home earlier?

Khair (Libyan)

Scenario 1: Asking a librarian to check the book’s availability in computer

Can you help me find the book or article, I really need it

Scenario 2: Asking a friend to lend some money

Could you lend me some money to buy this book?

Scenario 3: Asking a friend to meet in other time

Could you postpone the meeting until tomorrow? As you can see am having toothache

Scenario 4: Asking your younger brother to turn down the volume of TV
Turn the volume down

Scenario 5: Asking a notebook from a friend

Could you borrow me your notebook?

Scenario 6: Asking a lighter from a stranger

Could you borrow a lighter please?

Scenario 8: Asking your boss for a permission to go home earlier

Could you give me permission to go home? I am not well.

Milad (Libyan)

Scenario 1: Asking a librarian to check the book’s availability in computer

(Greeting) ask her to find it the book.

Scenario 2: Asking a friend to lend some money

I have to buy a book, so necessary for me but I am asking you to borrow me some money. (Not to mention what you want to money for)

Scenario 3: Asking a friend to meet in other time

Our meeting today is cancelled because I have toothache. I am very sorry.

(Apologize before request)

Scenario 5: Asking your younger brother to turn down the volume of TV
Hey, (Ahmed) turn down the volume of the TV. (Impolite to ask father to turn down the volume)

Yesterday, I didn’t attend class, may your give me your notebook?

Scenario 6: Asking a lighter from a stranger

May I use your lighter?

Scenario 8: Asking your boss for a permission to go home earlier

I cannot continue today, I want to go home…as you can see, am not well.

**Omro (Libyan)**

Scenario 1: Asking a librarian to check the book’s availability in computer

Excuse, am sorry to disturb, am looking for a reference book for my essay and the deadline is tomorrow, I want to you (want statement) to search for the reference, would you help me?

Scenario 2: Asking a friend to lend some money

I want to buy this book but my money is not enough, I hope you can lend me some money to buy the book; I will pay you back soon.

Scenario 3: Asking a friend to meet in other time

Am really sorry for what really happened, I cannot meet you today, I have to meet the dentist today. I cannot meet you today.

Scenario 4: Asking your younger brother to turn down the volume of TV
Turn down the volume, you disturb me.

Scenario 5: Asking a notebook from a friend

I missed class yesterday, would you give me your notebook

I want to use your book, give it to me.

Scenario 6: Asking a lighter from a stranger

Lighter please! (No need for excuse me)

Excuse me sir, would you please give me your lighter, I did have my lighter

Scenario 8: Asking your boss for a permission to go home earlier

Excuse boss, my body is not good; I want to go home to rest.

Raffa (Libyan)

Scenario 1: Asking a librarian to check the book’s availability in computer

Excuse madam/sir, I didn’t find the book, could tell me when the person will bring it back

Scenario 2: Asking a friend to lend some money

I really like to ask you to lend me some money to buy the book.

Scenario 4: Asking your younger brother to turn down the volume of TV

Would please turn the volume down?

Scenario 6: Asking a lighter from a stranger
Actually I forgot my lighter at home, would you borrow me your lighter?

Scenario 8: Asking your boss for a permission to go home earlier

Am sorry today, I got a toothache and our meeting is cancelled. As soon as I get better, would you come to my home again?

Excuse boss, I am sorry, I can not stay at work, I have got a terrible pain, I hope you can give me permission to go home.