

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter provides some theories to support the analysis. The researcher will discuss some theories such as the definition of politeness strategies.

A. Definition of Politeness Strategies

Politeness is influenced by P(power), D (distance), and R (relationship), and also affected by speech events. Meanwhile, Arndt and Janney (1985) propose the theory of politeness on the basis of merit. Politeness is the use of the right word or phrase in the proper context, which is determined by the rules that are prevalent in society. Watts (2003) states that politeness is determined by the relationship between behavior and suitability convention, not by specific linguistic forms. Thomas (1995) introduced the Pollyanna principle that requires a person to use the best way to say something, and talk about things that are fun.

It can be summarized that politeness is the use of an appropriate word or phrase in the appropriate context, which is determined by the rules that are prevalent in society. In social interaction, to maintain politeness is to maintain harmonious and smooth social interaction, and avoid the use of speech acts that are potentially face-threatening or damaging. The principle is based on the use of politeness intimacy, closeness, and relationships, as well as the social distance between the speaker and the hearer. People choose and implement certain values in certain pragmatic scale, according to the culture and conditions of the existing situation in social interaction.

The concept of politeness strategies developed by Brown and Levinson (1987) is adapted from the notion of “face” introduced by a sociologist named Erving Goffman. Face is a picture of self-image in the social attributes. In other words, the face could mean honor, self-esteem, and public self-image. According to Goffman (1955), each participant has two needs in every social process: namely the need to be appreciated and need to be free (not bothered). The first need is called positive face, while the latter is negative face. Face Threatening Act (FTA) intensity is expressed by weight (W), which includes three social parameters – first, the degree of disturbance or rate of imposition (R), in terms of absolute weight of a particular action in a particular culture.

For example, the request "May I borrow your car?" has different weights from the request "May I borrow your pen?" The second and third social parameters include the social distance (D) between the speaker and the hearer, and authority or power (P) owned by interlocutors Renkema (1993). FTA threatens the stability of the intensity of communication; politeness in this case can be understood as an effort to prevent and or repair damage(s) caused by the FTA.

The greater the threat to stability, the more politeness, face work technique, is necessary. Face work which aims at positive face is called ‘solidarity politeness, while face work that deals with negative face is known as ‘respect politeness Renkema (1993). In connection with this strategy politeness, Brown and Levinson (1978) show that there are five ways to avoid the FTA. The five strategies are sorted by degree of risk ‘losing face’; the higher the risk of losing face, the less likely the speaker did FTA. In this case, Renkema (1993) gives an

example of this strategy. a. Hey, lend me a hundred dollars. (Baldly) b. Hey, friend, could you lend me a hundred bucks? (Positive politeness) c. I'm sorry I have to ask, but could you lend me a hundred dollars? (Negative politeness) d. Oh no, I'm out of cash! I forgot to go to the bank today. (Off the record) In connection with this politeness strategy, here are the possible strategies for doing FTAs.

Brown and Levinson (1987) outline four types of politeness strategies including baldness on record, positive politeness, negative politeness, and off-record (indirect). The main idea is to realize the various strategies used by various people in their interactional behavior to fulfill specific desires for the face. The types are :

1. Positive Politeness

Positive politeness is usually seen in groups of friends, or where people from certain social situations know each other well. Usually try to minimize the distance between them by expressing friendliness and strong interest in the needs of the expected listener (minimizing FTA). Unlike negative politeness, positive politeness does not necessarily reflect the special face that is violated by the FTA.

According to Brown and Levinson (1978), positive politeness is compensation that is directed at the recipient's positive face, his eternal desire for his wishes or the act of acquisition, the value produced from them - must be regarded as desirable. Furthermore, they explained that compensation consists of satisfying some of the desires that the person wants himself or some of them in some ways similar to the recipient's wishes. BL also noted that unlike negative

politeness, positive politeness does not necessarily improve the particular face that the FTA wants to violate. In other words, in positive politeness, the scope of compensation is extended to the appreciation of the alter's wishes in general or the expression of similarities between the wishes of the ego and the alter.

The linguistic findings of positive politeness in many respects are only representative of normal linguistic behavior between close friends, where the interests and approval of each other's personality, presumptions that show mutual desire and sharing of knowledge, implicit claims for reciprocity of obligation or reflexivity of desires, etc. Regularly exchanged. Perhaps the only feature that distinguishes positive politeness from normal everyday language behavior is excessive elements; this serves as a marker of the substitute aspect of positive politeness expression by showing that even S cannot with total sincerity say "I want your wish" he can at least sincerely show "I want your positive face to be fulfilled. Brown and Levinson (1987: 103-129) divide positive politeness strategy into 15 strategies. They are:

a. Strategy 1: Notice, attend to Hearer (his interest, wants, needs, goods)

The strategy suggests that S (speaker) should take notice as aspects of hearer's condition of the listener (the changes can also note, common ownership, and everything that listeners want to be noticed and recognized by the speakers). For example: "Bayu, you're really good at solving computer problems. I wonder if you could just help me with a little problem I have got." The speaker knows that Bayu is good at solving computer problems. Therefore, when he or she has a

problem, he asks Bayu to help him or her. Before the speaker asks him, he or she tries to satisfy Bayu's positive face by praising Bayu's ability in solving computer problem. Thus, Bayu feels good and tries to help the speaker to solve his or her problem.

b. Strategy 2: Exaggerate (interest, approval, sympathy with H)

This strategy is often done with exaggerated intonation, stress, and other aspects of prosodic, as well as intensifying modifiers. Example: "Oh Anne, so beautiful you are. Just the girl I wanted to see. I knew I'd met you here. Could you spare me a couple of minute?" The utterance above shows that the speaker is glad to see Anne. The speaker indicates his or her exaggeration by saying that Anne is beautiful and the only person he or she wants to meet. Anne gets satisfied because the speaker gives interest to her by exaggerating. Therefore, Anne does not feel disturbed to spare her time.

c. Strategy 3: intensify interest to H

Another way for S to communicate to Hearer (H) that he shares his wants is to intensify the interest of S's own contributions to the conversation, by „making good story". Example: "I came down the stairs, 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..." Brown and Levinson (1987) Before the speaker tells the story, he or she tries to get the hearer's attention by saying "and what do you think I see?". This

phrase makes the hearer interested in listening to his or her story. It shows that the speaker has saved the hearer's positive face because the speaker has made the hearer involved in the discussion.

d. Strategy 4: use in-group identity markers (addressed forms, dialect, jargon or slang)

This strategy is done by using innumerable address forms to indicate that S and H belong to some set of persons who share specific wants. In conveying of group member, the speaker can use terms such as, mac, mate, buddy, pal, honey, dear, duckie, luv, babe, Mom, blondie, brother, sister, cutie, sweetheart, guys, fella, etc. In Indonesian use terms such as, kawan, say, bo", eke, dsb. Example: "Help me with this bag here, will you darling? The example above shows that the speaker employs positive politeness by using in-group identity markers. The identity marker "darling" might be another address form from his friend. The speakers uses these words to minimize the threat as he or she is asking the hearer to help him or her. Therefore, the hearer's positive face is saved because he has been treated as a member of the same group.

e. Strategy 5: seek agreement (safe topics, repetition)

Another way to save positive face of H is to seek ways in which it is possible to agree with him. Seek agreement may be stressed by raising weather topics and repeating what the preceding speaker has said in a conversation. There are two ways: safe topics and repetition Brown and Levinson,(1987).

1) The raising of “safe topics” allows the speaker to stress his agreement with the hearer that the hearer’s opinion is right. The speaker corroborates in his opinions and therefore to satisfy the hearer’s positive face. For example, if your neighbor comes home with a new car and you think that it is hideously huge and pollution producing, you might still be able to say sincerely “Isn’t your new car a beautiful color!”. Hence, your neighbour’s positive face is safe because we do not tell him about his dreadful car.

2) Agreement may also be stressed by repeating a part or what the entire preceding the speaker has said in a conversation. It is not only used to demonstrate that one has heard correct what was said but also used to stress emotional agreement with the utterance (or to stress interest and surprise).

For example: A : I had a flat tyre on the way home.

B : Oh God, a flat tyre!

Brown and Levinson (1987) The example above shows how B uses agreement by repeating part of what A has said. It is used to show his or her cooperation with his or her boss. Thus, A feels satisfied because B appreciates his or him.

f. Strategy 6: avoid disagreement

The desire to agree or appear to agree with H leads to mechanisms for pretending to agree. Using this strategy, speakers may go in twisting their utterances to agree or to hide disagreement. There are four ways to avoid disagreement namely by means of token agreement, pseudo agreement, white lies, and hedging opinion.

1) For instances of “token” agreement are the desire to agree or appear to agree with the hearer leads also to mechanism for pretending to agree Brown and Levinson (1987). The remarkable degree to which speakers may go in twisting their utterances so as to appear to agree or to hide disagreement-to respond to a preceding

utterances with “Yes, but...” in effect, rather than “No”. For example: Adam : What is she, small ? Bryan : Yes, yes, she’s small, smallish, um, not really small but certainly not very big. Brown and Levinson (1987) The example above shows that Bryan avoids disagreement. In this case, Bryan disagrees with the Adam’s opinion. In order to minimize FTA, Bryan chooses to say “yes” rather than “no”. Therefore, the Adam’s positive face is fulfilled because he feels that his opinion is not wrong.

2) Pseudoagreement is found in English in 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 (Brown and Levinson, 1987:115). For example: Banu : “All right”. Della : “I’ll be seeing you then”. (Brown and Levinson, 1987:115)

Banu : “I love you”.

Della: “ love you, too ”.

The example above shows that Della avoids disagreement. Della actually wants to end the conversation with her father. She says “I’ll be seeing you then” and it can mean that she does not want to talk to her father. However, she does not

want to treat her father's positive face. The word "then" points to a conclusion of an actual agreement between the speaker and the hearer. Therefore, their conversation ends well. 3) White lies ways happen when a speaker confronted with the necessity to states an opinion, wants to lie rather than to damage the hearer's positive face. It is also used to avoid confrontation when refusing a request by lying, pretending there are reasons why one cannot comply Brown and Levinson (1987).

For example, in response to a request to borrow a radio, "Oh I can't. The batteries are dead." The example above shows that the hearer avoids disagreement. The hearer actually does not want to lend the radio. 4) Hedging opinion occurs when the speaker may choose to be vague about his own opinions, so as not to be seen to disagree (Brown and Levinson, 1987: 116).

Normally hedges are a feature of negative politeness, but some hedges are a feature of positive politeness function as well. For example: Della : Are--are you saying I'm fir Banu : No, no, not yet. I mean not yet,Dan. The example above shows that actually Banu wants to say "yes" because as the matter of fact Della will be fired. In order to safe Della's positive face Banu responses Della's question by hedging his opinion. Banu chooses to be vague about his own opinion so that it is not seen that he disagrees with Della.

g. Strategy 7: presuppose/ raise/ assert common ground.

This strategy includes three ways among them are gossip or small talk, point of view operations and presupposition manipulation. 1) Gossip or small talk the value of speaker's spending time and effort on being with the hearer, as a mark of friendship or interest him. It gives rise to the strategy of redressing FTAs by talking for a while about unrelated topic before leads to the real topic (Brown and Levinson, 1987:117). For example, actually the speaker wants to request something to the hearer, thereby he can stress his general interest with the hearer and indicates that he has not come to see the hearer simply to do it even though his intent might be obvious by his having brought gift to the hearer.

2) Point of view operations by means of deixis. It is used for reducing the distance between the speaker and the hearer's point of view. a) Personal-center switch: the speaker to the hearer. This where the speaker speaks as if the hearer were the speaker, or the hearer's knowledge were equal to the speaker's knowledge (Brown and Levinson, 1987:119). For example, when the speaker gives directions to a stranger, unfamiliar with the town "It's at the far end of the

street, the last house on the left, isn't it". b) Time switch, the use of „vivid present", a tense shift from past to present tense Brown and Levinson (1987).

The vivid present functions to increase the immediacy and therefore the interest of the story. For example, "John says he really loves your roses". c) Place switch, the use proximal rather than distal demonstrative (here, this, rather than that, there), where either proximal or distance would be acceptable, seems to convey increased involvement or empathy Brown and Levinson (1987). For example: Dan : Uh, this is my boss, Carter Duryea. The word "this" shows positive politeness strategy, place time. 3) Presupposition manipulation means that the speaker presupposes something that it is mutually taken for granted. Brown and Levinson (1987).

a) Presuppose knowledge of the hearer's wants and attitudes. Negative questions, which presume "yes" as an answer, are widely used as a way to indicate that the speaker knows the hearer's wants, tastes, habits, etc., and thus partially to redress the imposition of FTAs. For example, "Wouldn't you like a drink?" b) Presuppose the hearer's values being the same as the speaker's values. For example, the use of scalar prediction such as "tall" assumes that the speaker and the hearer share the criteria for placing people (or things) on this scale. c) Presuppose familiarity in speaker-hearer relationship.

The use of familiar address forms like honey or darling presupposes that the addressee is “familiar”. d) Presuppose the hearer’s knowledge. The use of any term presupposes that the referents are known to the addressee. For example, “Well I was watching High Life last night”. The speaker assumes that the hearer does know the program even though the hearer indeed does not know about the TV program. However, it may operate as an expression of good intentions, indicating that the speaker assumes that the speaker and the hearer share common grounds.

h. Strategy 8: joke

Jokes are based on mutual shared background knowledge and values that they redefine the size of FTA. Example: when a speaker wants to borrow his friend’s new Cadillac by saying: “How about landing me this old heap of junk?” Actually, what the speaker means about old heap of junk is new Cadillacs hearer.

i.Strategy 9: Assert S’s knowledge of H

“S ‘wants and willingness to fit one’s own wants in with them. Example: “I know you do not like parties.But this is different.You must like.Coming huh?” The example above shows the cooperation stressed by the speaker. He indicates his knowledge of the hearer.He knows that the hearer do not like party. He asserts or implies knowledge of the hearer’s wants and willingness

to fit is coming to the party. Thus, the hearer's positive face has been satisfied because he has been appreciated by the speaker.

j. Strategy 10: Offer, promise.

This strategy is done to redress the potential threat of some FTAs. Speaker may claim that whatever H wants, S wants for him and will help to obtain. For example, "I'll send the money tomorrow. Do not worry." This example shows that the speaker conveys to the hearer that they are cooperated. The speaker stresses his or her cooperation by promising to the hearer that he or she will send the money tomorrow. This expression can minimize the imposition when the speaker asks the hearer to not worry it. Thus, the hearer's positive face has been fulfilled because the speaker has appreciated him or her.

k. Strategy 11: Be optimistic

This strategy assumes that H will cooperate with S because it will be in their mutual shared interest. Example: "A wife said to her husband before appearing in public: "Wait a minute, you haven't brushed your hair!" (as husband goes out of the door). (Brown and Levinson, 1987: 126) In this utterance, the speaker asks the hearer to wait before the hearer goes out of the door. The speaker assumes that the hearer cooperated with him because both of them know that the hearer have not brush his hair. It shows that the speaker has appreciated the hearer and satisfied the hearer's positive face.

l. Strategy 12: Include both S and H in the activity

This is done by using an inclusive “we” form, when S really means “you” or “me”. The use of let’s is an inclusive form of “we”. For example, “Let us stop for a bit”. In the example above, the speaker wants the hearer to stop. The use of the pronoun “us” in that sentence shows that the speaker includes the hearer in his or her activity. It makes the request more polite because it indicates the cooperation between the speaker and the hearer that the goals not only for the speaker but also for both of them.

m. Strategy 13: give or ask for reasons

Another aspect of including H in the activities demanding reasons “why not” and assuming that H has no good reasons why can’t help. For example, “I know there is no one in your home. Why not stay here tonight?”. Since the speaker thinks that there is no one in the hearer’s home, the speaker can say directly “Why not stay here tonight?”. However, the speaker decides to give the suggestion

indirectly by asking the reason of why the hearer does not stay at his or her home. Therefore, the speaker has satisfied the hearer’s positive face.

n. Strategy 14: Assume or assert reciprocity

The strategy is done by giving evidence of reciprocal right or obligations obtaining between S and H. Therefore, the speaker can 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 '(or vice versa). For example, “I washed the dishes yesterday so you do that for me today”. The example above is clearly seen that the speaker and the hearer are cooperated by assuming reciprocity. The speaker and the hearer get their own right. The speaker gets a help from the hearer and the hearer gets a help from the speaker.

o. Strategy 15: Give gifts to H (sympathy, understanding, cooperation)

To satisfy H's positive face, S may do this classic strategy. That is to give gift not only tangible gifts but also human-relation wants such to be liked, to be admired. For example, “I'm sorry for what happened to you yesterday.” The example above shows that the speaker decides to save the hearer"s positive face by giving gift to the hearer. By giving sympathy as a gift, the speaker makes the hearer feel appreciated. Therefore, the speaker can minimize the imposition when he or she confide in the hearer.

2. Negative politeness

When Brown and Levinson define negative politeness, they say that it is a muted action aimed at the recipient's negative face, that is, the intended person wants to have the freedom to act without obstacles and attention that is responded unhindered. They also show that negative politeness is at the core of each other's behavior, as positive politeness is at the core of "familiar" and "joking" behavior.

Negative politeness is in accordance with the ritual of avoidance. Where positive politeness is free, negative politeness is specific and focused; it performs the function of minimizing certain imposition that FTA has an unavoidable effect. Furthermore, BL also emphasized the difference between them, that negative politeness is politeness used among acquaintances while positive politeness is used among close friends.

Negative politeness is the most complex set of linguistic strategies and most conventions for handling FTAs; it fills etiquette books even though positive politeness is also getting attention. Furthermore, according to Brown & Levinson (1987), linguistic realization of negative politeness, conventional imprecision, hedging on illocutionary power, polite pessimism, and emphasis on the relative strength of listeners is very familiar and does not need to be introduced. In addition, BL said that negative politeness output in all forms is generally used for social "distance".

Therefore, they tend to be used every time the speaker or sender wants to install social brakes on the course of the interaction. There are five main categories as the linguistic realization of negative politeness by BL, namely communicating the sender's desire not to attack the recipient, not forcing the recipient, not assuming / being, conventionally directing and correcting the recipient's desires.

Brown and Levinson (1987) also classify negative politeness strategy into 10 strategies:

a. Strategy 1: Be conventionally indirect

This is the first mechanism of negative politeness namely 'be direct', speak directly without rambling. This strategy is a way out for two circumstances which conflict with each other, namely the desire to not pressing the speaker on one side and a desire to proclaim the message directly without rambling and obviously meaning the other side. Therefore, the strategy is conducted by using phrases and sentences that have contextually unambiguous meanings that are different from their literal meaning.

Example: (1) When a speaker is doing calculus homework and need a help for instance, he says to a friend "Can you do advanced calculus, please?". (2) Can you open the door, please!! The inserts of "please" in the sentence above shows that there is a willingness to ask directly and give choices to the hearer.

b. Strategy 2: Question, Hedge

A hedge makes the membership of a noun phrase in a set that it is partial or true only in certain respects and more complete than might be expected. Hedge may be functioned to soften command and turn it into a polite suggestion. Example:

(1) I was wondering if you could help me.

(2) In my opinion, this meeting could not be started

c. Strategy 3: be pessimistic S

This strategy gives redress to H's negative face by explicitly expressing doubt that the conditions for the appropriateness of S's speech act obtain Brown and Levinson (1987). Example:

- (1) I want to ask for help, but I'm afraid you do not want.
- (2) Actually I wanted to come, but I'm afraid your father would angry with me.

d. Strategy 4: Minimize the imposition

One way of defusing the FTA is to indicate that the intrinsic seriousness of the imposition is not great, though it is. Example:

- (1) "I just want to ask if you could lend me a single sheet of paper" when the speaker wants to ask some papers.
- (2) You can just talk like that, but we do not necessarily agree.

e. Strategy 5: Give deference

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), there are two sides of deference realization. First, the speaker humbles and abases himself and another. Second, speaker raises H (pays him positive face/ satisfies H's wants to be treated as superior). From those two ways, the speaker is giving respect actually. Example:

- (1) The use of "honorifics" word like "Sir" in the sentence "I'm sorry, Sir"
- (2) "I don't think you bought to do that, Mr. President".

f. Strategy 6: Apologize

By apologizing for doing an FTA, the speaker can indicate his reluctance to impinge on H's negative and thereby redress that impingement. There are four ways to convey apologizing, a) recognizes the pressures and distractions provided, b) showed reluctance and use of certain expressions, c) deliver the reason that force the speaker for doing that and d) begging forgiveness and begged the speakers delay the FTA from the utterance are delivered. Example:

- (1) "I hesitate to trouble you, but..."
- (2) Previously I apologize for the events here.
- (3) Sorry, I may be wrong, but I did not mean it

g. Strategy 7: Impersonalize S and H

Other way of indicating that S doesn't want to impinge on H is to phrase the FTA as if the agent were other than S, or not S alone at least, and the addressee were other than H, or only speaker and inclusive of H. This strategy uses impersonal form by didn't show the speaker and hearer. This strategy avoids the use of word 'I' and "You", doubling the pronoun "I" becomes "we", replace the word "you" with "sir" or "ma'am". Example:

- (1) "you shouldn't do things like that 'becomes' .One shouldn' t do things like that" by replace the word 'you'.

(2) “Excuse me, you! Becomes “Excuse me, Sir!!” to avoid the use of word “you”.

h. Strategy 8: State the FTA as a general rule

This strategy states that the FTA One way of dissociating S and H from particular imposition in the FTA is to state the FTA as an instance of some general social rule, regulation, or obligation. The characteristic is avoiding the uses of pronoun. Example:

(1) “you will please refrain from flushing toilets on the train” becomes “Passengers will please refrain from flushing toilets on the train” by replace the word “you” with “passengers”. the second characteristic is using a group not individuals. (2) DPR is obliged to resolve the case of Bank Century. The third characteristic is to express utterances as the rules that apply to everyone including speaker and hearer. For example, “Smoking is prohibited in this place”. Those prohibition is pointed to everyone which was in that place.

i. Strategy 9: Nominalize

This strategy is done by changing a word to be noun. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), the degree of negative politeness (or at least formality) run hand in hand with nouniness. The more nouns are used in an expression, the more

removed an actor from doing or being something and the less dangerous an FTA seems to be. Example:

(1) You performed well on the examinations and we... Your performing well on the examinations impressed us... Your good performance on the examination impressed us... According to Brown and Levinson, the third sentence is more formal than the second sentence and the second sentence is more formal than the first sentence. The changes of the word performed to be performing then becomes performance is a strategy to change the verb becomes a noun.

j. Strategy 10: Go on record as incurring a debt, or as not indebting H

The strategy is the highest negative politeness which can fulfill the desire of the hearer to be respect. It is done by claiming S"s indebttness to H or by disclaiming any indebttness of H, so that S can redress an FTA. Example:

(1) "I could easily do it for you".

(2) "I'll never be Able to repay you if you can bring this book to me.

From some examples above, the speaker shows that S"s indebttness to H or by disclaiming any indebttness of H.

3. Bald On-Record

Brown and Levinsons (1978: 216) define record strategies as communicative actions carried out in such a way that it is impossible to attribute a clear communicative intention to the action. In this case, the actor leaves himself

"out" by giving himself a number of interpretations that can be maintained. He cannot be considered to have done only one particular interpretation of his actions. In other words, the BL claim, the actor leaves it to the recipient to decide how to interpret the action.

Words that are not recorded are very important in the use of language indirectly. Someone said something rather general. In this case, the listener must make some conclusions to recover what was intended. For example, if someone says "It's hot here", the hidden meaning of the speech can be a request to open a window or turn on the air conditioner.

Furthermore, BL (1978), a list that invites conversational implicatures as one of the main strategies of not being recorded, and its sub-categories provide clues, provide associate clues, posit, understate, exaggerate, use tautology, use contradictions, become ironic, using metaphors, and using rhetorical questions. The other main strategies for not being recorded are unclear or ambiguous, and the subcategories are ambiguous, unclear, too general, displacing listeners and incomplete.

4. Off Record- Indirect

The final politeness strategy outlined by Brown and Levinson is the indirect or off-record strategy. Brown and Levinson (1987: 211) state that:

“A communicative act is done off record if it is done in such a way not possible to attribute only one clear communicative intention to the act. In other words, the actor leaves himself an „out “ by providing himself with

a number of defensible interpretations.” “off record utterance 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 for possible states of affair) or actually different from what one means (intends to be understood).”

Referring to Brown and Levinson statement above, off record strategy is a communicative action which has some purpose. Therefore, when speaker doing off record, it's didn't mean just give an information but the speaker has some purpose. Besides that, the language that use in off record strategy is indirect language. When the speaker uses this strategy, he would only give a clue, so the hearer must have to interpret it self. The following is explanation of fifteen off record strategy according to Brown and Levinson theory (1987: 213-227).

a. Strategy 1: Give hints

“One of the off record strategies which is used by the speaker to state some desired acts of the speaker to be done by addressee by giving hints. Speaker hopes that addressee knows what he means what the speaker means.” This strategy is used by the speaker to implicit an information to the hearer. The information may be a “demand” or “request” from the speaker to the hearer to do something.

Example:

(1) “Ouh, I”m so thirsty” (give me a drink). In this example S implies

that S wants H to give some water.

(2) It's cold here (shut the window) in this example S implies that S wants H to open the window.

In those example above, S asked for a request by giving hint.

b. Strategy 2: Give association clues

Brown and Levinson (1987: 215) state, "The speaker mentions something associated with either precedent addressee's experiences or mutual knowledge of other interpretation experiences". The strategy is conducted 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 interaction experience.

Example:

(1) When someone needs a ride to a market, she says "Are you going to market tomorrow? There's a market tomorrow, I suppose"

(2) "My house, it is not very far away" ("there is the path that leads to my house").

c. Strategy 3: Presuppose

Brown and Levinson (1987: 217) state "The speaker presupposes something which is relevant with the context of the conversation". This strategy is done through an utterance which relevant in context and invites

H to search for an interpretation of the possible relevance just at the level of its presuppositions. Example:

(1) when someone implicates a criticism on his friend responsibility to wash the car, he says “I washed the car again today”.

(2) “I threat again”. (he was threatened before)

d. Strategy 4: Understate

“The speaker chooses one way of generating implicature by saying less than is required it is choosing a point on scalar predicates” (Brown and Levinson (1987: 219). The speaker uses this strategy to express understatements; S says less than is required and as result generates implicatures. Example:

(1) when someone doesn’t really like a friend’s new haircut, she just says “It’s pretty nice”.

(2) A: “What a marvelous place you have here”,

B: “oh I don’t know it’s a place”.

e. Strategy 5: Overstate

According to Brown and Levinson (1987: 219), “The speaker exaggerates or chooses a point scale which is higher than the real situation or to make important situation”. The strategy is done by saying more than is necessary, or by exaggerating or choosing a point on scale which is higher than the actual state of affair. It also called hyperbole.

Example:

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

In this context, speaker exaggerates like he was called his friend for a hundred times.

(2) “You never do the washing up”.

In this context exaggerates like the hearer never washing up.

f. Strategy 6: Use tautologies

A very obvious statement in which speaker encourages the hearer to look for an informative interpretation of the non-informative utterance, because the speaker just other. Using the strategy tautology means S encourage H to look for an informative interpretation of the non-informative utterance.

Example:

(1) “You are men. Why don’t you do something about it?”

(2) Why didn’t you come last night? Promise is promise.”

(3) War is war.

In this context, the speaker uses tautologies to show the hearer that the bold sentence aims to pressuring the information.

g. Strategy 7: Use contradictions

The speaker by stating two things that contradict each other, speaker makes it appear that he cannot be telling the truth. Thus the speaker encourages to addressee looking an interpretation. The

strategy is done by stating to contradict things. By doing so, S makes it appear that he cannot be telling the truth, thus encourage H to look for an interpretation that reconciles the two contradictory propositions.

Example:

(1) A: Are you upset about that?

B: Well, I am and I'm not.

(2) Oh, I'm ok. Disappointed, No. Not disappointed, not also.

h. Strategy 8: Be ironic

Brown and Levinson (1987: 221) state that, "By saying the opposite of what he means speaker can indirectly convey his intended meaning". To be ironic means by saying the opposite of what s means. Through that way, S can indirectly convey his intended meaning, if there are clues (prosodic, kinesics, or textual) which relevant to the context.

Example:

(1) when a man and his guest passing through a slum area for instance, he says "lovely neighborhood, eh?"

(2) Ouh, you always come on time.

In this context the speaker actually wants to tell that the hearer always coming late.

i. Strategy 9: Use metaphor

Brown and Levinson (1987: 222) state that, "The speaker uses

a word that described a first subject as being equal to a second subject". The use of metaphor is usually on record, but there is possibility that the connotations of the metaphor uttered by S may be off record.

Example: when someone says "Harry" s a real fish" which means

Harry drinks like a fish. In this context the speaker shows that Harry like a fish, because the fish love the water. Harry as being equal to the fish, because both of them love the water.

j. Strategy 10. Use rhetorical questions

The speaker uses a linguistic expression used to make a request or information or else itself made by such an expression". The use of this strategy is by raising questions that leave their answers hanging in the air or implicated to do FTAs.

Example: "How many times do I have to tell you?" In this context, the speaker has to tell to the hearer for many times, but the hearer still understands.

k. Strategy 11: Be ambiguous

When the speaker produces an ambiguous utterance it means the speaker is trying to minimize the threat of FTA, because the utterance has more one possible meaning". The term "ambiguity" includes the ambiguity between the literal meaning of an utterance and any possible implicatures inside.

Example:

(1) Lovely neighborhood, uh? This context indicates ambiguity, because it could mean that S really has lovely neighborhood or otherwise (his neighbors is very annoying).

(2) “John”s a pretty smooth cookie” can be intended as compliment or insult, depending on which the connotations of smooth are latched on to.

(3) Mmm, there is a new one, guys! in this context, the word “new” indicates ambiguity. Its depend on the context.

l. Strategy 12: Be vague

According to Brown and Levinson (1987: 226), “The speaker may go off record with FTA by being vague about who the object of the FTA or what the offence is”. This strategy is conducted by being vague about who the object of the FTA is, or what the offence is.

Example:

(1) “Perhaps someone did something naughty”.

In this context, the speaker uses the word “someone”, because he didn”t want to tell who did something naughty.

(2) You must have known, where I go.

In this context the speaker is being vague, because he didn”t want to tell where he goes.

m. Strategy 13: Over-generalize

This strategy is done by saying utterance that may leave the object vaguely off record, and then H has the choice of deciding whether the general rule applies to him. The speaker did not give clear information by saying something general

Example:

(1) “Mature people sometimes help do the dishes”.

In this context, the speaker uses this strategy to show that mature people generally have a responsibility help to serve the dishes.

(2) You are mature. Why do you always cry? In this context, the speaker indicates that mature shouldn’t be like that (never cry).

n. Strategy 14: Displace H

Brown and Levinson (1987: 226) state, “S may go off record as to who the target for his FTA is, or he 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 to him.”

Example:

(1) “Jane, could you run to the stock-room and borrow a stapler for me?” One case happens when a secretary in an office asks another to pass stapler, in situation where a professor is much nearer than the other secretary. In this case, the professor should be a Hearer, but he displaced to another as the hearer.

(2) “Tito, please bring daddy”s bag, honey!!

In this context, Tito is still a child, then his wife out while brings the bag”

o. Strategy 15: Be incomplete, use ellipsis

“The speaker may be pretend to addressee the FTA to somehow one who would not threaten and hope the real target will see that the FTA is aimed at him/her (Brown and Levinson, 1987:227).

The strategy is done by leaving the implicature „hanging in the air”,

without rhetorical question. For example: S got headache and ask H to go for an aspirin, he just

says: “Oh sir, a headache....”

B. Face Threatening Action (FTA)

Brown and Levinson's notion of faces is not only controversial as a description of the fundamental aspects of society, but also that it has important implications for the type of speech that can be considered a threatening act of the face. Face threatening actions are defined by the potential threat to the constituent nature of positive or negative faces.

Therefore, speech acts such as requests are considered intrinsically facing threats because they impose freedom of H from imposition. On the other hand, a statement that simply states worldly facts about the absence of illocutionary powers or guardianship will not threaten a positive or negative face, and thus will not demand a violation of Grice's Maxims in

the form of modesty. However, Matsumoto (1988, 1989) shows examples from Japan that do not fit this framework. For example, 'today is Saturday' can be spoken in that form between almost every two people interacting in English.

The fact that a socially appropriate form of politeness that expresses the social position of the interlocutors is expected in any situation to be included in the P and D values when assessing potential FTA weights (each greeting can be in the form of FTA given the possibility of using inappropriate forms; potential weights refers to the weight that will occur in the case of an inappropriate form of status). However, there is also the question of whether speech can be categorized as an action that intrinsically faces threats by the nature of their illocutionary powers.

There is widespread concern that Brown and Levinson's theory gives too much emphasis to the idea of intrinsic FTA. Although recognizing that demand can be FTA, Sifianou (1992) argues that demand in certain contexts can imply closeness and intimacy, questioning the validity of the assumption that demand always threatens the negative faces of recipients, thus challenging the importance of negative politeness. He proposed that requests only threaten the face when negative faces are more important and valued more than positive faces.

1. Positive Face Threatening Acts

Positive faces are threatened when the speaker or listener does not care about their feelings, desires, or desires, or does not want what they want. Positive threatening facial actions can also cause damage to the speaker or listener. When an individual is forced to be separated from others so that their welfare is treated less important, a positive face is threatened.

2. Negative Face Threatening Acts

Negative faces are threatened when an individual does not dodge or plans to avoid obstruction from the freedom of action of his interlocutor. This results in damage to the speaker or listener, and makes one of the opponents send their wishes to the other. Freedom to choose and act is hampered when negative faces are threatened.

Based on four types of politeness strategies, the researcher will focus on positive politeness, negative politeness and bald strategies on the record. This is because these three strategies are most often used by teachers in the class and are most related to the context of class interaction.

C. The Theory Of Classroom Interaction

L2 classroom interaction research began in the 1960s with the aim of evaluating of effectiveness of different methods in foreign language teaching in the hope that the findings would show the “best” method and its characteristics. The methodology adopted was strongly influenced by firstlanguage (L1) classroom teaching research which was motivated by

the need to assess objectively the teaching performance of student-teachers during practical teaching Nunan(2007).

Cansolo stated language classroom can be seen as sociolinguistic environment and discourse communities in which interlocutors use various functions of language to establish a communication system, and the teacherstudent interaction is believed to contribute on students" language development